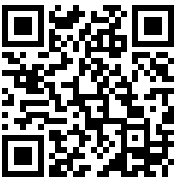
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NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS

AND ADDRESSES

SESSION OF THE YEAR 1894

HELD AT

ASBURY PARK, NEW JERSEY

PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION

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CONSTITUTION

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

PREAMBLE.

To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States, we, whose names are subjoined, agree to adopt the following:

CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I.—NAME.

This Association shall be styled the National Educational Association.

ARTICLE II.—DEPARTMENTS.

Section 1. It shall consist of eleven departments: The first, of School Superintendence; the second, of Normal Schools; the third, of Elementary Schools; the fourth, of Higher Instruction; the fifth, of Industrial Education; the sixth, of Art Education; the seventh, of Kindergarten Instruction; the eighth, of Music Education; the ninth, of Secondary Education; the tenth, of Business Education; the eleventh, of Child Study; and a National Council of Education.

Sec. 2. Other departments may be organized in the manner prescribed in this Constitution.

ARTICLE III.—MEMBERSHIP.

Section 1. Any person in any way connected with the work of education, or any educational association, shall be eligible to membership. Such person or association may become a member of this Association by paying two dollars and signing this Constitution, and may continue a member by the payment of an annual fee of two dollars. On neglect to pay such fee the membership will cease.

Sec. 2. Each department may prescribe its own conditions of membership, provided that no person be admitted to such membership who is not a member of the General Association.

Sec. 3. Any person eligible to membership may become a life member by paying at once twenty dollars.

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ARTICLE IV.—OFFICERS.

Section 1. The officers of this Association shall be a President, twelve Vice Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, one Director for each State, District or Territory represented in the Association, and the presiding officers of the several departments and a Board of Trustees to be constituted as hereinafter provided. Any friend of education may become a Life Director by the donation of one hundred dollars to the Association at one time, either by himself or on his behalf; and any educational association may secure a perpetual directorship by a like donation of one hundred dollars, the Director to be appointed annually or for life. Whenever a life member desires to become a Life Director he shall be credited with the amount he has paid for his life membership.

Sec. 2. The President, Vice Presidents, Secretary, Treasurer, Trustees, Directors, Life Directors, President of the Council, and presiding officers of their respective departments shall constitute the Board of Directors, and, as such, shall have power to appoint such committees from their own number as they shall deem expedient.

Sec. 3. The elective officers of the Association shall be chosen by ballot, unless otherwise ordered, on the second day of each annual session, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice. They shall continue in office until the close of the annual session subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen, except as hereinafter provided.

Sec. 4. Each department shall be administered by a President, Vice President, Secretary, and such other officers as it shall deem necessary to conduct its affairs; but no person *shall be elected to any office of any department, or of the Association, who is not, at the time of the election, a member of the Association.*

Sec. 5. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon a presiding officer. In his absence, the first Vice President in order who is present shall preside; and in the absence of all Vice Presidents a *pro tempore* chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question.

Sec. 6. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate report of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors, and shall conduct such correspondence as the Directors may assign, and shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors. The Secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, keep a list of the members of his department.

Sec. 7. The Treasurer shall receive and under the direction of the Board of Trustees hold in safe-keeping all moneys paid to the Association; shall expend the same only upon the order of said Board; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter, which accounts, ending the first day of July each year, he shall render to the Board of Trustees, and, when approved by said Board, he shall report the same to the Board of Directors. The Treasurer shall give such bond for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees; and he shall continue in office until the first meeting of the Board of Directors held prior to the annual meeting of the Association next succeeding that for which he is elected.

Sec. 8. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the Association, excepting those herein intrusted to the Board of Trustees; shall make all necessary arrangements for its meetings, and shall do all in its power to make it a useful and honorable institution. Upon the written application of twenty members of the Association for permission to establish a new department, they may grant such per-

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mission. Such new department shall in all respects be entitled to the same rights and privileges as the others. The formation of such department shall in effect be a sufficient amendment to this Constitution for the insertion of its name in Article II., and the Secretary shall make the necessary alterations.

Sec. 9. The Board of Trustees shall consist of four members, elected by the Board of Directors for a term of four years, and the President of the Association, who shall be a member *ex-officio* during his term of office. At the election of the Trustees in 1886, one Trustee shall be elected for one year, one for two years, one for three years, and one for four years; and annually thereafter, at the first meeting of the Board of Directors held prior to the annual meeting of the Association, one Trustee shall be elected for the term of four years. All vacancies occurring in said Board of Trustees, whether by resignation or otherwise, shall be filled by the Board of Directors for the unexpired term; and the absence of a Trustee from two consecutive annual meetings of the Board shall forfeit his membership therein. The Board of Trustees thus elected and constituted shall be the executive financial officers of the Association, as a body corporate, as conferred by the certificate of incorporation under the provisions of the Act of General Incorporation, Class Third, of the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, dated the 24th day of February, 1886, at Washington, D. C., and recorded in Liber No. 4, "Acts of Incorporation for the District of Columbia."

Sec. 10. It shall be the duty of the Board of Trustees to provide for safe-keeping and investment of all funds which the Association may receive from life directorships, or from donations; and the income of such invested funds shall be used exclusively in paying the cost of publishing the annual volume of Proceedings of the Association, excepting when donors shall specify otherwise. It shall also be the duty of the Board to issue orders on the Treasurer for the payment of all bills approved by the Board of Directors, or by the President and Secretary of the Association acting under the authority of the Board of Directors; and, when practicable, the Trustees shall invest all surplus funds exceeding one hundred dollars that may remain in the hands of the Treasurer after paying the expenses of the Association for the previous year.

ARTICLE V.—MEETINGS.

Section 1. The annual meeting of the Association shall be held at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors.

Sec. 2. Special meetings may be called by the President at the request of five Directors.

Sec. 3. Any department of the Association may hold a special meeting at such time and place as by its own regulations it shall appoint.

Sec. 4. The Board of Directors shall hold their regular meetings at the place and not less than two hours before the assembling of the Association.

Sec. 5. Special meetings may be held at such other times and places as the Board or the President shall determine.

Sec. 6. Each new Board shall organize at the session of its election. At its first meeting a Committee on Publication shall be appointed, which shall consist of the President and the Secretary of the Association for the previous year and one member from each department.

ARTICLE VI.—BY-LAWS.

By-laws not inconsistent with this Constitution may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Association.

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ARTICLE VII.—AMENDMENTS.

This Constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting by the unanimous vote of the members present; or by a two-thirds vote of the members present, provided that the alteration or amendment has been substantially proposed in writing at a previous meeting.

BY-LAWS.

1. At each regular meeting of the Association there shall be appointed a Committee on Nominations, one on Honorary Members, and one on Resolutions.
2. The President and Secretary shall certify to the Board of Trustees all bills approved by the Board of Directors.
3. Each paying member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of its Proceedings.
4. No paper, lecture, or address shall be read before the Association or any of its departments in the absence of its author, nor shall any such paper, lecture, or address be published in the volume of Proceedings without the consent of the Association, upon approval of the Executive Committee.
5. It shall be the duty of the President, Secretary, and Treasurer of the Association to appoint annually some competent person to examine the securities of the Permanent Fund held by the Board of Trustees, and his certificate, showing the condition of the said fund, shall be attached to the report of the Board of Trustees.

ADOPTED BY THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

The establishment of a special fund from surplus receipts, after the expenses of the Association have been paid, to be known as the "Emergency Fund," was recommended by the Board of Trustees, submitted to the Board of Directors at Saratoga Springs, N. Y., July 12, 1892, and the following resolution was adopted:

Resolved, That there be established, as soon as the current expenses of the Association will warrant, an Emergency Fund not to exceed $4,000. Said fund shall be subject to expenditure by the Board of Trustees in accordance with votes of the Board of Directors at any regularly called meeting. The said fund may be used for the purpose of meeting deficiencies of income of the Association, and for such additional investigations and publications as may be determined by said Board of Directors.

The following by-laws pertaining to membership were also submitted to the Board of Directors and approved:

First—The membership of this Association shall consist of two classes, to be styled respectively active and associate members, of whom active members alone shall be entitled to participate in the business of the Association and to hold office.

Second—The active membership of the Association shall consist only of those who are connected with the work of education or with some educational association. Other members shall constitute the associate membership of the Association.

Third—The Directors shall communicate to the Secretary of the Association the names of persons worthy of active membership, and the Secretary shall forward

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to such persons the statement of the conditions and advantages of such membership, with a request that they become members, and, on receipt of the annual fees, they shall be enrolled among the active members.

Fourth—At the first session of each regular meeting of the Association the President shall appoint a Committee on Active Membership, to whom shall be referred all questions of active membership during such meeting, and persons recommended by this committee may become members by a majority vote of members present and voting at any meeting of the Association.

Fifth—During the month of January of each year the Secretary of the Association shall send to each active member a request for payment of the annual fees, and any member who shall neglect for one year the payment of the annual fee shall, by reason of such neglect, forfeit his membership.

ACT OF INCORPORATION.

At a meeting of the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association, held at Saratoga Springs, N. Y., July 14, 1885, the following resolution was passed:

Resolved, That a Committee of Three be appointed to secure articles of incorporation for the National Educational Association, under United States or State laws, as speedily as may be.

N. A. Calkins of New York, Thomas W. Bicknell of Massachusetts, and Eli T. Tappan of Ohio were appointed such committee.

Under the authority of the resolution quoted above, and with the approval of the committee, and by competent legal advice, the chairman obtained a

CERTIFICATE OF INCORPORATION.

We, the undersigned, Norman A. Calkins, John Eaton and Zalmon Richards, citizens of the United States, and two of them citizens of the District of Columbia, do hereby associate ourselves together, pursuant to the provisions of the Act of General Incorporation, Class Third, of the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, under the name of the "National Educational Association," for the full period of twenty years, the purpose and objects of which are to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States. * * * To secure the full benefit of said act, we do here execute this our certificate of incorporation as said act provides.

In witness whereof, we severally set our hands and seals this 24th day of February, 1886, at Washington, D. C.

NORMAN A. CALKINS. [L. S.]
JOHN EATON. [L. S.]
ZALMON RICHARDS. [L. S.]

Duly acknowledged before Michael P. Callan, notary public in and for the District of Columbia, and recorded in Liber No. 4, Acts of Incorporation for the District of Columbia.

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CALENDAR OF MEETINGS.

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

1857.—PHILADELPHIA, PA. (Organized.)
JAMES L. ENOS, Chairman.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.

1858.—CINCINNATI, OHIO.
Z. RICHARDS, President.
J. W. BULKLEY, Secretary.
A. J. RICKOFF, Treasurer.

1859.—WASHINGTON, D. C.
A. J. RICKOFF, President.
J. W. BULKLEY, Secretary.
C. S. PENNELL, Treasurer.

1860.—BUFFALO, N. Y.
J. W. BULKLEY, President.
Z. RICHARDS, Secretary.
O. C. WIGHT, Treasurer.

1861, 1862.—No session.

1863.—CHICAGO, ILL.
JOHN D. PHILBRICK, President.
JAMES CRUIKSHANK, Secretary.
O. C. WIGHT, Treasurer.

1864.—OGDENSBURG, N. Y.
W. H. WELLS, President.
DAVID N. CAMP, Secretary.
Z. RICHARDS, Treasurer.

1865.—HARRISBURG, PA.
S. S. GREENE, President,
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
Z. RICHARDS, Treasurer.

1866.—INDIANAPOLIS, IND.
J. P. WICKERSHAM, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
S. P. BATES, Treasurer.

1867.—No session.

1868.—NASHVILLE, TENN.
J. M. GREGORY, President.
L. VAN BOKKELEN, Secretary.
JAMES CRUIKSHANK, Treasurer.

1869.—TRENTON, N. J.
L. VAN BOKKELEN, President.
W. E. CROSBY, Secretary.
A. L. BARBER, Treasurer.

1870.—CLEVELAND, OHIO.
DANIEL B. HAGAR, President.
A. P. MARBLE, Secretary.
W. E. CROSBY, Treasurer.

NAME CHANGED TO

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

1871.—ST. LOUIS, MO.
J. L. PICKARD, President.
W. E. CROSBY, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.

1872.—BOSTON, MASS.
E. E. WHITE, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.

1873.—ELMIRA, N. Y.
B. G. NORTHROP, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.

1874.—DETROIT, MICH.
S. H. WHITE, President.
A. P. MARBLE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.

1875.—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
W. T. HARRIS, President.
W. R. ABBOTT, Secretary.
A. P. MARBLE, Treasurer.

1876.—BALTIMORE, MD.
W. F. PHELPS, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
A. P. MARBLE, Treasurer.

1877.—LOUISVILLE, KY.
M. A. NEWELL, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer.

1878.—No session.

1879.—PHILADELPHIA, PA.
JOHN HANCOCK, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer.

1880.—CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.
J. ORMOND WILSON, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
E. T. TAPPAN, Treasurer.

1881.—ATLANTA, GA.
JAMES H. SMART, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
E. T. TAPPAN, Treasurer.

1882.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
G. J. ORR, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
H. S. TARBELL, Treasurer.

1883.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
E. T. TAPPAN, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS, Treasurer.

1884.—MADISON, WIS.
THOMAS W. BICKNELL, President.
H. S. TARBELL, Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS, Treasurer.

1885.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
F. LOUIS SOLDAN, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS, Treasurer.

1886.—TOPEKA, KAN.
N. A. CALKINS, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.

1887.—CHICAGO, ILL.
W. E. SHELDON, President.
J. H. CANFIELD, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.

1888.—SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.
AARON GOVE, President.
J. H. CANFIELD, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.

1889.—NASHVILLE, TENN.
ALBERT P. MARBLE, President.
J. H. CANFIELD, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT Treasurer.

1890.—ST. PAUL, MINN.
JAMES H. CANFIELD, President.
W. R. GARRETT, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.

1891.—TORONTO, ONTARIO.
W. R. GARRETT, President.
E. H. COOK, Secretary.
J. M. GREENWOOD, Treasurer.

1892.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
E. H. COOK, President.
R. W. STEVENSON, Secretary.
J. M. GREENWOOD, Treasurer.

1893.—CHICAGO, ILL.
(International Congress of Education.)
ALBERT G. LANE, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
J. M. GREENWOOD, Treasurer.

1894.—ASBURY PARK, N. J.
ALBERT G. LANE, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
J. M. GREENWOOD, Treasurer.

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NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

OF THE UNITED STATES.

OFFICERS FOR 1893-4.

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

ALBERT G. LANE	Chicago, Ill.	*President.*
IRWIN SHEPARD	Winona, Minn.	*Secretary.*
J. M. GREENWOOD	Kansas City, Mo.	*Treasurer*

VICE PRESIDENTS.

E. H. COOK New York.
W. H. BARTHOLOMEW, Kentucky.
L. E. WOLFE, Missouri.
G. J. RAMSEY, Louisiana.
M. C. FERNALD, Maine.
E. E. WHITE, Ohio.
J. W. DICKINSON, Massachusetts.
T. A. FUTRALL, Arkansas.
F. A. FITZPATRICK, Nebraska.
C. P. ROGERS, Iowa.
EDWARD SEARING, Minnesota.
N. C. SCHAEFFER, Pennsylvania.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

N. A. CALKINS	*Chairman*	124 E. 80th St., New York.
ZALMON RICHARDS	*Secretary*	1301 Corcoran St., Washington, D. C.
ZALMON RICHARDS	Washington, D. C.	Term expires July, 1896.
E. C. HEWETT	Normal, Ill.	Term expires July, 1895.
N. A. CALKINS	New York City.	Term expires July, 1894.
H. S. TARBELL	Providence, R. I.	Term expires July, 1893.
A. G. LANE	Chicago, Ill.	*Ex-Officio.*

"The Board of Trustees shall be the executive financial officers of this Association as a body corporate." —*Art. IV., Secs. 9 and 10 of the Constitution.*

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

A. G. LANE	Chicago, Ill.	*President.*
IRWIN SHEPARD	Winona, Minn.	*Secretary.*
J. M. GREENWOOD	Kansas City, Mo.	*Treasurer.*
N. H. COOK	Flushing, N. Y.	*First Vice President.*
E. A. CALKINS	New York City.	*Chairman Board of Trustees.*

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See *Art. IV., Sec. 2, of the Constitution.*

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Virginia		
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Florida	FREDERIC PASCO	Jacksonville.
South Central Division.		
Kentucky	McHENRY RHOADS	Frankfort.
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Louisiana	A. A. TRENBY	
Texas	H. C. PRITCHETT	Huntsville.
Arkansas	JUNIUS JORDAN	Pine Bluff.
North Central Division.		
Ohio	J. A. SHAWAN	Columbus.
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Wisconsin	ALBERT HARDY	La Crosse.
Iowa	O. J. LAYLANDER	Cedar Falls.
Minnesota	R. E. DENFELD	Duluth.
Missouri	JNO. T. BUCHANAN	Kansas City.
North Dakota		
South Dakota		
Nebraska		
Kansas	J. N. WILKINSON	Emporia.
Western Division.		
Montana	R. G. YOUNG	Helena.
Wyoming	WM. MARQUERAT	Laramie.
Colorado	R. H. BEGGS	Denver.
New Mexico		
Arizona		
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Nevada		
Idaho		
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Oregon	E. B. McELROY	Salem.
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OF THE UNITED STATES.

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LIFE DIRECTORS.

CALIFORNIA.

1888. Brown, LeRoy D., 534 5th St., Santa Monica, Los Angeles Co.

COLORADO.

1888. Gove, Aaron, 2045 Grant Ave., Denver.

ILLINOIS.

1887. Dougherty, Newton C., 906 E. Bluff St., Peoria.
1887. Parker, Chas. I., 893 71st Place, Chicago.
1891. Pike, J., Jerseyville.

KANSAS.

1886. Fairchild, Geo. T., State Agricultural College, Manhattan
1886. Jewett, A. V., Abilene, Dickinson Co.
1877. Marshall, T. Marcellus, Sac and Fox School, White Cloud.
1886. Taylor, A. R., Emporia, Lyon Co.

MASSACHUSETTS.

1887. Hunt, Mary H., 23 Trull St., Dorchester District, Boston.

MISSOURI.

1886. Greenwood, J. M., 8th and Oak Sts., Kansas City.

NEW YORK.

1885. Hall, Caleb G., New Berlin.
1881. Rickoff, Andrew J., 444 Central Park W., New York.

OHIO.

1888. Day, L. W., 805 Cuyahoga Bldg., Cleveland.

OREGON.

1888. Stratton, C. C., D. D., Portland University, University Park.

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CALIFORNIA.

1889. Hobe, Augusta W., 1633 Hyde St., San Francisco.
1879. Hoose, James H., 255 S. Euclid Ave., Pasadena.
1877. De Jarnette, Anna Kalfus, "Report" Office, San Jose.
1882. Morris, Harriette N., State Normal School, Chico.
1884. Twining, N. C., Rialto, San Bernardino Co.

CONNECTICUT.

1884. Barnard, Henry, 28 Main St., Hartford.
1884. Northrop, Birdsey G., Clinton.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

1884. Bell, Alex. Graham, 1331 Connecticut Ave., Washington.
1876. Harris, Wm. T., Bureau of Education, Washington.
1880. Hitz, John, 1601 35th St., Washington.
1889. Keane, Rt. Rev. John, Catholic University, Washington.
1864. Richards, Zalmon, 1301 Corcoran St., Washington.
1880. Wilson, J. Ormond, 1439 Massachusetts Ave. N. W., Washington.

GEORGIA.

1890. Baker, Supt. W. H., Chatham Academy, Savannah.
1881. Mallon, Mrs. Frances C., The Leland, Houston St., Atlanta. (?)
1870. Manley, R. M., Dalton, Whitfield Co.

ILLINOIS.

1870. Allen, Ira W., 612 Maple St., Englewood, Chicago. (?)
1880. Brown, Geo. P., Bloomington, McLean Co.
1884. Cheney, Augustus J., Oak Park, Chicago.
1864. Eberhardt, John F., 161 La Salle St., Chicago. (?)
1876. Forbes, Alexander, 262 Wabash Ave., Chicago.
1884. Hayward, Emily A., 1233 Irving Park Boulevard, Chicago.
1884. Hewett, Edwin C., 200 Ash St., Normal, McLean Co.
1891. Hull, John, Normal University, Carbondale. (?)
1884. Rabb, Henry, 729 W. Edwards St., Springfield.

INDIANA.

1876. Bell, W. A., 66 1-2 North Penn St., Indianapolis.
1880. Irwin, John S., 241 W. Main St., Fort Wayne.
1866. McRae, N. S., Marion. (?)
1877. Smart, James H., President Purdue University, La Fayette.
1876. Stevens, M. C., Waldron St., West Side, La Fayette.

IOWA.

1880. Gilchrist, J. C., Laurens, Pocahontas Co.
1886. Pickard, Josiah L., 419 N. Clinton St., Iowa City.
1884. Taylor, Henry J., 1635 Douglas St., Sioux City.
1884. Willis, Wm. A., 308 Church St., Iowa City.

KANSAS.

1886. Campbell, A. G., Council Grove, Morris Co.
1886. Clark, Frank Howard, Minneapolis, Ottawa Co.
1886. Coover, N. Wilson, Ellsworth Co. (?)
1886. Fairchild, Edward T., Ellsworth, Ellsworth Co.
1886. Jay, Walter M., A. M., St. John's School, Salina.
1886. Klock, J. E., cor. 5th and Delaware, Leavenworth.
1886. Larimer, Henry G., 216 Clay St., Topeka. (?)
1886. Limerick, Alex. H., 902 E. 9th St., Winfield.
1886. MacDonald, John, "Western School Journal," Topeka.
1886. McVicar, President Peter, cor. Euclid and College Ave., Topeka.
1886. Meade, Richard C., Atchison. (?)
1886. Roop, C. Y., 336 S. 7th St., Salina. (?)
1886. Rose, Geo. E., Rosedale, Wyandotte Co.
1886. Sawhill, Thos. A., Concordia, Cloud Co.
1886. Schuyler, Aaron, 1316 S. Santa Fé St., Salina. (?)
1886. Stanley, Edmund, Lawrence.
1886. Tillotson, D. C., 621 Fillmore St., Topeka. (?)
1886. Williams, Philo J., Massachusetts St. Lawrence.
1886. President Board of Education, Abilene, Dickinson Co.

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1886. Dodge City Schools, care E. D. Webb, Dodge City, Ford Co.
1886. Board of Education, City of Ottawa, Franklin Co.
1886. Sedgwick City Schools, Sedgwick, Harvey Co.
1886. Cowley County Teachers' Association, Winfield.
1886. Riley County Teachers' Association, Manhattan.

KENTUCKY.

1877. Bartholomew, W. H., 426 Gray St., Louisville.
1877. Monsarrat, Mrs. L. L., 549 2d St., Louisville.

MARYLAND.

1876. Richmond, Miss S. E., 1402 Penna. Ave., Baltimore.

MASSACHUSETTS.

1884. Bascom, John, Williamstown.
1864. Hagar, Daniel B., 12 Summer St., Salem.
1870. Jones, Daniel W., 4 Hawthorn St., Roxbury, Suffolk Co.
1886. Mowry, Wm. A., 97 Federal St., Salem.
1865. Sheldon, Wm. E., 3 Somerset St., Boston.

MINNESOTA.

1864. Pennell, Calvin S., 2245 Knapp St., St. Anthony Park.
1870. Phelps, Wm. F., 105 Germania Life Bldg., St. Paul.
1890. Independent School District, No. 3, Northfield, Rice Co.

MISSOURI.

1886. Evans, Chas. H., 915 Locust St., St. Louis.
1877. Soldan, F. Louis, 1616 Hickory St., St. Louis.

NEBRASKA.

1876. Beals, Samuel De Witt, 2118 Davenporte St., Omaha.
1880. Bibb-Sudborough, Mrs. Grace, 549 S. 26th Ave., Omaha.
1884. Curry, Robert, cor. D and 4th Sts., Palmyra.
1880. Marble, Supt. Albert P., 508 City Hall, Omaha.
1886. Miller, J. H., Room 5, Ledwith Block, Lincoln.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

1876. Rounds, Charles C., Plymouth.

NEW JERSEY.

1876. Thompson, Langdon S., 30 Park St., Jersey City.

NEW YORK.

1871. Anderson, Dr. John J., 343 Adelphi St., Brooklyn.
1879. Calkins, N. A., 124 E. 80th St., New York.
1880. Coe, Emily M., 70 5th Ave., New York.
1864. Cruikshank, James, 206 So. Oxford St., Brooklyn.
1883. Day, Mrs. Albert,———, New York. (?)
1882. Hodgdon, Josephine E., 80 Willoughby St., Brooklyn.
1885. Hunter, Thomas, Normal College, New York.
1879. Kraus, John, New York. (?)
1880. Rickoff, Mrs. Rebecca D., 444 Central Park, W. New York.
1882. Stern, M., 27 E. 44th St., New York.
1884. Van Aken, Mrs. Georgiana, 63 Park St., New York.

NORTH CAROLINA.

1884. Bingham, Robert, Asheville, Buncombe Co.

OHIO.

1884. Bennett, C. W., 218 W. Ash St., Piqua.
1880. Bennett, Hampton, Franklin, Warren Co.
1880. Burns, J. J., 167 N. Walnut St., Canton.
1870. Cole, W. H., Marysville, Union Co.
1883. Coy, E. W., Hughes High School, Cincinnati.
1866. Curran, Ulysses T., 622 Columbus Ave., Sandusky. (?)
1880. Davidson, Chas. C., 59 W. Ely St., Alliance.
1880. Dutton, Bettie A., 94 State St., Cleveland.
1865. Hartshorn, O. N., Alliance. (?)
1870. Holden, L. E., Cleveland. (?)
1879. McMillan, Reuben, Canfield, Mahoning Co.
1880. McMillan, Mrs. R., Canfield, Mahoning Co.
1880. Miller, Lewis, Oak Place, Akron.

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OHIO—*Continued.*

1880. Peaslee, John B., McGregor Park, Cincinnati.
1882. Robert, James A., 230 Sunset Ave., Dayton.
1894. Shawan, J. A., 1122 E. Town St., Columbus.
1870. White, Emerson E., 387 E. Broad St., Columbus.
1880. Widner, Esther, 1224 N. Main St., Dayton.
1870. Williams, Mrs. Delia Lathrop, 62 S. Liberty St., Delaware.

PENNSYLVANIA.

1870. Arey, Oliver, 303 Springfield, Ave., Philadelphia. (?)
1879. Avery, Rachel Foster, Somerton, Philadelphia.
1876. Brooks, Edward, 240 S. 39th St., Philadelphia.
1879. Gratz, Simon, 1919 Spruce St., Philadelphia.
1891. Lyte, E. Oram, State Normal School, Millersville.
1879. Shippen, Edward, 532 Walnut St., Philadelphia. (?)
1880. Singer, Edgar A., 4662 Penn St., Philadelphia.
1884. Stewart, Miss Sarah A., 1520 Chestnut St., Philadelphia.

RHODE ISLAND.

1882. Bicknell, Thos. W., 49 Westminster St., Providence.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

1891. Schofield, Martha, Schofield School, Aiken.

TENNESSEE.

1887. Conway, Clara, Memphis.

WASHINGTON.

1884. Henry M. James, 708 Q St., Tacoma.

WISCONSIN.

1884. Albee, Geo. S., State Normal School, Oshkosh.
1884. Aylward, John Arthur, 17 W. Doty St., Madison.
1884. Beck, Geo., 125 Elm St., Platteville.
1884. Carpenter, J. H., 315 Wisconsin Ave., Madison.
1884. Chandler, Willard Harris, Sun Prairie, Dane Co.
1884. Charlton, Edwin A., Broadhead, Green Co. (?)
1884. Clark, L. H., River Falls, Pierce Co.
1884. Eden, Philip, Richland Centre.
1884. Emery, J. Q., Albion, Dane Co.
1884. Flavin, John T., Watertown, Jefferson Co.
1884. Harvey, Lorenzo Dow, 225 23d St., Milwaukee.
1884. Hutton, A. J., 1105 Main St., Whitewater.
1884. Nye, Chas. H., Court House, Lancaster, Grant Co.
1884. Parker, Warren D., River Falls.
1884. Parkinson, John B., 803 State St., Madison.
1884. Shaw, Samuel, Crandon, Forest Co.
1884. Stark, Joshua, Milwaukee.
1884. Stewart, I. N., 737 North St., Appleton, Outagamie Co.
1884. Stearns, J. W., 512 Wisconsin Ave., Madison.
1884. Spencer, Robert C., 178 Prospect Ave., Milwaukee.
1884. State Normal School, Platteville, Grant Co.
1884. Thayer, J. B., Madison.
1884. Whitford, Rev. William C., D. D., Milton, Rock Co.
1884. Board Regents State Normal Schools, Wis. Ira A. Hill, President, Madison.
1884. County Superintendents' Association, Wisconsin.
1884. State Historical Society, Madison.
1884. Board of Education, Beloit.
1884. Board of Education, Janesville.
1884. Board of Education, A. N. Hardy, Clerk, La Crosse.
1884. Board of Education, Watertown.
1884. Superintendent Public Schools (Board of Education), Milwaukee.
1884. Board of Education (R. H. Halsey, Supt. Schools), Oshkosh.
1884. Alumni Association, City Normal School, Milwaukee.
1884. County Teachers' Association, Milwaukee.
1884. Intermediate and Upper Section, Teachers' Corps, Milwaukee.
1884. Principals' Association, Milwaukee.
1884. Primary Section, Teachers' Corps, Milwaukee.
1884. Athenaeum Literary Society, State Normal School, Platteville.
1884. Philadelphian Society, State Normal School, Platteville.
1884. Public School Teachers, Janesville.
1884. Wisconsin Principals' Association.
1884. Wisconsin Teachers' Association.

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ADDRESSES UNKNOWN.

Letters sent to the last known address of the following were returned by the postmasters, marked "Not called for," "Unknown," etc.:

Brown, Mrs. A. J.
Crosby, W. E.
De Wolf, David F.
English, R. F.
Franklin, M. B.
Harvey, G. I.
Heywood, C. W.
O'Connor, Joseph.
Partridge, Lelia E.
Paxon, Joseph.
Schmitz, J. Adolph.
Setzefaud, A.
Spring, E. A.
Videlia, Dornia G.
Wilcox, M. C.
Woodward, G. A.
Wright, Edmund W.
Young, Chas. S.

NAMES OF LIFE MEMBERS DECEASED.

Allyn, Robert, Illinois.
Corey, Lucien B., New York.
Danforth. Edward, New York.
Graham, Robert, Wisconsin.
Hancock, John, Ohio.
Harvey, Thomas W., Ohio.
Hobbs, B. C., Indiana.
Howland. H. C., Wisconsin.
Ingram, S. D., Pennsylvania.
Mayhew, Ira, Michigan.
Newell, M. A., Maryland.
Rusk, Hon. Jeremiah M., Wisconsin.
Stanford, Leland (Life Director), California.
Stevenson, R. W., Ohio.
Stone, E. M., Rhode Island.
Stone, Mrs. M. A., Connecticut.
Tourgee, Eben, Massachusetts.
Wickersham, James P., Pennsylvania

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FINANCIAL

SUMMARY OF TREASURER'S

J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer, in Account with

Balance of account from receipts of 1891 (Toronto) meeting, as per Treasurer's report, July, 1892	$3,811.97	
Amount transferred to the Emergency Fund, as per vote by the Board of Directors, July 12, 1892	2,500.00	
Balance from account 1891		$1,311.97

Dr.

To net balance in treasury for account of 1892		$1,311.97
To membership fees paid at meeting Department Superintendents, Brooklyn, N. Y., 1892	$156.00	
To membership fees paid at the meeting, Saratoga Springs, 1892	1,686.00	
To membership fees collected and paid over by railroad officials	5,196.90	
To membership fees collected and paid over by steamboat companies	144.00	
To membership fees from other sources	8.00	
To University of New York City, fifteen-year membership	20.00	
To sale of Proceedings, Department Superintendents	165.00	
To sale of back volumes, National Educational Association	160.25	
		7,536.15
To interest on Permanent Fund, 1892		2,183.64
Total resources		$11,031.76

SUMMARY OF YEAR'S FINANCES.

Total receipts for 1892	$9,719.79
Total disbursements for 1892	8,500.73
Net proceeds for 1892	$1,219.06

ASBURY PARK, N. J., July, 1894.

Mr. J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer, having submitted an account of the receipts and disbursements for the year ending July 1, 1893, to the Board of Trustees, and a summary of the same having been made to the Board of Directors, the report is presented for publication with the Proceedings.

N. A. CALKINS,
H. S. TARBELL,
E. C. HEWETT,
Trustees of National Educational Association.

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REPORT.

REPORT FOR 1892—(SARATOGA MEETING.)

the National Educational Association.

Cr.

By expenses by the President in making arrangements for the meeting at Saratoga Springs, 1892	$450.80	
By expenses by the Executive Committee, meeting of 1892	254.65	
By expenses by the Treasurer	428.11	
By expenses by the Secretary	95.85	
By expenses for General Association	1,085.93	
		$2,319.34
By expenses for Departments—		
Superintendence—Brooklyn	$28.00	
Secondary Education	25.00	
Art	15.00	
Music	15.00	
Manual Training	53.50	
		136.50
By expenses by Board of Trustees—		
Rent and care of depository	$150.00	
Rent, safe deposit vault	25.00	
Postage, telegrams, express	20.60	
		195.60

By expenses of State Managers—

Maine	$5.25	Massachusetts	$14.15
Rhode Island	11.35	New Jersey	20.00
Pennsylvania	20.00	Kansas	19.60
Colorado	20.00	Oregon	20.00
Minnesota	10.25	Ohio	20.00
Michigan	20.00	Iowa	20.00
New Mexico	10.00	Arkansas	20.00
West Virginia	20.00	Nebraska	20.00
Georgia	19.00	Alabama	20.00
Kentucky	13.75	Vermont	2.73
Missouri	20.00		

346.08

By expenses for publishing Proceedings meeting Superintendents—Brooklyn (special edition)	703.25
By expenses for electrotyping and printing 1,000 copies History of National Educational Association	430.10
By expenses for publishing 3,000 copies Proceedings of meeting at Saratoga Springs, 1892—	
Preparing the Proceedings for publication	$475.00
Printing and binding 3,000 copies	3,117.70
Distributing copies to members	561.16
	4,153.86
By expenses redeeming (108) coupons for duplicate membership fees	216.00
Total disbursements	$8,500.73
*Balance for account 1893	2,531.03
	$11,031.76

*By special vote of the Board of Directors the sum of $1,000 of this balance was reserved to pay preliminary expenses of the committee of the National Educational Association in charge of arrangements for the International Congress of Education to be held at Chicago in 1893.

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FINANCIAL

SUMMARY OF TREASURER'S

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF

J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer, in Account with

Dr.

To balance in treasury from 1892, as per Treasurer's report, July, 1893.....		$2,531.03
To membership fees—Boston meeting, Department of Superintendence, 1893.....	$280.00	
To membership fees—June, 1893.....	20.00	
To membership fees at Chicago, July, 1893.....	1,232.00	
To membership fees, per A. G. Lane.....	1,160.48	
To membership fees, additional in 1893.....	16.00	
To membership fees, at Richmond for 1893.....	30.00	
To membership fees, per E. H. C., 1893 (net).....	48.25	
To membership fees, per Secretary Shepard, 1893.....	33.75	
		2,820.48
To orders for volume 1893 J. M. G.....	25.50	
To orders for volume 1893, Secretary Shepard.....	201.00	
To orders for volume 1893, N. A. C.....	345.69	
To sale back volumes, Z. R.....	115.25	
		687.44
To interest on Permanent Fund for the year ending July 1, 1894.....		2,369.16
		$8,408.11

SUMMARY OF YEAR'S FINANCES.

Total resources for 1893.....	$8,408.11
Total disbursements for 1893.....	8,173.92
Balance for account 1894.....	$234.19

The Treasurer's report for the year ending July 1, 1894, has been examined and approved.

N. A. CALKINS,
H. S TARBELL,
E. C. HEWETT,
Trustees of the National Educational Association.

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REPORT.

REPORT FOR 1893.

EDUCATION, CHICAGO, 1893.

the National Educational Association.

Cr.

By preliminary expenses by the Committee of Arrangements for the Congresses of Education—		
For circulars and preliminary programs	$450.58	
For distribution of circulars, programs and other postage	290.00	
For membership certificates	167.25	
		$907.83
By general expenses of the Congresses—		
For programs of the several Congresses at Chicago	$235.50	
For membership badges	85.00	
For reporting Proceedings of the several Congresses—D. S. Geer and assistants	314.43	
For stenographer and messenger—President A. G. Lane	47.00	
For printing, postage, telegrams and traveling expenses of President Lane	190.30	
For printing, stationery, postage, telegrams and express—Secretary Shepard	194.07	
For expenses of Treasurer at Chicago for assistants, telegrams, postage and express for 1893	120.20	
For expenses of Executive Committee	122.89	
For expenses of A. F. West, Secretary of Higher Education	32.00	
For extra stenographer for the Secretary of Higher Education	62.00	
For expenses of Congress of Secondary Education	9.35	
For special services of Secretary Shepard, in connection with the Congress, under instruction of President Lane	200.00	
		$1,613.64
By expenses in connection with the preparation and publication of the Proceedings of Congresses of Education—		
For translating foreign papers	$80.00	
For typewriting and clerical help	55.95	
For telegrams, messengers, postage, express, etc	89.68	
For printing circulars, blanks, and other expenses pertaining to volume Proceedings for 1893, by Secretary Shepard	163.74	
For editing, supervising, and distributing the Proceedings	500.00	
		889.37
By expenses, printing, binding and distribution of Proceedings—		
For composition, electrotyping, paper, printing and binding 2,000 volumes of 1,007 pages	$4,033.25	
For delivering volumes Proceedings to members, etc	407.37	
		4,440.62
By expenses of the National Educational Association during 1893—		
For meeting Department Superintendence, Boston, 1893	$94.75	
For rent and care of depository of National Educational Association in Washington, D. C	150.00	
For special service and incidental expenses of Z. Richards	52.71	
For rent safe deposit vault for Trustees	25.00	
		322.46
		$8,173.92
Balance for account 1894		234.19
		$8,408.11

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SEVENTH AND EIGHTH ANNUAL REPORTS OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

To the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association:

Owing to the fact that no regular meeting of the National Educational Association or of the Board of Directors was held during the year 1893, the Board of Trustees submit at this time their seventh annual report of the condition of the Permanent Fund for the year ending June 30, 1893, and also their eighth annual report for the year ending June 30, 1894:

SEVENTH ANNUAL REPORT.

At the close of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1892, the amount of the Permanent Fund was forty thousand dollars ($40,000), of which thirty-one thousand three hundred and thirty-eight dollars ($31,338) was then invested, and the sum of five thousand and sixty-two dollars ($5,062) (from previous investments matured and paid) and the further sum of three thousand six hundred dollars ($3,600) just added to the fund, made a total of eight thousand six hundred and sixty-two dollars ($8,662) not invested, owing to the lack of a favorable opportunity.

Early in September, 1892, seven thousand dollars ($7,000) was invested, and the balance, one thousand six hundred and sixty-two dollars ($1,662), was also invested before the 16th of March, 1893.

On the 30th day of June, 1893, the entire sum of the Permanent Fund was invested, with only one thousand dollars ($1,000) bearing interest as low as five and one-half per cent.

The amount of interest received from the Permanent Fund during the year ending June 30, 1893, was two thousand one hundred eighty-three dollars and sixty-four cents ($2,183.64), which sum is included in the report of the Treasurer as a part of the receipts for that period.

Respectfully submitted,

N. A. CALKINS,
H. S. TARBELL,
E. C. HEWETT,
Z. RICHARDS,
Trustees National Educational Association.

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EIGHTH ANNUAL REPORT.

At the close of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1893, the amount of the Permanent Fund was forty thousand dollars ($40,000). During that year securities to the amount of thirteen hundred dollars ($1300) matured and were paid. At the close of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1894, the amount of the Permanent Fund invested was thirty-eight thousand and seven hundred dollars ($38,700). The sum not invested is thirteen hundred dollars ($1300).

The amount of interest received from the Permanent Fund during the year ending June 30, 1894, was two thousand three hundred sixty-nine dollars and sixteen cents ($2,369.16), which sum is included in the report of the Treasurer as a part of the receipts for that period.

There also now remain a few coupons—for interest due, amounting to $111, which will probably be paid during the present year. The certificate attached hereto states the kind and amount of securities now belonging to the Permanent Fund.

Respectfully submitted,

N. A. CALKINS,
H. S. TARBELL,
E. C. HEWETT,
Z. RICHARDS.

Trustees of the National Educational Association.

ASBURY PARK, N. J., July 10, 1894.

CERTIFICATE ATTACHED TO THE PRECEDING REPORT.

This is to certify that I have this day examined the securities of the Permanent Fund belonging to the National Educational Association, now held by the Board of Trustees, and that I found the said securities to consist as follows:

A first mortgage on real estate in the city of Providence, R. I., for three thousand dollars ($3,000), with a policy of fire insurance for the same amount; of school district bonds to the amount of twenty-three thousand and four hundred dollars ($23,400), with proper coupons attached; of municipal bonds—county, township, and city—to the amount of twelve thousand and three hundred dollars ($12,300), with coupons attached; making the total amount of said securities thirty-eight thousand and seven hundred dollars ($38,700). In addition to these securities there is in cash the sum of thirteen hundred dollars ($1,300) in a trust company, the proceeds of bonds matured and paid during the past year. The entire amount of the Permanent Fund at this date is forty thousand dollars ($40,000). The securities are kept in the safe deposit vault of the Nassau Bank.

ANDR. J. RICKOFF.

NEW YORK, June 29, 1894.

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FIRST ANNUAL REPORT

RELATIVE TO THE

EMERGENCY FUND.

To the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association:

An Emergency Fund having been provided by the transfer of two thousand and five hundred dollars ($2,500) from the surplus funds of the National Educational Association for 1891, the Board of Directors authorized "the Board of Trustees to disburse, on vouchers signed by the Chairman of the Committee of Ten, so much of the twenty-five hundred dollars ($2,500) as may be necessary to carry on the work of the said committee." (See *Minutes, Board of Directors, July 12, 1892.*)

While considering places for holding the nine conferences, partly with view to the least possible aggregate expense of members for traveling, it was ascertained that a much greater sum would be necessary than had been provided by the National Educational Association. The Chairman of the Committee of Ten immediately set about procuring the additional sum required, with the result that the sum of two thousand and ninety-four dollars ($2,094) was added to the amount provided by this Association, making the amount available for the purposes of the committee four thousand five hundred and ninety-four dollars ($4,594).

It is deemed proper to state, that owing to the free entertainment of the members of the conferences and of the Committee of Ten at their respective places of meeting, and also to the special concessions obtained in the matter of traveling expenses, several hundred dollars were saved which otherwise would have materially increased the total expenditures of the committee.

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The following report gives a summary of the financial matters pertaining to the Committee of Ten:

Total amount of money provided		$4,594.00
SUMS EXPENDED.		
Expenses of the nine conferences, one meeting each; average, $337.70½; total	$3,039.35	
Expenses of Committee of Ten, two meetings; average, $219.25; total	438.50	
Expenses correspondence, telegrams, printing, etc	460.76	
Expenses electrotyping, printing reports of conferences and of Committee of Ten	562.63	
Expenses express on plates, etc	4.70	
		4,505.94
Balance unexpended		$88.06

In behalf of the Board of Trustees,

Respectfully submitted,

N. A. CALKINS,

Chairman.

NEW YORK CITY, June 30, 1894.

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MINUTES

OF THE

THIRTY-THIRD ANNUAL MEETING

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

ASBURY PARK, N. J., JULY 10-13, 1894.

FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

FIRST SESSION.—TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 10TH.

The Association was called to order at 2:30 P. M., Tuesday, July 10, 1894, in the auditorium at Asbury Park, N. J., by Prof. J. M. Ralston, Chairman of the Local Executive Committee.

The Rev. Dr. E. C. Scudder of the Reformed Church, Asbury Park, offered an invocation.

Professor Ralston made a brief opening address, and then introduced Hon. Frank L. Ten Broeck, mayor of Asbury Park, who delivered a brief address of welcome. Mayor Ten Broeck was followed in addresses of welcome by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler of the New Jersey State Board of Education and Hon. A. B. Poland, State Superintendent of Schools of New Jersey. A letter of welcome from Dr. E. H. Stokes, President of the Ocean Grove Camp-meeting Association, was read:

OCEAN GROVE, N. J., July 9, 1894.

SECY. IRWIN SHEPARD,

National Educational Association,

DEAR SIR: I regret that an engagement, of a year's standing, for to-morrow entirely escaped my mind, when I agreed to be present and make a brief address of welcome to the National Educational Association at its opening service at the Asbury Park auditorium. Please say to this distinguished body of ladies and gentlemen, engaged in the high mission of instructing the youth of our land, that I hereby, for myself and my associates, extend a most cordial welcome to our shores and the freedom of our city by the sea during your stay among us.

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The educational institutes of our land are conspicuous among its chief glories, and the light which shines from them should always illuminate the pathways leading to the highest attainments of that righteousness which exalteth nations.

I wish you great success in your noble work, and much pleasure during your visit to us.

Very truly yours,

E. H. STOKES,
President Ocean Grove Camp-meeting Association.

The Chairman, Professor Ralston, then introduced Supt. A. G. Lane of Chicago, President of the National Educational Association, who responded to the addresses of welcome. Responses were also made by Dr. Irwin Shepard of Winona, Minn., Secretary of the Association; by Dr. N. A. Calkins of New York City, Chairman of Board of Trustees, and by Dr. Wm. T. Harris, who was introduced by President Lane with the following tribute:

We rejoice in the fact, that in the Educational Department of the National Government we have a leader of educators, and that, in the changes of administration, the cause of education has been lifted above all partisanship, and that this leader, nominated by the teachers of the country, has been retained in the highest educational office of our country. (Applause.) It gives me great pleasure to introduce to this audience our leader, Dr. William T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education.

The Arion Quartette of Chicago arrived at the close of Dr. Harris' address, and, after an introduction by President Lane, entertained the Association with music.

President Lane introduced Dr. Selim H. Peabody, Chief of the Department of Liberal Arts of the World's Columbian Exposition, of Chicago, Ill., who addressed the Association on the "Educational Value of the Columbian Exhibit."

President Lane then introduced Austin Scott, President of Rutgers College, New Jersey, who addressed the Association upon the subject of "The Organizers of the Nation and Education."

The Association then adjourned to 8 P. M.

SECOND SESSION.—TUESDAY EVENING, JULY 10TH.

The second session was called to order at 8 P. M., July 10, 1894, and was opened with an invocation by the Rev. W. A. Allen of Asbury Park.

Music by the Arion Quartette of Chicago.

PRESIDENT LANE: Three years ago, over 5,000 teachers of the United States met the teachers of Canada at Toronto and received

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a right royal welcome. I am glad to-night to introduce to you Dr. J. A. McLellan of the Toronto Normal School, who will speak to you on "The Ethical Aim in Teaching Literature."

President Lane, after Dr. McLellan's address, introduced Dr. G. Stanley Hall of Clark University, President of the National Association for the Study of Children, who addressed the Association.

Announcements by the Secretary.

Adjourned to 9:30 A M., July 11, 1894.

SECOND DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

THIRD SESSION.—WEDNESDAY MORNING, JULY 11TH.

The third session was called to order at 9:30 A. M., July 11, 1894, by President Lane.

Invocation by the Rev. Walter Thompson of the Asbury Methodist Episcopal Church of Asbury Park.

Music by Mr. Dew of the Imperial Quartette of Chicago and the Arion Quartette.

Supt. Henry A. Wise of Baltimore submitted the report of the Committee on Necrology.

Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler submitted the following report on the organization of a Round Table Department of the Association:

To the National Educational Association:

The committee appointed at Saratoga in July, 1892, to take into consideration ways and means by which the system of round tables, inaugurated at Toronto in 1891 might be developed and continued, respectfully report that, in their judgment, the round tables as they have existed up to this time have been of marked benefit to the Association. They have, for example, attracted to the Association specialists interested in the subjects of "Child Study" and the "Herbartian System of Pedagogics" to such an extent that important groups dealing with these subjects have already been formed, and one of them has been admitted to the Association as a department. It seems to the committee highly important to continue and develop a policy that has proved its value, and it is respectfully suggested that the committee be continued and authorized to devote further study to the subject and report from time to time as it makes progress. It is believed that, for the present, at least, there is marked advantage in retaining the informality of the round tables and in not giving them too close and systematic an organization. Such organization may reasonably be expected to develop at the proper time.

Respectfully submitted,

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER,
W. T. HARRIS,
Committee.

ASBURY PARK, N. J., July 11, 1894.

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The report was accepted, and the committee continued, with authority to develop the plan suggested in their report.

John W. Cook, President of the Illinois Normal University, addressed the Association on the subject: "The Professional Training of Teachers in Normal Schools."

Samuel G. Williams of Cornell University, New York, addressed the Association on the subject: "The Professional Training of Teachers in Colleges."

Dr. E. E. White of Columbus, Ohio, spoke on "The Professional Training of Teachers in Summer Schools."

John A. MacDonald, editor "Western School Journal," Topeka, Kan., addressed the Association on "The Professional Training of Teachers by Educational Publications."

The several papers on professional training of teachers were discussed by Dr. R. G. Boone, President Michigan State Normal School, Ypsilanti, Mich.; Dr. Thomas B. Stowell, President State Normal School, Potsdam, N. Y., and D. B. Johnson, President Teacher's Training School, Columbia, S. C.

A paper was read by Supt. Henry B. Emerson of Buffalo, N. Y., on "Needed Improvements in City School Systems." This paper was discussed by Lawton B. Evans, Superintendent of Schools, Augusta, Ga., in a written paper, which was not read, but submitted to be printed.

President Lane announced State Supt. Henry Sabin of Iowa as Chairman of the Committee on Nominations of Officers for the ensuing year, which committee was composed of one member from each State and Territory.

President Lane then announced the Committee on Resolutions as follows:

Supt. W. H. Maxwell, Brooklyn, N. Y., Chairman; Supt. A. S. Draper, Cleveland, Ohio; Supt. Lawton B. Evans, Augusta, Ga.; President James H. Baker, Boulder, Colorado; Miss Ida Cook, Illinois.

President Lane announced that all resolutions proposed would be submitted to this committee without being read.

Adjourned until 8 P. M.

FOURTH SESSION.—WEDNESDAY EVENING, JULY 11TH.

The fourth session was called to order at 8 P. M., July 11, 1894, by President Lane.

The Rev. A. J. Miller of Asbury Park offered an invocation.

Music by the Arion Quartette.

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PRESIDENT LANE: Mrs. Alice Freeman Palmer telegraphs that she is unable to take her place on this evening's program on account of sickness. We all regret her absence, but I am very glad to be able to introduce to you President C. K. Adams of the Wisconsin University.

Following the address of President Adams the audience was entertained by music by Mr. Charles A. Dew of the Imperial Quartette of Chicago.

Dr. William T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education, addressed the Association on the subject: "The Influence of the Higher Education of a Country upon its Elementary Schools."

Adjourned to Thursday morning, July 12th.

THIRD DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

FIFTH SESSION.—THURSDAY MORNING, JULY 12TH.

The fifth session was called to order in the auditorium at Asbury Park on July 12, 1894, at 9:30 A. M.

Invocation by Rev. Howard T. Widdemer.

Henry Sabin of Iowa, Chairman of the Committee on Nominations, in submitting the report of the committee, said that the Committee on Nominations arrived at its conclusions with entire unanimity. Every nomination was made unanimously and by acclamation. The report of the committee is as follows:

President—Nicholas Murray Butler of New Jersey.

Secretary—Irwin Shepard of Minnesota.

Treasurer—J. M. Greenwood of Missouri.

Vice Presidents—*First Vice President*, A. G. Lane of Illinois; G. M. Philips, of Pennsylvania, L. E. Wolfe of Missouri, W. H. Bartholomew of Kentucky, W. F. Slaton of Georgia, D. B. Johnson of South Carolina, H. A. Wise of Maryland, W. E. Sheldon of Massachusetts, S. S. Packard of New York, W. R. Malone of Utah Territory, D. L. Kiehle of Minnesota, F. A. Fitzpatrick of Nebraska.

Directors—J. H. Phillips, Alabama; Junius Jordan, Arkansas; Earle Barnes, California; Warren E. Knapp, Colorado; Virgil G. Curtis, Connecticut; A. N. Raub, Delaware; William T. Harris, District of Columbia; W. N. Sheats, Florida; Otis Ashmore, Georgia; F. B. Gault, Idaho; Orville T. Bright, Illinois; Jesse H. Brown, Indiana; J. T. Merrill, Iowa; John MacDonald, Kansas; C. H. Dietrick, Kentucky; W. J. Corthell, Maine; John E. McCann, Maryland; Ray Greene Huling, Massachusetts; E. A. Strong, Michigan; C. B. Gilbert, Minnesota; Dabney B. Lipscomb, Mississippi; John T. Buchanan, Missouri; R. G. Young, Montana; James H. Canfield, Nebraska; C. C. Rounds, New Hampshire; A. B. Poland, New Jersey; C. W. Bardeen, New York; C. P. Denson, North Carolina; F. Treudley, Ohio; E. B. McElroy, Oregon; E. O. Lyte, Pennsylvania; Thomas B. Stockwell, Rhode Island;

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P. T. Brodie, South Carolina; Mrs. Edward P. Farr, South Dakota; Frank Goodman, Tennessee; H. C. Prichett, Texas; Ella M. Dukes, Utah Territory; John E. Massey, Virginia; F. J. Barnard, Washington; W. H. Anderson, West Virginia; S. A. Hooper, Wisconsin.

HENRY SABIN,
Chairman.

WILLIAM A. MOWRY,
Secretary.

On motion of Superintendent Fitzpatrick of Nebraska, the report of the Committee on Nominations was adopted, and the Secretary was instructed to cast the ballot of the Association for the election of the officers named in the report of the committee for the ensuing year.

The Secretary of the Association cast the ballot in accordance with instructions, and the President of the Association announced the persons above nominated as the duly elected officers of the National Educational Association for the year 1894-1895.

PRESIDENT LANE: We have received a greeting from the Texas Teacher's Association, with a Resolution in regard to the instruction of the youth of the country, reading as follows:

Whereas, For several years our social equilibrium seems to be very unstable, strikes and other evidences of dissatisfaction upon the part of one class in opposition to another class; and

Whereas, There is a wider and deeper estrangement between those who labor with their hand and their brain against those who labor more particularly with their brains alone; and

Whereas, The estrangement has grown into open defiance of the rights and security of property, and even to bloodshed; therefore, be it

Resolved, That it is the sense of this Association, the duty of the teachers of this state to at once enter upon a systematic course of instruction, which shall embrace, not only a broader patriotism, but a more extended course of moral instruction, especially in regard to the duties of citizenship, the right of property, the security and sacredness of human life.

Resolved, That this Association request the National Association to take up this subject, and that, too, with a full realization of the responsibility that the education of the children of this country is virtually in the hands of the schools, in the hands of 500,000 teachers, who should teach 25,000,000 pupils what they wish to appear in these children when they become citizens in order to perpetuate our common country—our free republic.

The resolution was referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Music by the Arion Quartette.

Miss Corinne Harrison of Norfolk, Va., addressed the Association on the subject: "What Makes—What Mars, the Teacher?"

Dr. James C. Mackenzie of Lawrenceville, N. J., delivered an address on the report of the Committee of Ten, choosing as his topic, "The Feasibility of Modifying the Programs of the Elementary and Secondary Schools, to Meet the Suggestions of the Report."

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J. T. Buchanan, Principal of High School, Kansas City, Mo., opened the discussion of the report of the Committee of Ten on the subject of "Latin." He was followed by Dr. A. F. Nightingale, who discussed the report of the committee on the subject of "English." Frank H. McMurry of the Illinois State University, Champaign, discussed the report of the Committee of Ten on "History," which discussion was continued by President C. K. Adams of Wisconsin State University, who was Chairman of the Sub-Committee on History, and by Dr. C. M. Woodward, St. Louis, Mo.

Adjourned to 8 o'clock P. M.

SIXTH SESSION.—THURSDAY EVENING, JULY 12TH.

The sixth session was called to order by President Lane, and an invocation offered by Rev. H. Douglas Spaeth of Asbury Park.

After music by the Arion Quartette, Dr. Charles De Garmo, President of Swarthmore College, Pennsylvania, delivered an address on "Moral Training through Instruction in the Common Branches."

President Lane introduced Dr. G. Stanley Hall, President of Clark University, Worcester, Mass., who addressed the Association on the subject of "Child Study." This paper was discussed by Wm. L. Bryan, State University, Bloomington, Ind.; Thomas B. Bailey, Marion, S. C., and Miss Adelaide E. Wyckoff, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Adjourned to 9:30 A. M., July 13th.

FOURTH DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

SEVENTH SESSION.—FRIDAY MORNING, JULY 13TH.

The seventh session was called to order at 9:30 A. M., July 13. 1894, by President Lane.

Invocation by the Rev. Wm. I. Gill of Asbury Park.

Music by the Arion Quartette.

Richard A. Wright, President of the Georgia State Industrial College, was introduced by President Lane, and briefly addressed the convention on the "Present Status of the Education of the Colored People in the South."

Music by the Arion Quartette.

President Lane introduced Dr. E. A. Brooks, Superintendent of Schools, Philadelphia, Pa., who addressed the Association on the "Professional Obligations and Duties of Teachers."

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Mrs. Martha Schofield, General Manager of the Schofield Normal Industrial School, Aiken, S. C., was introduced by President Lane, and spoke briefly on "Spiritual Training of Children."

Dr. E. E. White, Columbus, Ohio, briefly discussed Dr. Brooks' paper.

Chas. B. Scott, Superintendent of Nature Study, St. Paul, Minn., addressed the Association on the subject of "Laboratory Methods in Elementary Schools." Discussion by R. E. Denfeld, Superintendent of Schools, Duluth, Minn., followed.

Miss N. Cropsey, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis, Ind., delivered an address on the "Higher Uses of Nature Studies."

Hon. Henry Sabin, State Superintendent of Iowa, addressed the Association on "Horace Mann's Country School." This paper was discussed by Orville T. Bright, County Superintendent of Schools, Cook Co., Illinois, and Mrs. Eliza B. Burnz of New York.

Adjourned to meet at the auditorium in Ocean Grove at 8 P. M

EIGHTH SESSION.—FRIDAY EVENING, JULY 13TH.

The eighth session of the Association was called to order in the auditorium at Ocean Grove at 8 P. M., July 13, 1894, by President Lane.

The meeting was opened with an invocation by the Rev. E. H. Stokes, D. D., President of the Ocean Grove Association.

Music by the Arion Quartette of Chicago.

The Committee on Resolutions submitted their report, through the Chairman, Supt. Wm. H. Maxwell of Brooklyn, N. Y.:

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS.

BY CHAIRMAN W. H. MAXWELL, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

The Committee on Resolutions respectfully submits the following report:

1. The National Educational Association has assembled at a time of marked public disturbance and of grave industrial unrest. The highest powers of the nation have been invoked in time of peace to enforce the orders of the courts, to repress riot and rapine, and to protect property and personal rights. At such a time, we deem it our highest duty to pronounce emphatically, and with unanimous voice, for the supremacy of law and the maintenance of social and political order. Before grievances of individuals or organizations can be considered or redressed, violence, riot and insurrection must be repelled and overcome.

Liberty is founded upon law; not upon license. American institutions are subjected to their severest strain when individuals and organizations seek a remedy for injustice, fancied or real, outside of and beyond the law. We call upon the teachers of the country to enforce this lesson in every school-room in the land, and we heartily accept and indorse the suggestion transmitted to us by the Teachers' Association of the State of Texas, that upon the schools devolves the duty of preparing the rising generation for intelligent and patriotic citizenship, by inculcating those

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principles of public and private morality and of civil government upon which our free Republic is based, and by means of which alone it can endure.

We heartily commend the wisdom and firmness of the President of the United States, as exhibited in this trying time, and we pledge to him and his associates in the conduct of the government our hearty and enthusiastic support in the enforcement of law and the restoration of order. We must, at the same time, record our perfect confidence in the capacity of the American people to grapple with any social problems that shall confront them. Riot, incendiarism and conspiracy are not native growths, but have come among us by importation. They cannot long survive in the clear air of American life.

2. Education is the inalienable right of every child of our Republic. To take care that this right be not denied nor abridged is a duty which no State can neglect with impunity.

3. That education in the public schools may do its perfect work, the first and chief requisite is that no person shall be permitted to teach who has not been well grounded in scholarship, and who has not received thorough professional training.

4. Continued improvement and development of the public schools require that the well-equipped teacher have proper security in the tenure of his office—a tenure free from the demoralizing interference of inexpert opinion, private favoritism, or political vicissitude. We note with satisfaction the movement to secure expert supervision in rural districts, and to lift city school systems above the baleful and abhorrent influences of political machination.

5. We extend our congratulations to the United States Commissioner of Education, and to the Director of the Department of Liberal Arts, as well as to all those who took part in the Educational Congresses and the Educational Exhibit at the World's Fair. In spite of obstacles that seemed at one time insurmountable, success finally crowned their efforts.

6. We heartily commend the efforts put forth by our educational brethren of the South in planning for the forthcoming educational exhibit in connection with the Atlanta Exhibition of 1895.

7. With the appointment of the Committee of Ten, the Association entered upon a legitimate field of educational investigation and research. Through this action, the Association stands committed to a policy of action, as well as of discussion; a policy from which may be expected results of great fruitfulness and importance. To the distinguished Chairman and his associates on the committee are due our sincere and hearty thanks for the labor, patience and ability which they devoted to the important questions they were called to consider. Their remarkable report will stand for years to come as a monument of American scholarship and a source of inspiration to American teachers.

8. We desire to emphasize the essential importance of including, either formally or incidentally, art and ethics in courses of study for all grades. We believe no analysis of the divisions of human knowledge is adequate, which does not distinctly recognize these lines of work.

9. We proclaim our belief in the view of education which attaches importance to content, as well as to formal training; and we commend to all teachers the study of the relative values of different kinds of knowledge, as well as the study of the correlation of all knowledge.

10. The development of education during the past year has been marked by the more extended introduction of the kindergarten into city school systems, by great improvements in school sanitation, by many successful attempts at the correlation of studies and the unification of effort in school work, and by the shortening

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and enriching of many grammar school courses. We believe that the efforts thus made are in the right direction, and that they will be fruitful of excellent results. We entertain the hope, however, that the psychology founded on child study, which has been brought so prominently before the meetings of this Association, will in time prove both an inspiration and a guide in the work of educational reform.

W. H. MAXWELL, *Chairman.*
A. S. DRAPER,
LAWTON B. EVANS,
JAMES H. BAKER,
IDA COOK,
Committee.

Which report was unanimously adopted.

Your committee also submits the following memorandum:

We acknowledge with grateful appreciation the energy, firmness, tact, and sound judgment with which the retiring President of the Association, Albert G. Lane, has discharged the delicate and responsible duties of his position. Our thanks are also due to the Secretary, Irwin Shepard, and to the other executive officers of the Association for the great skill with which they have managed the affairs of the Association.

Which resolution was adopted by a rising vote.

We desire to record our high appreciation of the cordial and lavish hospitality shown by the citizens of Asbury Park and Ocean Grove. More particularly do we render thanks to the State Superintendent of Public Instruction of New Jersey, the State Board of Education, the local Executive Committee, and the Hon. James A. Bradley for the measures they have taken for our comfort and entertainment. We have visited this beautiful summer city with pleasure; we leave it with regret. That New Jersey may ever maintain and advance the high standard she has reached in the intelligence, industry and prosperity of her people, and above all in the education of her children, is the sincere wish of every member of the National Educational Association.

Which resolution was unanimously adopted.

Extract from minutes of meeting of Board of Directors of the National Educational Association, Ocean Hotel, July 11, 1894:

Resolved, That a vote of thanks be extended to Messrs. Wyckoff, Seamans & Benedict, proprietors of the Remington Standard Typewriter, New York City, for the very excellent and gratuitous service rendered to the Executive Committee and to the members of the National Educational Association; and that we express special appreciation of the wonderful skill, generous patience and devotion of the two lady operators, Misses Orr and Meineke, as well as the courtesy of Manager Walleau.

Executive Committee,
A. G. LANE,
President National Educational Association.
IRWIN SHEPARD,
Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS,
Chairman Board of Trustees.
E. H. COOK,
First Vice President.

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President Lane introduced Mrs. Mary H. Hunt of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union and Allied Societies, who briefly addressed the Association as follows:

Mr. President and Members of the National Educational Association:

It has been my fortune, during the last ten days, to be in attendance upon the deliberations of the great National Council of Education. If you were to ask me to define education as I have heard it discussed, I do not think I could define it better than to say: "Education, according to Asbury Park, is the introduction of the individual to himself and to his environment."

Psychologists and philosophers have been telling us about the mind of the child and what to do for its development and its growth. The experts have been telling us about the environment in which the mind is, and all these have nearly always been summed up by us, that education is the development and growth of character.

The children of to-day go out into life, and meet temptations on the right and left, and are tempted to take into their system that which modern science classes as poisonous. Modern science to-day says that no enemy to mind, in its development, no enemy to that intangible something we call soul, no enemy to progress, is equal to alcohol when brought in contact with human tissue.

All through these United States, with the exception of only five States, it is required that these facts revealed by modern science shall be taught in the school-room. Education is the salvation of this country. Deliverance from this evil of alcoholic beverages rests with the trainers of the young.

You say you have not time in the school-room for this new study. Whenever I hear that, I say that somebody is derelict in duty. Then you say, "It is a delicate subject." Yes, I know it is; but it is an all-important subject. Suppose you teach geography, arithmetic and history most carefully, and never tell the child that alcohol is a brain poison. The history and other studies will not save him. There is one great universal law that stands by every teacher, and over every school board and superintendent, which should prompt them to teach this subject. Saloon men and brewers in this country are not opposed to it. The world demands that these dangers shall be taught, the emergencies of the time demand it, and God is with you. Truth is not forever on the scaffold, nor Wrong forever on the throne.

This age demands heroism. It demands loyalty to meet the emergencies of the situation. It wants men and women who are equal to the times; men who can stand alone, if need be, and do their duty. This age needs such men in the school-room and on the school boards, and all along the line, if this great flag of ours is to wave in the next century over the land of the free and the home of the brave.

PRESIDENT LANE: I take great pleasure in introducing to you Prof. Richard G. Moulton, University Extension Lecturer of the University of Chicago. During the music you seemed to be bewitched by the songs that were sung; but we have learned throughout the West to sit entranced under the words that have fallen from the lips of Professor Moulton, as he has spoken of some of the great gems of literature and unfolded their beauty to us. I take pleasure in introducing Prof. Richard G. Moulton of the University of Chicago.

Professor Moulton addressed the Association on the subject of "The Study of Literature."

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PRESIDENT LANE: The hour has come to close the thirty-third session of the National Educational Association. I want to express to the Directors and State Managers my appreciation of their helpful services, and I wish also at this time to publicly recognize the efficient services of our Secretary, Dr. Irwin Shepard of Winona, Minn.

There is a great body of teachers throughout this country who will read the proceedings of this Association in the press reports and in the published volume when it shall appear. The thoughts that have been expressed here will reach 100,000 teachers in their work during the year.

The National Educational Association, appreciating the hospitality of New Jersey, their hearty reception and support, and recognizing the eminent service to the cause of education of one of its distinguished citizens and educators, have elected Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler as the President of the Association for the ensuing year.

Ten years ago, when we held our meeting at Madison, Wis., this gavel which I hold was presented to the presiding officer, and has been transferred to each succeeding President from that time to the present. I am glad at this hour to relinquish to my successor, with this sign of my office, the responsible duties of the President of this Association.

Permit me to congratulate you, Dr. Butler, upon being elected as President of an organization which is to mold and shape educational systems and thought for many years to come.

I am glad to introduce the President-elect of the National Educational Association for 1895, Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler of New Jersey.

Dr. Butler, the President-elect of the Association, responding to the introduction of President Lane, was received with applause, and spoke as follows:

Mr. Lane, Members of the National Educational Association,

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: I little thought, when three days ago it became my duty, as a representative of the State of New Jersey, to welcome the National Educational Association to Asbury Park and Ocean Grove, that it would also be my duty, as President-elect, to say farewell to Ocean Grove and Asbury Park on behalf of that Association. In accepting from your hands the high and honorable office for which I have been designated by the too-partial choice of my fellow teachers, I am profoundly impressed with its honor and its dignity.

This association has grown to manhood. It has passed the period of struggling childhood and inexperienced youth. It represents the Great Republic's army of peace, enlisted for the war upon ignorance, upon vice, upon immorality. No grade of schools, no type of education—lower, intermediate or higher, public or private—is beyond its purview or without its scope. It is a great voluntary body of volunteers and soldiers in the army of learning. To assist, even for a brief time, in the executive management of its affairs is an honor not to be lightly esteemed. I know

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of no organization that so touches my sympathies and excites my enthusiasm as that to whose guidance, sir, [addressing Mr. Lane] you have devoted a laborious period of service. I pledge my best energies and my best endeavors to it. Should I be able to merit, at the expiration of my term of service, a fraction of the encomiums that have been justly showered upon you, I shall be fortunate indeed.

My position at this moment is a difficult one, and yet one that, in some aspects, is not so difficult as it seems. I feel the double enthusiasm of being a Jerseyman and of belonging to this Association. I feel that perhaps I may speak on behalf of both great bodies—the New Jersey teachers and this Association—that have gained renewed strength and renewed enthusiasm from this contact with each other. The teachers of New Jersey have received from the visit of this great body an enthusiasm and a stimulus that will not soon depart, and the National Educational Association has been inspired and invigorated by its visit to these twin cities by the sea, and its members will return to their homes refreshed and strengthened alike in body and mind.

It devolves upon me to say, in explanation of the resolution already voted—by no means formally, but heartily and sincerely—that never has this body been more fully made to feel at home, and never perhaps has it had a more successful and inspiring meeting. (Applause.) We have come to its close. We leave with regret, but with the pleasantest of memories that will long survive, and, as President-elect of the Association, I bid our kind friends farewell.

PRESIDENT BUTLER: The thirty-third annual meeting of the National Educational Association will stand adjourned after the audience has risen and sung "America," led by Mr. Charles A. Dew of the Imperial Quartette, assisted by the Arion Quartette.

"My Country, 'tis of Thee," etc.

The benediction was pronounced by the Rev. E. H. Stokes, President of the Ocean Grove Association.

The thirty-third session of the National Educational Association of the United States was then adjourned *sine die*.

ALBERT G. LANE, *President.*

IRWIN SHEPARD, *Secretary.*

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MINUTES OF THE MEETINGS OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

ASBURY PARK, N. J., July 10, 1894.

The meeting of the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association for the year 1893-1894 was called to order in Amusement Hall of Ocean Hotel, July 10, 1894, by President A. G. Lane.

Eighteen Directors reported as present.

The minutes of the last meeting were read by Secretary Shepard and approved.

Dr. N. A. Calkins of New York, Chairman of the Board of Trustees, presented the report of the Treasurer of the Committee of Ten. (See *Financial Reports.*)

On motion of Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, the report was received, placed on file and ordered printed. The Treasurer was authorized to hold in his hands the unexpended balance as appeared by the report, with authority to expend the same for the purposes for which the appropriation was originally made, on the presentation of the proper vouchers.

In the absence of Treasurer Greenwood, Dr. N. A. Calkins of New York presented the report of the Treasurer for 1893, which he stated was not complete; that the completed report would show an exact balance, and that the Trustees would incorporate this in their financial report. The report as finally revised was ordered printed in the Proceedings.

Dr. N. A. Calkins, Chairman of the Board of Trustees, then presented and read the financial report of the Board for 1892 (Saratoga meeting). (See *Financial Reports.*)

President Lane stated that a petition for the establishment of a new Department in Child Study had been submitted to the Board of Directors for their consideration and vote, by letter.

Secretary Shepard submitted a report of the vote on this matter, stating that replies were not received from all Directors, but that, from forty-one Directors, there was a total of thirty-seven votes in favor of the proposition and four nays. The result of the vote was ordered recorded in the minutes, and the department was declared established.

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President Lane reported the action of the officers of the Association in respect to the publication of the Proceedings of the World's International Congress of Education.

Secretary Shepard read the resolution passed by the Executive Committee of the National Educational Association, at its meeting July 25, 1893, referring to this matter, as follows:

Resolved, That Dr. N. A. Calkins be appointed to edit the volume of Proceedings of the International Congress of Education; that the compensation for this work be fixed at $500, and that Dr. Calkins be authorized to use his discretion in editing the Proceedings, to abridge and condense papers and discussions, as well as entirely to omit such matter as in his judgment is not of sufficient value to justify publication.

A motion was adopted to indorse the action of the Executive Committee in regard to the publication of the Proceedings of the Educational Congress.

President Lane reported that there were 300 copies of the Proceedings of the World's Congress of Education on hand.

President Lane called for the report of Aaron Gove, Chairman of the committee appointed at Saratoga to report recommendations for reorganizing the administration of the business affairs of the Association.

Mr. Gove not being present, the committee was continued.

President Lane called for the report of Dr. Harris, concerning the organization of round tables; but Dr. Harris being absent, this report was referred to the incoming Board of Directors.

Secretary Shepard read the following petition for the organization of a new Department of Temperance Instruction:

A PETITION

TO THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

Whereas, A vast majority of the people of the United States through their State and National legislatures have made "physiology and hygiene, including special instruction as to the nature and effects of alcoholic drinks and other narcotics," a mandatory study for all pupils in all schools under State control;

Therefore, We, the undersigned, believe the time has come when the question of methods in this branch should be considered by the teaching profession, the legal executors of these laws, just as they consider methods in the case of other studies usual to the public schools.

We therefore respectfully petition the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association to create, as a branch of that body's work, a Department of Physiology, including special reference to the effects of alcoholic drinks and other narcotics.

The above petition was duly signed by the required number of members, as provided in the Constitution.

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Director Wm. E. Sheldon offered the following resolution, concerning the establishment of the Department of Temperance Instruction above named:

In recognition of a petition, duly signed by the required number of members of the National Association, for the establishment of a new department, to be known as a Department of Scientific Temperance Instruction, and in view of the great importance of the subject, growing out of compulsory legislation in thirty-nine States of the Union requiring that scientific temperance instruction shall be given in all grades of the public schools of these States, it seems desirable that this Association should make provision for it. The Association has already too many distinct departments, and to meet the emergency of this petition we propose the following resolution:

Resolved, That to the Elementary Department of the National Educational Association shall be added scientific temperance instruction, and that the Board of Directors orders that this department shall hereafter hold three sessions at the annual meetings of the Association, each to be of the same length as heretofore, one of which shall be exclusively devoted to the subject of scientific temperance instruction; and that a Vice President of this department shall be chosen, who shall have the charge of this special subject and its presentation.

After a full discussion, the resolution of Director Sheldon was lost by a rising vote of two for and fourteen against.

An informal discussion followed, in which the general opinion was expressed that it would be desirable for the officers of the Elementary section, or any other section, to give a place on their program to this subject, as is frequently given to other special topics.

Adjourned.

ALBERT G. LANE, *President.*

IRWIN SHEPARD, *Secretary.*

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MINUTES OF THE MEETINGS OF THE NEW BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

ASBURY PARK, N. J., 4:30 P. M., July 12, 1894.

The meeting was called to order by the President-elect, Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler of New Jersey.

On the call of the roll by Secretary Shepard the following Directors responded:

N. C. Dougherty, Illinois; Mary H. Hunt, Massachusetts; James H. Baker, Colorado; N. A. Calkins, New York; Nicholas Murray Butler, New Jersey; A. G. Lane, Illinois; W. H. Bartholomew, Kentucky; W. F. Slaton, Georgia; D. B. Johnson, South Carolina; W. E. Sheldon, Massachusetts; D. L. Kiehle, Minnesota; F. A. Fitzpatrick, Nebraska; H. S. Tarbell, Rhode Island; Zalmon Richards, District of Columbia; E. C. Hewett, Illinois; W. T. Harris, District of Columbia; Ray Greene Huling, Massachusetts; V. G. Curtis, Connecticut; C. W. Bardeen, New York; A. B. Poland, New Jersey; E. Oram Lyte, Pennsylvania; A. N. Raub, Delaware; W. H. Anderson, West Virginia; C. P. Denson, North Carolina; C. H. Dietrick, Kentucky; Frank Goodman, Tennessee; Otis Ashmore, Georgia; J. H. Phillips, Alabama; H. C. Pritchett, Texas; F. Treudley, Ohio; E. A. Strong, Michigan; S. A. Hooper, Wisconsin; J. T. Merrill, Iowa; C. B. Gilbert, Minnesota; John T. Buchanan, Missouri; John MacDonald, Kansas; F. J. Barnard, Washington; W. H. Maxwell, New York; J. M. Milne, New York; R. E. Gallagher, Ontario; Irwin Shepard, Minnesota.

Director Fitzpatrick offered the four following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the President, First Vice President, Secretary, Treasurer and Chairman of the Board of Trustees be, and hereby are, appointed an Executive Committee of the National Educational Association for the ensuing year, with such powers as are conferred on the Board of Directors under the Constitution.

Resolved That all bills for expenditures by the Association be referred to the Board of Trustees as auditors.

Resolved, That all matters involving special or unusual expenditures are hereby referred for approval to the Executive Committee and the Board of Trustees.

Resolved, That all matters pertaining to the administration of the affairs of the Association, not already provided for by specific resolution, be referred to the Executive Committee, with full power to act for the coming year.

Dr. N. A. Calkins of New York and H. S. Tarbell of Rhode Island were nominated to be their own successors as members of the Board of Trustees.

There being no further nominations, on motion, the Secretary of the Board was directed to cast the unanimous ballot of the Associa-

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tion for the election of the candidates respectively, and the President announced that Dr. N. A. Calkins of New York and H. S. Tarbell of Rhode Island were duly elected to succeed themselves as members of the Board of Trustees of the National Educational Association for four years from 1894 and 1893, respectively.

On motion of Director Sheldon, the Chair appointed the following Committee on Nomination of Members of the National Council:

Director William E. Sheldon of Massachusetts, Director Pritchett of Texas, Director Goodman of Tennessee, Director Poland of New Jersey and Director Dougherty of Illinois.

This committee made the following report:

To the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association,

GENTLEMEN: Your committee find the following vacancies in the membership of the National Council to be filled by the appointment of this Board, viz.:

W. H. Bartholomew, Louisville, Ky.....Term expired 1893
Frank A. Fitzpatrick, Omaha, Neb.....Term expired 1893
Henry Sabin, Des Moines, Iowa.....Term expired 1893
E. O. Lyte, Millersville, Pa.....Term expired 1893
J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.....Term expired 1893
C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H.....Term expired 1894
H. S. Jones, Lincoln, Neb.....Term expired 1894
Z. Richards, Washington, D. C.....Term expired 1894
James H. Baker, Boulder, Colo.....Term expired 1894
John T. Prince, Boston, Mass.....Term expired 1894

Your committee respectfully nominate the following to fill the above-named vacancies:

W. H. Bartholomew, Louisville, Ky. (to succeed himself).....Term expires 1899
Frank A. Fitzpatrick, Omaha, Neb. (to succeed himself).....Term expires 1899
Henry Sabin, Des Moines, Iowa (to succeed himself).....Term expires 1899
E. O. Lyte, Millersburg, Pa. (to succeed himself).....Term expires 1899
J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo. (to succeed himself).....Term expires 1899
C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, Mass. (to succted himself).....Term expires 1900
J. H. Phillips, Birmingham, Ala. (to succeed Mr. Jones).....Term expires 1900
Z. Richards, Washington, D. C. (to succeed himself).....Term expires 1900
James H. Baker, Boulder, Colo. (to succeed himself).....Term expires 1900
Oscar H. Cooper, Galveston, Tex. (to succeed Mr. Prince).....Term expires 1900

Respectfully submitted,

WM. E. SHELDON,
For the Committee.

There being no further nominations, the Secretary of the Board was directed to cast the unanimous ballot of the Board of Directors for the election of those named in the report of the committee, which was done, and the same were declared by the President duly elected as members of the National Council.

Director Sheldon of Massachusetts offered the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the Board of Trustees be authorized to place in the Emergency Fund the sum of $1,000, should such sum remain after all expenses incurred by the

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National Educational Association in connection with the Congress of Education at Chicago in 1893 and the meeting at Asbury Park in 1894 have been met.

Resolved, That, should the Emergency Fund permit, the Board of Trustees are hereby authorized to audit and pay bills presented over the signature of the Chairman of the Special Committee of Fifteen appointed by the Department of Superintendence at Boston in February, 1893, and confirmed by the Council at Asbury Park in 1894, for the purpose of investigating problems connected with the elementary education and elementary school organization; provided, that the total bills for this purpose shall not exceed the sum of $1,000; and also provided, that all such bills be for expenses actually incurred with the approval of the Chairman, and that no portion of the fund be drawn upon for compensation to any member of the committee or any officer thereof.

Which resolutions were unanimously adopted.

On motion of Director Lane, it was ordered that the Executive Committee be authorized to print a second edition of the Proceedings of the International Congress of Education, to be sold at the same price as the first edition, viz., two dollars per copy, with postage or express added.

Director Sheldon of Massachusetts presented communications from Herbert L. Morse, Secretary of the Massachusetts Schoolmasters' Club; from H. E. Kratz, Superintendent of Public Schools, Sioux City, Iowa; from the North Nebraska Teachers' Association, and from Henry Sabin, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Iowa; which, together with a communication received by Secretary Shepard from the South Carolina Teachers' Association, were, on motion of Dr. Harris, referred to a Committee of Fifteen for such consideration and report back to the Board as may be deemed advisable.

By direction of President Butler, the roll of the States was called for nominations of places desiring to secure the next meeting of the National Educational Association.

Secretary Shepard read the following telegram from Denver, Colo.:

DENVER, COLO., July 10, 1894.

Hon. A. G. Lane, President National Educational Association, Asbury Park:

Denver sends greetings, with a cordial invitation to hold your next convention in this, America's greatest convention city—the Queen City of the Plains, one mile above sea level, and in the shadow of the snow-capped Rocky Mountains; the land of constant sunshine, refreshing air and cool nights; in sight of the grandest panoramic mountain scenery in the world.

M. D. VAN HORNE,
Mayor.
W. V. BYERS,
President Chamber of Commerce.
J. B. GRANT,
President School Board.
J. F. MCMURRAY,
State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

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Directors Smiley, Briggs, and E. H. Cook spoke in behalf of Denver.

Director Bartholomew of Kentucky invited the Association to Louisville.

Mr. Porter of Texas invited the Association to hold its next meeting in Galveston.

Mr. R. E. Denfeld of Duluth, Minn., read the following letter, and invited the Association to hold its next session in Duluth, Minn.:

DULUTH, MINN., July 2, 1894.

To the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association:

DEAR SIRS: The Board of Education, the Board of Trade, the Common Council, the Jobbers' Union, and the Chamber of Commerce of the City of Duluth extend to you a most cordial invitation to hold the next (1895) meeting of the National Educational Association in the City of Duluth.

Our city is centrally located and easily reached by teachers from the eastern and western portions of the United States, as well as from Canada.

The advantages as to climate and opportunities for mineralogical and geological excursions are unrivaled.

As regards hotels and facilities for entertaining visitors, we are satisfied that Duluth and her sister city across the bay can easily accommodate all who may attend.

We also guarantee to provide all necessary halls, publish the bulletin and pay all local expenses, and secure 1,000 memberships from the State of Minnesota.

Signed on behalf of the different bodies:

Board of Education of the City of Duluth,	W. A. PRYOR, *President pro tem.* H. W. PEARSON, *Clerk.*
Common Council of the City of Duluth,	RAY T. LEWIS, *Mayor.* BENJ. F. HOWARD, *President of the Council.* C. E. RICHARDSON, *Clerk.*
Jobbers' Union,	F. A. PATRICK, *President.* WM. BUCHANNAN, *Secretary.*
Chamber of Commerce,	E. C. GRIDLEY, *President.* C. F. JOHNSON, *Secretary.*

Mr. Curtis invited the Association to St. Louis, Mo.

Director Barnard invited the Association to hold its next meeting in Seattle, Wash.

Director Lane of Illinois moved that the whole subject be referred to the Executive Committee, with power to act, and with the expression of opinion from this Board that the meeting shall be held in the West, if possible.

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Director Sheldon moved as a substitute, that a vote be taken on the preference of the Board as to the most desirable place for holding the next meeting of the Association, and that the expression of preference so determined be referred to the Executive Committee for their consideration, leaving to the Executive Committee power to act as they may deem best. Which motion was unanimously adopted.

A ballot was taken, with the following result:

	First Choice.	Second Choice.	Third Choice.	Total Votes.
Denver	13	12	8	33
Duluth	10	9	12	31
Seattle	12	11	7	30
St. Louis	3	2	9	14
Louisville	2	5	1	8
Galveston	.	1	2	3
Salt Lake	.	..	1	1

On motion of Director Harris, it was resolved that the National Council of Education be placed on the same footing as other departments of the Association, relative to their fixed expenses, viz., fifteen dollars for each meeting, except by special action of the Board of Directors.

Director Maxwell, Brooklyn, N. Y., moved that a sum not exceeding $150 be set apart to defray the expenses of the Superintendents' meeting, in addition to the sum already provided.

TRUSTEE CALKINS: Is it understood that this $150 is to cover the expense of printing the Proceedings and papers?

PRESIDENT BUTLER: The Chair understands that it is to cover all the additional expense involved in holding that meeting.

Director Harris moved to amend the motion, to the effect that the Committee on Printing be authorized to make the plates for the Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence with all due dispatch, and to print a sufficient number of copies to distribute one copy to each member of the Department of Superintendence present at the meeting; and that they be authorized to print a small number of copies additional, for sale at twenty-five cents per copy.

The amendment was accepted by Director Maxwell, and the amended motion was unanimously adopted.

On motion of Director Lane, it was ordered that the Proceedings of the Boston Meeting, in addition to the Proceedings of the Meeting at Richmond, be printed in the next volume.

The motion was unanimously agreed to.

On motion, the Board of Directors adjourned, subject to the call of the President.

ALBERT G. LANE,
President.

IRWIN SHEPARD,
Secretary.

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GENERAL SESSIONS OF THE ASSOCIATION.

ADDRESSES OF WELCOME.

PROF. J. M. RALSTON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS OF ASBURY PARK AND CHAIRMAN OF THE LOCAL EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

Ladies and Gentlemen of the National Educational Association of the United States:

It now becomes my very pleasant duty to declare the thirty-third annual meeting of the National Educational Asociation opened, and to extend to you as a body this greeting from the citizens of Asbury Park and Ocean Grove.

We have recently welcomed the National Editorial Association, and felt honored with their presence; but in your presence the honor is even greater, as we feel that the profession of the teacher is one of the noblest of all callings.

It is not my purpose to dwell upon the wonderful development of our twin cities by the sea. I may say, however, that twenty-five years ago there was nothing here but an immense waste of sand, covered with an almost impenetrable thicket of underbrush, without a single human habitation. To-day you see what we have: the beautiful avenues, the handsome residences, the commodious hotels, and the grand old ocean; to all we bid you welcome. It is our earnest wish that a full measure of pleasure and happiness may be yours, and we hope that you may carry away with you kindly remembrances of Asbury Park and its citizens.

There is living in our town a gentleman, who, on account of his great energy in public affairs, is known as "The Hustler." It is said of him that he "did" the sights of the World's Fair in twenty minutes, and was able afterwards to tell more of what was there on exhibition than those that spent twenty days at Chicago. I have great pleasure in presenting to you the Hon. Frank L. Ten Broeck, mayor of Asbury Park.

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HON. FRANK L. TEN BROECK, MAYOR OF ASBURY PARK.

Mr. President and Members of the National Educational Association:

I second Mr. Ralston's welcome. We hope you are going to have a pleasant stay in Asbury Park and will carry pleasant recollections when you go away. We feel entirely safe to turn the town over to the keeping of such an intelligent body. We are going to see that you have a good time.

DR. NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, MEMBER OF NEW JERSEY STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

It is my pleasant duty, ladies and gentlemen, and I esteem it a high privilege as well, to represent the State Board of Education of New Jersey upon this occasion. As officers of the State and as individuals we extend to you a sincere and cordial welcome. It is just a quarter of a century since this Association honored New Jersey with its presence. It was then a small and struggling body that counted its members by the score. To-day you come back to us in your thousands, a strongly organized and influential body of teachers from every grade and kind of school, representing every State and Territory and the Dominion of Canada. Animated by a common enthusiasm, inspired by one lofty purpose, devoted to a single aim, you represent, as no other body in this country can, the moral and intellectual forces of the nation. We have felt already the stimulus of your coming. Though the time for preparation has been short, our teachers and our citizens are here to greet you, coming alike from the hills of Sussex and Passaic and the beaches of Atlantic and Cape May.

We welcome you to a proud State. Our pride is, we think, justifiable; for we are not inhabitants of that purgatory, or intermediate state, that the jealous newspapers of sleepy Philadelphia and bustling New York poke fun at so often. We are proud of our past history, of our present prosperity, of our promise for the future. Jersey justice is proverbial the world over, and disloyalty, dishonesty and disorder have no permanent place among our people. We commend to your respectful attention our manufacturing and agricultural interests, our efficient and economical government, our contented and happy homes. Most of all do we point to our system of public schools, crowned by that State normal school that yields to none in efficiency and progressiveness. You are in a State—of what other can it be said?—whose only State tax is levied for the support of the common schools. No uncertificated teacher may be paid out of the public funds; no school is a legal school unless conducted for nine months of the year; no life license to teach is issued to a person not profes-

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sionally trained. The laws establishing our centralized system of administration and supervision are admirable, and enable each locality to push forward the work of public education as fast and as far as it will, while compelling the sluggish and the niggardly, if such there be, to do their share,—welding the whole into a State system, and giving us that very desirable thing, a State educational policy.

New Jersey stands with her sister States for law and order, for justice and equity, for moral and intellectual growth. She feels her responsibility, as from every part of the civilized world, alike from despotic Russia, republican France, and our own country that we fondly call free, come indications that the ignorant, the vicious and the anarchical are organizing concerted warfare on society. The coming struggle is not to be between France and Germany, Russia and Turkey, or capital and labor; but between law and lawlessness, justice and rapine, government and anarchy. To carry on this struggle, to supply leadership and ideals, educated men and women are necessary. Upon you, ladies and gentlemen, and upon your colleagues and associates, wherever schools are found, devolves the responsibility of providing them. Lay broad and deep in your schools the foundation which is character. Build high and strong the bulwark which is knowledge. Do not be discouraged or dismayed if results are not immediately achieved, for the character of a nation, like that of an individual, is complex and of slow growth.

Say not, the struggle naught availeth,
The labor and the wounds are vain,
The enemy faints not, nor faileth,
And as things have been they remain.
* * * * * * * *
For while the tired waves, vainly breaking,
Seem here no painful inch to gain,
Far back, through creeks and inlets making,
Comes silent, flooding in, the main.
And not by eastern windows only,
When daylight comes, comes in the light;
In front, the sun climbs slow, how slowly!
But westward, look! the land is bright.

Because we believe that you meet in this spirit and with this purpose, we welcome you, heartily and sincerely, to the State of New Jersey.

HON. A. B. POLAND, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS OF NEW JERSEY.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen of the National Educational Association:

In the brilliant and scholarly address to which you have just listened, Dr. Butler has alluded to the witticism so often perpetrated by our friends and neighbors at our expense, that New Jersey is not in

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the United States. Ordinarily we resent such an impeachment as unpatriotic and undeserved. To-day, however, as I look over this vast audience of people gathered from all parts of our broad country,—from Maine to Texas and from Manhattan to the Golden Gate,—I must perforce admit that this averment of our friends is true: that New Jersey is not in the United States, but that for once the United States is in New Jersey.

During the past few weeks our fair State has experienced two unusual events—two dispensations of providence quite phenomenal and unexpected. A few days ago we awoke one bright morning to find our fields invested by an army of seventeen-year locusts. They came in a single night. They gave us no warning of their approach. They stayed with us a few days only and then quietly folded their wings and as silently disappeared.

The next dispensation, no less remarkable, was the coming to our shores of the National Educational Association. It was in 1869, twenty-five years ago, when its last visitation occurred. Not as the locusts, quietly and unobserved, did you come here, but blazoned and heralded by the newspaper press of the entire country. Nor did this suffice to make the pomp and circumstance of your twenty-five-year visit complete. Little did we think, when we invited you to Asbury Park, that your hegira eastward would tie up all the railroads in the country.

I remember last year in London to have witnessed a great civic and military parade. At the head of the procession rode the lord mayor of London surrounded by his escort. There was the clangor of steel and the glimmer of polished brass. What a magnificent spectacle! What a glorious country! What a grand thing to be the lord mayor of London! But to-day in our free land it is the schoolmaster that is lord mayor; it is he that travels with a military escort. Nowhere else in the world has the schoolmaster ever been so honored.

I recall that famous speech of Lord Brougham, made more than fifty years ago, wherein he used these oft-quoted words: "Let the soldier be abroad if he will; he can do nothing in this age. There is another person less imposing in the eyes of some; perhaps insignificant. The schoolmaster is abroad; and I trust to him, armed with his primer, against the soldier in full military array."

To-day, ladies and gentlemen, both the soldier and schoolmaster are abroad in our land. The soldier has gone west on a mission of danger and death; the schoolmaster has come east on a mission of peace and good will to men. Which, think you, is to-day the more potent force in our civilization? When the great Judge above us shall make up the final account, which, think you, will have done more for the good of mankind, the schoolmaster or the soldier?

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The teachers of New Jersey, a thousand of whom are here, welcome you to our State. We are greatly honored by your presence. We shall hope to learn from you, during the few days you remain with us, the "glad tidings of great joy" which you bring to us from all parts of the United States.

There is no characteristic of the New Jersey teacher and superintendent more pronounced than his ineffable modesty. Hence it was left to our distinguished citizen, Dr. Butler, to make in your presence the large claims for our State to which you have listened. It is true, however, that the State of New Jersey is proud of her school system. Dr. Butler alluded to the centralization of power in our State Board of Education. They apportion ten per cent of the State school tax, at will, to the more needy counties of the State. They license all the teachers in the State through examinations made by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. They have almost unrestricted power in all respects over the schools of the State. Under such circumstances it is no wonder that the schools of the State steadily prosper.

Situated midway between Philadelphia and New York, New Jersey must needs come in contact with both of these great centers of civilization. All the great railroads of the United States except one, the New York Central, reach the metropolis through the State of New Jersey. Hence we feel the electric thrill of civilizing ideas from all parts of the country.

The legislative session of the past winter was a fortunate one for the schools of New Jersey. No less than twenty-eight distinct bills, all having in view the improvement of our schools, were passed by the legislature and signed by the Governor. We got the township system. We got free text-books. We got many other important modifications of our fundamental school law. We feel, therefore, that, without boasting, we may lay claim at least to an effort to keep abreast of the times.

In looking over the records of the Association, I am grieved to note that for the last nine years the average representation of the State of New Jersey at the annual meeting of this Association has been but thirty-one. As a result, however, of the inspiration which the teachers of New Jersey will undoubtedly receive during this session at Asbury Park, I feel safe in predicting that New Jersey another year will send not less than ten times that number, whether your next meeting is held at Seattle, Denver or Duluth.

As the mayor of the city has told you, we wish you while here to enjoy everything we have,—our fine air, our fine bathing, our fine shade, our fine *sand*. Help yourselves to it all. Revel in it as you please, and when the time comes for you to go, take with you all you can carry.

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RESPONSES.

ALBERT G. LANE, CHICAGO, ILL., PRESIDENT OF THE ASSOCIATION.

Mr. Chairman of the Local Committee, Ladies and Gentlemen of Asbury Park:

We thankfully accept these greetings, and hope to show, during the few days that we remain here, how much we appreciate all that you have done to provide for our entertainment and pleasure. When, two or three months ago, a delegation from Asbury Park and the State of New Jersey came to the Executive Committee, at Richmond, and said: "We want the meeting of the National Educational Association at Asbury Park," great promises were made. You said that 1,000 New Jersey teachers would be here to greet us. You assured us that your homes would be open to receive us, and that you had abundant accommodations for 10,000 teachers. You have redeemed all these promises. The 1,000 New Jersey teachers are here. The homes and hotels have been opened to receive us. Everything has been done up to this point that you pledged to do, and we extend to you our thanks for this preparation and for this greeting. New Jersey holds an important position between the great centers of population at Philadelphia and New York. You stand where you have all the advantages of higher institutions of learning, whose standard of excellence is known throughout the whole country.

There are many problems which are confronting the educators of this country, a solution of which must be made through the slow process of the education of the masses of the people. Ignorance of the fundamental principles of our government and of the rights and responsibility of individuals, on the part of the multitude who have come from other countries, and of many born in our own land, whose proper education has been neglected, has spread the seeds of discord and suspicion, and there is a growing disregard of law and order. Mistaken ideas concerning the relations of capital and labor are perverting our minds, and the mistaken ideas regarding the rights of individuals have made capital combines over-ride the interests of the people. A broader study of the social and economic questions will undoubtedly remove the errors and unite the people in the maintenance of a standard of right that will be equitable and just to all.

The rapid increase in the population of the great cities has made it necessary to expend large sums of money for education. There is a steady increase in the average cost of the education of children. Larger, better heated, better ventilated buildings are being constructed.

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The wages of teachers are steadily increasing. In many places there is a serious agitation in regard to the range of work that should be provided at public expense. Up to the present time the majority of the people have had unbounded faith in the good accomplished through the public schools. Taxes have been willingly paid, and nearly every demand which promised better instruction and better care of the children has been met. The people have looked for the fulfillment of all that has been promised through popular education. The idea that education fits for citizenship has been generally accepted, and the people who have paid the taxes have believed that the government was well protected from any dangers which might arise from ignorance or prejudice. The fact, however, remains that, in spite of the bountiful provision which has been made for the education of all children, there are many in our great cities, and in the country, too, who are neglecting the provision which has been made for their training for citizenship. Many are growing up in ignorance of the history of our country, her laws and her constitution, and have no proper appreciation of the rights of others. While in some sections there seems to be a temporary defeat of the laws which have been enacted to protect children in their educational rights, and wholesome laws have been repealed, or so amended as to be ineffective, still the problem is before the people and must be solved.

In the right education of every child is our hope for the future, and effective compulsory education must be enforced everywhere. The inalienable right of a child to a training and education for citizenship must be fully established.

The National Educational Association has sought continually to exalt the office, responsibility and high calling of the teacher. The idea that any one who had a certain amount of academic knowledge could be a successful teacher, and that the training of the human mind in childhood could be taken up as a temporary occupation, has been largely overthrown, and everywhere there is an urgent demand for thoroughly trained and successful teachers. The increase in normal schools and institutes, and the establishment of departments of pedagogy in the colleges and universities have largely increased the number of efficient teachers. New problems in our system of education are confronting us. Instead of the continued and varied discussions in regard to methods and devices, the study of the child's growing mind is attracting widespread attention. The conditions under which a mind develops, and the agencies that favorably or unfavorably affect its growth, are continually observed and recorded. The study of the child leads to wiser instruction. To meet this demand,

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for the study of child mind, another department has been added to the National Educational Association, and the people of this country have been looking to Dr. G. Stanley Hall and others as the leaders in this branch of human growth and development.

We may rejoice as a National Association that we have ever been ready to encourage all progressive movements in education; that the greatest freedom has been given to the discussion of all topics that relate to the threefold development of a human being. As an Association, we rejoice in the leadership which has been established in the educational department of the national government, and that although a change has occurred in the political control of this country, yet educational service and eminent qualification have been recognized, and the department made a conspicuous exception to control through partisan politics.

We rejoice in the fraternal relations which exist between the National Educational Association and the various State Associations. The Southern Educational Association has changed its time of meeting so that its members can attend the national meeting. No bitter jealousies mar our friendly relationship, and we are practically united with all the various educational associations throughout the country, and continue a mighty agency in the molding of educational thought and systems. The Association may also rejoice in the rapid growth of the sentiment in favor of higher education in every section of the country.

Since our last meeting at Saratoga, through the report of a committee authorized to investigate and report upon the work of secondary schools, the whole country has been aroused to a careful investigation of that department of our school system. While they have formulated a report upon changes which have been under consideration for many years, still the careful investigation of the subject by eminent educators has aroused the whole country and brought into effective prominence many who have been quietly investigating and working out better things in our educational system.

The statistics which show a steady growth in the development of the kindergarten system in connection with the public schools compels the declaration, that it is of the utmost importance that all children should be brought under the ennobling, wholesome, character-building influence of the kindergarten.

Steadily and surely manual training, in all its varied forms, both for girls and boys, is being brought into harmonious relations with other forms of educational work, and is being made effective.

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Notwithstanding the controversy that has been carried on in regard to religious instruction in the public schools, there has been a development of the thought, that, in the training of children, the teacher has ever been seeking to increase a knowledge of the truth, as shown in history, in literature, in science, and in philosophy; and that the mighty moral agencies exerted by the public schools place the pupils who remain in them among the men and women of the world who possess the high and noble qualities which enter into perfect manhood and womanhood.

IRWIN SHEPARD, WINONA, MINN., SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATION.

I have the honorable privilege of responding to your cordial welcomes in behalf of that farther Northwest, which, beginning at the western limit of the first third of the way across the continent, stretches for another third in billowy and fertile prairies to the foothills of the Rocky Mountains, then rises for a five-hundred-mile sweep into the region of eternal snow, thence across the great plains of the Columbia, down the western slope of the fir-clad Cascades, to meet the waves of the Pacific that run eastward from the other hemisphere.

The cordial greeting which I bring from this farthest Northwest is as generous and hearty as the country is large.

But this Northwest is not unknown to you. If it is not the birthplace of the Association under whose auspices we meet, it may fairly be called the adopted home of that greater Association which sprang into being at the great Madison meeting—a meeting from which we are accustomed to date events in National Educational history.

For ten years before the Madison meeting, the average annual membership was but 260. For the nine years since, and including that meeting, the average membership has exceeded 4,000, and the center of attendance, whether the meeting is held in San Francisco or Saratoga, lies beyond Chicago, and leads the center of population in its western march. Twice the State in which I live has had the honor of entertaining this Association—at Minneapolis in 1875, at St. Paul in 1890. We had hoped to welcome you again to our seaside resort—our beautiful and wonderful city by the "unsalted sea"—a city which sits like a precious gem on the outstretched westward pointing finger of national destiny. But, for the first time in the history of the Association, the great railroad corporations of the East outran the great railroads of the West in their zeal to place their roads at the disposal of the teachers of the country, and we found it cheaper to come to you than to remain at home. Let me, however, assure you that Duluth's, and Minnesota's, invitation still stands,

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and will be renewed with larger promise of success. Our delayed welcome will grow deeper and stronger and richer while we await your coming.

It has been my privilege during the past months, and especially the past ten days, to note the work of your local Executive Committee, and, through their zeal, their largeness of plan and efficiency of execution, to measure the hospitality of your people. Nothing has been left undone which a high appreciation of the interests of our Association or the most delicate hospitality to our members would suggest. I, therefore, in behalf of the farther-farthest Northwest, accept with gratitude your cordial welcome. There is but one regret: all over the great Northwest hundreds—I may say thousands—of teachers are unpacking their traveling bags, more disappointed than you can possibly be at their absence, because Uncle Sam has not soldiers enough to give them safe conduct through the striking mobs that block their gateway to the East. Disappointed though they may be, let me assure you that they do not less appreciate that welcome which, though first spoken to-day, has, through the forerunning zeal of your local Executive Committee, been *felt* for weeks past in every schoolhouse in the land.

This disappointment has already taken shape in the hope that, at some time not far distant, we may be again invited to meet with you in this beautiful, renowned, incomparable convention city of the Atlantic coast.

DR. N. A. CALKINS OF NEW YORK, CHAIRMAN OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

Mr. President and Members of the Local Committee of Arrangements:

It becomes my duty to respond, in behalf of the Board of Trustees of this Association, to the cordial welcome extended to us, and in their name I thank you for your words of greeting. I thank you, also, in behalf of those who have come up hither from the sunny South, and from the valleys and plains and mountains of the great West, and for the absent ones who longed to meet here to enjoy the comforts of this seaside town and be fanned by the cooling breezes of the Atlantic, but who have been deprived of this great pleasure through the extraordinary difficulties of travel which obstructed their way to the seashore. I thank you in behalf of those dwelling in the cities, who have accepted your kind invitation to come here and receive that rest and reinvigoration of tired nerves which teachers so much need and well know how to appreciate.

This Association has a habit of accepting invitations from good places in different sections of the country for holding its meetings.

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From Wisconsin, and Kansas, and California, Tennessee, St. Paul, Chicago, Toronto, and Saratoga it has received cordial greetings and generous hospitality, and now it has been welcomed to the ocean-washed shores of New Jersey.

In view of the provisions that have been made by the local committee—so quickly and so well—for our reception here, I regret that thousands who intended to come, and hundreds who had to turn back soon after starting, are not here to renew friendships with fellow-workers and to receive new inspiration for future duties. But those who have come to this delightful convention town will carry away pleasant memories of its summer comforts and of its enterprising citizens, who have done so much towards making our visit here one to be cherished among the annual gatherings of this Association.

DR. WM. T. HARRIS, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

In behalf of the educational idea in our government; in behalf of the continually strengthening educational interests of this nation, I thank you, representatives of the State of New Jersey, for this your kindly welcome. We are proud to meet you in this place, in celebration of the great cause of popular education. From all parts of this broad land we assemble annually to confer over our educational problems and to exchange consolations and good counsels. We assemble to-day under unusual circumstances. We all are congratulating ourselves upon the bravery of our Western contingent, which has boldly slipped through picket lines of strikers and violent mobs. The teacher stands for order in the school-room. The child learns first of all to respect the rights of organized industry. Punctuality, regularity, silence and industry make possible social combinations which may achieve reasonable deeds. The children of this Republic are taught in school to work at tasks in such a manner as not to interfere each with his fellow, but on the contrary to reinforce each the other. It is in these elementary centers of discipline,—the schools of the people,—that the pupil has training in those habits which will preserve and save us our civil order. In the coming days we shall take counsel how to increase the efficiency of this salutary discipline. We shall take counsel, also, regarding the best methods by which to instruct the children of the people in letters and liberal arts. We are sure that when we leave this charming seaside resort, we shall always remember gratefully the New Jersey hospitality with which you have received us. In the name of the nation's teachers, I thank you.

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ADDRESSES.

THE EDUCATIONAL EXHIBIT AT THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.

BY SELIM H. PEABODY, LL. D., CHIEF OF DEPARTMENT OF LIBERAL ARTS, WORLD'S COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.

The world has never before seen so extensive or so complete an exhibit of its work of education as that shown at the Columbian Exposition. The position which it occupied, in the grandest of the magnificent congeries of buildings surrounding the grand court of honor, was eminently worthy. With the exception that it was on the second floor, this position lacked no desirable quality. In elegance, light, ventilation, and general fitness it was far superior to that directly beneath on the ground floor. The space was ample. In the Liberal Arts building it was 259,600 square feet, the equivalent of a building 1,000 feet long and 260 feet wide. Adding that occupied elsewhere by other educational exhibits, the space was the equivalent of a building of the same length and 360 feet wide.

Twenty-six foreign countries contributed to the educational exhibit. The principal were Germany, France, England, Canada, New South Wales, Russia, Mexico, Brazil and Japan.

Thirty-two States sent collective exhibits. Forty-four were in some way represented. Illinois and California were compelled, by the conditions of their State appropriation, to make their exhibits in their own State buildings. We greatly regretted their absence. Above all, we should have rejoiced if the Bureau of Education could have occupied an appropriate and significant place as the central figure of all American education.

Contributions to the various collective American exhibits came from 1,150 cities and towns, 271 counties, 756 academies and private schools, 53 schools for defective classes, 25 business colleges, 39 manual training schools, 20 art schools, 51 normal schools and 146 universities and colleges. The whole number of American exhibits was 2,566; total American and foreign, 3,614. This account includes only exhibits in the Liberal Arts building.

Among the foreign exhibits, that of first importance came from the German Empire. It was prepared by the Minister of Education, under the sanction of the imperial council. It illustrated, first of all, the admirable organization by which that government manages its educational affairs. The Department of Education having an or-

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ganization as complete as that which has made the German army famous, the minister proceeded to call for such items as he was pleased to select, from the faculties of universities, the directors of schools of arts and of sciences, the principal officers of gymnasia, *real schulen*, and primary schools for material illustrative of their various departments. The most distinguished professors and scientists answered with the actual apparatus used in their latest discoveries, contrasted with others of historic fame. They sent huge folios containing the plans and elevations of their latest achievements, as buildings for laboratories, museums, and art galleries; models, to scale, of schoolrooms and furnishings; complete sets of the apparatus, furnished to their primary schools and gymnasia, for teaching the physical sciences; diagrams and charts, presenting in a few salient points the most impressive educational facts of the empire; histories in many volumes of their great institutions of learning; immense folios of examination papers, some taken recently, some in the early years of the century.

Nothing short of a complete catalogue will enable one to understand the fullness, the richness, and the dignity of this wonderful exhibit. The interest in it is not diminished when we learn that it was gathered at Berlin within two months after orders were given for its collection.

One of its charts told an impressive story. An account in the nature of debits and credits, kept with the kingdom of Prussia, showed on one side the census number of children of school age, being more than 5,000,000 souls. Upon the other side there were accounted for, so many in each department of schools, so many excused for cause, so many sick; all save less than 1,000 whom the truant officers had not found.

The American educator who gave to this exhibit, or to any specialty therein, earnest and thoughtful study, could not fail to derive information and inspiration of the highest value. He would observe the general absence of two sorts of exhibits which were so much in evidence in the American section—those of shop training and of the kindergarten. The sacrifices made to give space to this exhibit were surely a thousand times repaid.

As had been expected, the Russian exhibit was full and full of interest. Those who remembered the impetus given to shop instruction in America by the Russian exhibit at the Centennial, and were anxious to see what farther development in this direction this country had to show, were somewhat disappointed. The exhibits which had attracted so much attention in 1876 were repeated in 1893, but not improved. They were equaled, if not surpassed, by many similar

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exhibits in the American section. The most valuable new contribution from Russia was the exhibit of girls' handiwork, brought from the charitable institutions under the patronage of the women of the imperial family, and consisting of plain and ornamental needlework and embroidery. The art instruction from Russia was also a subject of special interest.

The educational exhibit from Great Britain should not be taken as any criterion of the state of progress which there obtains. Under proper appreciation of the conditions here, and of the material at its hands, the British commission could easily have secured an exhibit second in interest only to that from Germany. Perhaps none of the great European nations has made a more decided advance during the last quarter of a century than has England, and we regret not to have seen more evidence of it. But this deficiency was, in a large measure, supplied by the excellent exhibits presented by the British dependencies, especially Canada and New South Wales. Each of them gave evidence of a strong, well-organized system, centralized in its authority, and widely diffused in its application. Reports indicate an exceptionally perfect school system in successful operation in far-off New Zealand, as the latest fruit gathered from the wide-spreading English tree.

Interesting exhibits were received from remote lands, which were hardly expected to enter the competition.

Forty years ago American ships were knocking at the sealed gates of the Japanese empire. Twenty-five years ago that empire sent to various Western countries 700 chosen youths, to be educated at its expense. Last year her accredited judges were reporting awards upon American school exhibits. This exposition is the first to which she has sent any educational harvest. Here she showed exhibits from a state university, well equipped; from a school of technology, whose president was the very able commissioner of her exhibit; from a normal school and an agricultural college. By means of these schools, she is developing her educational system, in which she already shows excellent results in primary instruction, and in the lines of practical science, manual training and natural history. She is proceeding by a logical method, and is rapidly filling all the gaps between her primary and her higher schools.

The Alliance Israelite Universelle has its center of operations in Paris, but its field of effort is wherever Hebrews are found, especially in the cities of the Levant. Hitherto Jewish children in that region have been educated in considerable numbers in the schools supported by Christian missionaries. This society presented a small exhibit, mostly of manual training products, gathered from its schools along the Mediterranean.

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An exhibit of much interest came from Egypt; from Cairo and neighboring towns. It consisted of manual work in iron and wood, the latter elegantly inlaid in the Arabic manner; physical apparatus made by pupils; drawing, in variety, well executed; writing in English and Arabic, with inscriptions emblazoned from the Koran, etc. Most of this work compared favorably with that done in our best schools, and some could not there be paralleled. Thus is the *apokatastasis* complete. Science and education return, in full circuit, to their birthplace by the tombs of the Pharaohs.

The exhibits from the Latin American states of South America, Brazil, Uruguay and Argentina, indicated much activity, with commendable progress, especially in the universities, normal and professional schools, and schools of practical science. A like account may be given of Mexico, our neighbor of the south, whose advanced education will soon cause the land of *manana* to become the land of today.

The State collective exhibits were notable for their general excellence and for their infinite variety. Thirty-two States could not provide exhibits which would cover interests so similar without a degree of sameness, but the predicted barren iteration did not appear. In almost every case the inventive genius of the committee in charge worked out some novel and effective feature, as illustrated by the stenographic reports from the school-room, suggested by Mr. Gove of Denver, and the phonographic tubes from New York and Wisconsin. Probably neither of these devices, any more than does photography, will reveal exactly what they seek to represent. One has to be urged to look pleasant before the camera, and if the voice of the worried and forgetful teacher should become high and strident, we will pardon the phonograph which omits that episode. Both these devices are ingenious, newly applied, and worthy of repetition.

The chief criticism upon the State exhibits is that too many of them failed to indicate the existence of a well-organized and active system which provides for the wants of the State as a whole. Some of them presented only a series of separate city exhibits, which were as distinct as beads upon a string. The rural schools were not sufficiently in evidence. It is true that in some cases the State organizers could not arrange their exhibits otherwise; first, because they could not secure funds for their work if done in any other way, but mainly, because there was no general organization to be represented. In this respect, the contrast between some of our exhibits and that presented by the German nation is very great, and much to our disadvantage.

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As to the use of collections of written examinations, themes, and drawings, the suggestion has been made that they have proved worthless and will never again be made part of an educational exhibit. But those who came as accredited examiners from abroad, like the German commissioners or the special agents sent by the city of Paris, without exception made more careful study of these papers than any other element of our exhibits. Many requests were made for examples of such papers to be taken home as additions to pedagogical libraries. It was after reading these papers that Dr. Waetzold, the German commissioner, made his very complimentary statement as to the worthy results of American education.

No more notable illustration of the trend of American work since 1876 appeared than in the exhibits of the kindergarten and the manual training schools. It is not unfair to say that these subjects were more in evidence in the exposition than was warranted by their existence in the schools. This happened quite naturally. First, because these are among the newest things that have occupied the public mind. Teachers of these specialties were anxious to have the fact known, especially by foreign visitors, who should thus learn that they are abreast of the most advanced movement. Second, nothing which the teacher has to show lends itself to exhibition so kindly as do these products. They are far better than the work of art classes, for they do not include so many ghastly failures.

The archbishops of the Roman Catholic Church in America recognized the opportunity which the exposition offered them for presenting the kind of education which they would make popular, and their claims for it in comparison with that of the schools under State supervision. Brother Maurelian deserves congratulations for his very notable success. He used the far-reaching organization of his church in securing contributions from 37 States and Territories, 57 dioceses, 412 cities and towns, and about 1,200 schools of all grades, from the humblest parish schools to the University of Washington. In a great abundance and variety of material, the prominent features were the work of the primary or parish schools, and art and needlework as taught in convents and seminaries. So far as prestige is concerned, the public State school has lost nothing in the comparison.

The following items will indicate some of the directions in which our American education has made progress since the last great American exposition, as illustrated in that which has just closed:

1. Very marked progress in the development of the university as compared with the college. While only a few of our great institutions were represented, these illustrated the best phases of such work, in a congeries of exhibits whose merits grew upon one during every

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day of the fair and become brighter now that reality is merged into memory; post-graduate work; the seminar; personal investigation on the part of both professor and pupil; the endowment of research, as well as the endowment of instruction, each energizing the other in the development of both the sciences and the humanities. These are some of the flowers and fruit which dignify and elevate our university work.

2. The development of the university extension and the Chautauquan methods.

3. A large increase in the number of normal schools, and in the evidence of power derived from their methods of instruction diffused through the public schools. This appears to be a most potent factor in the elevation of public school work.

4. The strong, united and systematic character of the exhibits of the business colleges. Hitherto they have been deemed a corps of educational free lances, which corralled students, roped and branded them, and sent them through a short cut, which they called a business education, to the countinghouse, the ledger, and, perhaps, a fortune. On the contrary, this body of teachers laid aside their differences, brought together a solid and instructive exhibit, and proved that they give in their own field a worthy and useful training.

5. The continued establishment of, and the advanced method used in, teaching the blind; the deaf, especially in oral speech; and the remarkable results secured in elevating the lives of the feeble-minded.

6. The manual training school has already been noted. Its progress during the last seventeen years has been phenomenal. Thirty-nine distinct manual training schools exhibited, besides schools of technology and collegiate technological departments in which manual instruction is an integral part of every course. The whole exhibition, from one end to the other, bristled with the work of the tool, from a jack-knife to a machine driven by power.

7. The trade schools in the large cities have developed rapidly. Trade schools teach some kind of work done by the artisan as a means of earning a livelihood, such as the trade of the tinsmith, the plumber, the harnessmaker, the dressmaker, the milliner, the cook. Excellent exhibits of this character came from New York, Brooklyn, Cincinnati, and from the Indian schools of Hampton and Carlisle. It is to be hoped that these schools will multiply so rapidly that when the walking delegate finds them, and attempts to put his foot on them, it will not be large enough for the emergency.

8. The foothold which the kindergarten has acquired as the basis of sound primary instruction.

9. The progress made in the giving of correct instruction as to the evil use of narcotics and intoxicants.

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10. The development of art schools in many important centers, and of art instruction in so large a number of colleges and schools of technology. Much good is to be expected from this movement, especially when it shall come to permeate all our public school work, and after it has risen above conventionalism, the impressionist vagary, and the baleful and impure influences which flow into it from French channels.

11. The gradual but steady advancement of public school instruction in all parts of our land. This advancement will necessarily be slow. It is the resultant of a multitude of forces, aiding and opposing each other. It involves the just enlightenment of the whole people, which must be trained to know the purposes of education, the need for it, and the needs of it. I feel confident that the exposition just closed shows, in the kind of work presented, in the breadth from which it was drawn, in the earnest feeling in regard to it, in the multitudes that came to study it, and in the inspiration that has grown out of it, that the onward march of sound educational ideas in these United States was never so direct, so forceful and so sure as it is at the present time.

The exposition has come and gone. Its marvelous exhibits that illustrated every clime, every nation, every art, and the last and noblest developments of human science and skill, have vanished. The lovely vision of its magnificent architecture, its grand arches, its cloud-capped pinnacles, the glowing beauty of its court of honor, the silent enchantment of its lagoons, the surging crowds of earnest and entranced visitors are now only the elements of a bewildering dream. The hammer of the iconoclast, the torch of the incendiary, have blotted from the face of the earth its latest and its loveliest apparition.

But its memory shall be enduring as history, inspiring as prophecy, and will remain forever enshrined within our inmost hearts.

THE ORGANIZERS OF THE NATION AND EDUCATION.

BY PRESIDENT AUSTIN SCOTT, RUTGERS COLLEGE, NEW JERSEY.

[STENOGRAPHIC REPORT.]

I do not offer to you to-day a formal paper, for the subject I had chosen for such a paper, "On the Use of English," had already, your President informed me, been selected by another speaker. I shall therefore say a few words on "The Organizers of the Nation and Education," with especial reference to the proposal to found a national university.

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A few days ago, in looking over the debates in the Federal Convention of 1787, I found in those hundreds of pages of Madison's report but six or eight lines which speak of education. Those few lines, however, are not without great significance.

The men who framed the Constitution of the United States were fifty-five in number, and of that number more than half were college graduates. Twenty-nine or thirty were graduates of colleges or higher institutions of learning. They did not speak of primary or secondary education, by so much as a single word, in their debates. But I assume that they took that for granted on the part of the people of the United States; especially, as there was at that time in the making that great organic law, second only to the Constitution, the Northwestern Ordinance, by which education was apparently adequately secured to the people of our Union. Therefore, they assumed that the people in the lower schools were to be educated. I say this, in spite of the fact that there are many invidious remarks, in their debates, upon the people. But they did propose a national university. I read that, on the 18th of August, 1787—mark you, when the time of their deliberations was more than three-fourths done—James Madison (the father, rightly called, of the Constitution) moved that there be added to the power of congress, "the powers to establish a university, and to encourage by premiums and provisions the achievement of useful knowledge." Charles Pinckney of South Carolina, on that same day, proposed, "to establish seminaries for the promotion of literature and the arts and sciences; to establish public institutions of reward and immunity for the promotion of agriculture, commerce, trades, and manufactures." And these four proposals, two by Madison and two by Charles Pinckney, were unanimously referred to the Committee of Detail, which then had in charge the duty of making over into a systematic constitution the resolutions that had already been adopted by the convention.

On the 20th of August, two days later, Gouverneur Morris and Pinckney again moved that the Chief Justice, whom they proposed should be a member of the Executive Council to advise the President, should recommend (these are their words), "such laws as may promote useful learning." These five propositions were referred to the Committee of Detail, and the Committee of Detail, in their report on the Constitution, gave them not so much as the cold respect of a passing glance, so far as we know. When the Committee on Style and Revision had polished and perfected that instrument—for it is well-nigh perfect in its form—Madison and Pinckney again moved that there be inserted among the powers to be lodged in congress this one: "To establish a university in which no preferences or distinction should be allowed

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on account of religion." James Wilson of Pennsylvania, whose name must ever be spoken with perfect respect, supported this motion, but Gouverneur Morris said: "It is not necessary to insert this among the powers of congress, for the exclusive power at the seat of government will reach the object." On the question whether the power to establish a university should be distinctly and expressly included among the powers of congress, the vote stood six States against it and four in its favor, with a division quite unique; Samuel Johnson, the later president of Columbia College, voting for it, and Roger Sherman voting against it. The four States that voted in its favor were Pennsylvania, Virginia, North Carolina and South Carolina. The six against it were New Hampshire, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland and Georgia. I suppose this meant that they assumed that the power to establish the highest schools of learning was, by implication, already in congress.

What has the nation done in this direction for the establishment of the highest education? It has passed three laws, no doubt familiar to you, friends from all over the Union. One a law which granted lands in the West for the benefit of each of the States that should establish colleges whose purpose should be to benefit agricultural and mechanic arts, but whose scope—as explained by the honorable senator who devised and put into execution the plan, Senator Morrill—was to be as wide and general as the air. For he expressly says that it is not alone manual, but rather intellectual, training which this act of 1862 has in view; a liberal education which should, however, include all those arts and sciences that are capable of practical application, as well as the classical training.

The next act, the law of 1887, was adopted in the interest of agricultural and allied sciences, and provided for the establishment of institutions in which investigation should be the chief object. These experiment stations were to be connected with the colleges which had been established by the land grant act of 1862.

By the wise, broad act of 1890, these colleges, established a generation ago, are to receive from the national government a large appropriation annually, to be devoted to certain specified objects, which begin with agricultural, mechanical, natural and physical science, and end with economic science, including also instruction in the English language.

So much, in a word, has been done by the national government in the direction of higher training. This, you will observe, of course, is distributed, and wisely so, among the different States, that there may be a judicious planning, general supervision, local attachment,

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activity and direction. Now, it seems to me, that these pieces of legislation by the national government are capable of expansion in two directions. The report of the commissioner of education for the year 1890-1891 points out the results of these three laws. There is a large opportunity, as he there says, for the deepening and strengthening of lines of activity already begun. These institutions under national direction are capable of expansion in the direction of what is known as university extension. I have brought with me the report of our State college, which was handed in to the board of trustees a few days ago, and I refer to it as an illustration of the work that may be done by these institutions, so wisely established by the national government. Courses of lectures have been given this year in New Jersey, outside of the college, to 1,500 students. The college proper numbers only about 250 students. The extension subjects have been electricity, English literature, classical archæology, chemistry, astronomy, the French Revolution, the Eastern question, iron and steel, and civil engineering. Besides these there have been six distinct courses in agriculture throughout the State. Here is a wide field for growing activity on the part of these institutions specially organized under national law, and the government should encourage the effort that is here making to convey the best instruction and knowledge to all the people who have not had the opportunity or who wish to make use of further opportunity for higher instruction. There happens to come to my hand to-day a copy of the London "Times" of a fortnight ago, showing what they are doing in England. The Duke of Devonshire says, as he presides as chancellor of the Cambridge University, this: "The university extension movement can be utilized by the State in the development of a national system of higher education."

The movement which has taken on large proportions in England, and which is gaining strength with us, might, perhaps, better be called, "the extension of higher learning," or "college extension."

The second of the directions in which there may be an extension of national supervision and care of the higher education is through the foundation of a national university. Among the objects cherished by Washington was that of the founding of a national institution of the highest learning. He particularly emphasized this in the last five years of his life. It is just one hundred years ago that Washington began a concerted plan to establish, in the new seat of government, a national university. He enforces it in 1794; and in January, 1795, he writes to the commissioners who are planning the city of Washington: "Can you not incorporate into your plans the foundation of a national university?"—a national university for the cultivation of

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the arts and the sciences in their fullest extent. Nothing less will satisfy him. When he came to his death he left in his will, not "gardens on the Tiber," but fifty shares in the Potomac Company (which he had devised as the great bond between the East and the West) for the founding of a national university.

I believe that now is the time for founding, in connection with the other educational agencies of a national character, this national university. It is not right that the nation should permit this matter to rest upon private beneficence or upon the exertions of the separate States. I believe that a duty and responsibility rests upon the nation, that it shall give to all, of whatever origin, the right and the opportunity to come to that which is highest, as they have given it to certain classes at West Point; as they have given it, also, to other classes in the Naval Academy at Annapolis. So do I believe, and you and all of us believe, that education is the only weapon with which to disarm anarchy and avoid the awful consequences of ignorance. We believe that it is, first and foremost, a necessary weapon for self-defense.

I say that upon the nation, then, rests the duty and responsibility to form, in these troublous times, such a university,—as Leyden was founded, when Holland was saved from Spain; as the University of Berlin was founded, when Prussia was in the issues of woe and distress; as Strassburg was founded, after the war with France.

There is just one thought further in that connection. How shall such an institution be provided? It should begin, perhaps, on the basis of the laws already adopted, the three laws of 1862, 1887, and 1890. Its beginning might be made by extending the laws there enacted. I have given no indication of the method of this organization. I will only say this much in regard to its students: As there has lately come to be a competitive examination for the national schools at West Point and Annapolis, so there should be a competitive examination, under national auspices, for the purpose of bringing from the colleges of the various States the students most highly endowed and best trained to be received as students of higher learning in this national institution, that the best and highest and largest opportunity may be given to the inhabitants of all parts of the land.

I was once, on a dark night, in a carriage with the distinguished historian of the United States. We had been considering together a paper, supposedly written by George Washington, and I said to him: "Washington was a wise man." "A wise man!" he said; "he was the wisest man that ever lived." I suppose he meant, wise not only in the large prudence and the mighty courage with which he did his work,

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but wise also as a prophet. He was a seer as well as a doer. I believe that we can trace in the words that he spoke one hundred years ago his resolve that the common people, and all the people, shall come, step by step, from the primary and the secondary and the collegiate and the academic educations—shall come at last, under the auspices of the nation—to the highest opportunities vouchsafed under heaven for the learning of the wisdom of this nation. We share the blessings which Washington secured as hero and statesman; let us not refuse those which, as a prophet of education, he foresaw, nor neglect the duty which he enjoined.

THE ETHICAL ELEMENT IN LITERATURE, AND HOW TO MAKE THE MOST OF IT IN TEACHING.

J. A. McLELLAN, LL. D., PRINCIPAL ONTARIO SCHOOL OF PEDAGOGY, TORONTO.

I. DEVELOPMENT OF CHARACTER THE HIGHEST AIM IN EDUCATION.
II. THE ETHICAL ELEMENT IN LITERATURE.
III. TEACHING THAT WILL MAKE THIS ELEMENT EFFECTIVE IN MORAL TRAINING.

I.—DEVELOPMENT OF CHARACTER THE HIGHEST AIM IN EDUCATION.

Training of Character the End.—There is practical agreement as to the importance of moral training in the schools. No one—at any rate, no teacher—is now satisfied with purely intellectual results. Not mastery of facts, or cultured taste, or trained intelligence, but noble character, is the high aim of the American teacher. To have powers of observation, keen and discriminating, through the exercise of full and adequate perception; to have a memory stored with the great and fundamental truths of Nature and the laws of her operations; to have the intellect a cold, clear, logic-engine, able to disentangle and reconstruct into harmonious wholes the most complex masses of facts, whether of Nature or of human nature,—all this is good; may, indeed, be admitted as necessary to the realization of the highest ideal. But if the moral and spiritual have been ignored or overshadowed, we have fallen short of our high ideal; we have failed of that triune development constituting the sovereign power of character—character which contributes most richly to the welfare of the individual and the home and to the stability of the State.

It is Triune Development.—We want, indeed, an intellect organized through the acquisition and retention of organized knowledge; but,

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also, we want a spirit that catches glimpses of the Invisible, a heart attuned to the "still sad music of humanity," and a will which clothes the character with steadfastness and courage. In the development of the soul we begin with unity and with unity we end—the intuition of the sensuous object at the one extreme, the intuition of the Absolute Good at the other. Starting from sensation in its threefold aspect, as having an element of knowledge, feeling and will, we strive for the equable and harmonious unfolding of all the powers of man; the evolution of the trinity of powers, intellect, feeling, will, into a divine unity—a reflex of the ineffable trinity in unity, light and love and law—the unity of God. This is character; this makes the man; this is the man—the manly man—the heroic spirit who, with unswerving loyalty to Duty, constant as the stars, moves onward in her path, though it lead, through blood and tears, to Calvary and the crown of thorns. That is the "Happy Warrior" in life's earnest battle,

> Whom neither shape of danger can dismay,
> Nor thought of tender happiness betray;
> Who, not content that former worth, stands fast,
> Looks forward, persevering to the last,
> From well to better, daily self-surpassed.

What has made *your* nation great, and what is destined to make it greater still, surpassing all the predictions of the sons of men? Not kings and princes and potentates and gold-holders,

> Not high-raised battlement or labored mound,
> Thick wall or moated gate.
> Not cities proud, with spires and turrets crowned;
> Not bays and broad-armed ports,
> Where laughing at the storm rich navies ride.

These have their places and their parts to play; but the mighty foundations of the Republic were built upon character, and by character alone can the genius of the race rear a superstructure worthy of the foundations.

The School Must Give Sound Moral Training.—The school is both historically and philosophically an expansion and continuation of the family, as it is also a preparation for the State; and no matter how excellent the home training may be, upon the school rests, and forever must rest, the responsibility for a large part—perhaps the largest part—of moral education. It is generally admitted that every good school, by subjecting the impulses of the pupil to wholesome discipline, both *external* and *internal*, powerfully contributes to the formation of character. Such a school is a living organism, penetrated and informed by the spirit of the living teacher, who makes all the factors

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of *external* discipline, all the higher modes of *internal* discipline—all the mechanical and intellectual processes—subservient to ethical culture. The natural impulses of the child, the raw material of the will, upon which the educator has to work, must be guided and controlled by external authority. His feeble will is to be supplemented by the will of the teacher and the public law of the school till the power of self-control is gained; just as the feeble efforts of his immature intellect are to be supplemented by the intellect of the teacher till his own power of analysis is developed and self-education becomes the law of his growth. In other words, obedience to just authority is the beginning of moral conduct; the conception of the eternal "Shall" —the idea of law and the necessity of obedience—precedes the conception of the eternal "Ought," the soul of *moral* action. Thus, all the elements of school discipline, regularity, order, punctuality, industry, obedience, etc., lead to the formation of right *habits*, to the development of physical and prudential control; and ultimately, with the growth of the moral sense, the moral control—that is, *character*.

II.—THE ETHICAL ELEMENT IN LITERATURE.

Ethical Value of Subjects—Internal Discipline.—Without attempting to decide at what point in the school courses the formal teaching of ethics should begin, and how it should be done, I am convinced that there should be regular lessons in morals, and especially that the ethical aim should be paramount and kept consciously in view; and that, therefore, all methods of instruction, and all subjects of instruction, pre-eminently history and literature, should make for this supreme end. Every subject has its value even for moral discipline. I still cling to the doctrine of formal discipline, though not, perhaps, in its extreme form. I believe that different subjects, according to the relations with which they deal, may have different values as instruments of training, and especially as means of moral training. I see, for instance, that pure mathematics—a process of extreme simplification, dealing only with space and time relations—is simpler than physics, physics than chemistry, chemistry than physiology, physiology than sociology, sociology than philosophy, and I cannot convince myself that each of these departments has precisely the same effect in intellectual and moral discipline. I will not, at any rate, believe that all subjects are alike for purposes of moral culture. The solution of a differential equation, or a difficult chemical analysis, while sharpening and strengthening the intellect, leaves no increase of humanism in the heart. These subjects have no direct bearing upon human relations. But the study of some heroic deed as recorded in literature,

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or of a profound analysis of some universal human passion, touches the *moral* element within me and reveals my kinship with the race. In the one case there is mere intellectual identification with the physical world; in the other there is both intellectual and sympathetic identification with the world of humanity.

Intellect and Will.—Literature develops the intellectual factor, but pre-eminently the emotional factor of the will. Every subject that demands the exercise of the fundamental activities of the intellect contributes to the training of the will, and so far aids in the development of character. Voluntary attention depends upon the will,—is the will controlling the movement of ideas for definite ends,—and every realization of conceived end is but a series of external acts controlled by the will and paralleled by an antecedent movement of ideas. The power to drive one idea or series of ideas from the field of consciousness and to put another idea or series of ideas in full possession, is the essential phenomenon of will and the indispensable requisite in the growth of character. For the development of this essential factor, literature in all its forms is a powerful means. No *one* subject, it may be admitted, is capable of producing the best possible all-sided culture; but if compelled to confine myself to *one* subject, I should without hesitation give the preference to literature. More thoroughly than any other subject, it trains memory, imagination, thought, and last but not least, expression, the necessary complement and co-ordinate of all these, and therefore secures a more extensive, as well as a more intensive, culture of mind. Literature deals with something higher than mathematical relations and material phenomena. Its subject-matter is the complex, moral, and spiritual phenomena which make up human life and human history, and which even give meaning to the physical world. And so, *e. g.*, the intellectual and artistic analysis of a noble piece of literature affords as good an exercise of mind as a mathematical demonstration or a physical experiment, while it far surpasses both in culture of the æsthetic and moral sensibilities.

Literature and the Emotional Factor in Will—Ethical Imagination.—Literature introduces the student to a world—or to worlds—of human action and interests, of social and moral phenomena, infinitely enlarged beyond the narrow world of his experience, and *habituate* him to a sympathetic and therefore humanizing reconstruction of such a world. In the study of geography he starts from his concrete experiences, at once narrow and ill-defined, and by means of maps and models, narrations and descriptions, his intellectual imagination constructs a large, free, reasonable idea of the actual world, which gives a new and richer meaning to his life and his environment. So in

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literature. Starting from his little social and moral world—at once meager and all but meaningless—moving out into enlarged scenes of action (the whole world of human relationships and their interactions), his ethical imagination sympathetically reconstructs a larger, freer, grander, human world which powerfully reacts upon his own personality, giving a new and richer meaning to life through the recognition of his relations with the nation, with his race, and with mankind. In other words, he starts out from himself, shackled by the merely sensuous, with feelings but little removed from pure animal sympathy: "I am for myself alone, or, at most, for my family alone." He returns to himself, a free man, whom the truth has made free; filled with the divine sentiment: "None of us liveth to *himself;*" I am not for myself alone, or for my family alone, or for my country alone, but for mankind; or, as the old Latin poet has it: "I am a man, and therefore *all human* interests are my interests." Thus the enlarging, liberalizing, *ethical* effect of literary and historical studies is due to increased realizing and idealizing *power* of the intellect and the imagination, and to the reaction into character of the world of human life with a fuller and richer meaning of its various factors.

Literature and the Ideal Self.—Literature not only forms a sympathetic imagination for the *world* of human relations and interactions in general; it helps to widen, strengthen and purify desire through the formation of noble *self*-ideals. We know what we are by the imagination of what we are not; and when we know what we are, we are in fair way to realize what we ought to become. The strongest impulse to improvement, whether intellectual or moral, is a divine dissatisfaction with the actual in comparison with the ideal. This ideal self is no impotent, shadowy thing; it is the soul's consciousness of its possibilities, the necessary condition of determined choice and persevering action. The great ideals with which literature abounds may be made personal object lessons far more potent than the reality to awaken dissatisfaction with present attainments and an all-conquering desire to leave the things that are behind and to stretch out towards the things that are before. The great heroes of the past, as well as the humbler heroes whose lives were perhaps a richer blessing, are vividly before us, and our hearts are filled with silent worship of the great and good of old, "the dead but sceptered sovereigns who still rule our spirits from their urns." The elements of their mighty strength fill, animate and thrill us with a divine love of truth and goodness and with a strong desire to realize these in *acts* of truth and goodness. Therefore through literature let our youth be filled with "noble pictures of human relationship and duty, of elevated character,

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of justice, friendship and love;" let them dream lofty dreams and see inspiring visions, and their dreams shall be prophecies.

Literature and the Sympathetic Imagination.—I have but time for a cursory reference to what is probably the most direct effect of literary studies, the cultivation of the emotional nature in general, and especially of sympathy, the source of the moral feelings. Among all subjects, literature, and especially poetic literature, stands prominent for the culture of the sympathetic imagination, which is necessary to the development of the social feelings. The poet-artist is all aglow with love of truth and beauty in nature, and in human life and action, and the student is made a sharer in this enthusiasm for nature and humanity. With his imagination touched by the imagination of the poet he beholds the divine ideas which are clothed in visible forms around us; he feels beauty and truth and pathos—life-lessons—in the daisy, in the small celandine, in the common dandelion, in "the meanest flower that blows;" and with an eye made quiet by the power of harmony and the deep power of joy he sees into the life of things; he has a vision of the physical world as embodying the thought and the imagination of God. And this is but the prelude to the higher sympathy for humanity which is born of literature. In the world of human life are there any great and elevated sentiments of truth, goodness, beauty—deeds of patriotism, self-sacrifice, moral heroism—among the great and among the lowly? These things, too, all that is good and beautiful and true in them, are an embodiment of divine ideas, and have their rich setting in literature. For awakening enthusiasm for humanity, the study of literature is unique among human studies. It, and it alone, arouses in us that profound sympathy with human interests which gives an insight into the significance of human life, and a yearning for its progress towards a divine ideal—an insight and a yearning which are the vision of God. Blessed are the pure in heart (*i. e.*, blessed are the *loving* in heart), for they shall see things unseen by other eyes.

> We feel this sentient-self, the counter-part
> Of some self vaster than the star-girt sky;
> Gods fade, but God abides, and in the heart of man
> Speaks with the clear, unconquerable cry,
> Of energies and hopes that cannot die;
> Yea, though our utterance falter—though no art
> By more than sign or symbol can impart
> This faith of faiths that lifts our courage high—
> Yet are there human duties, human needs,
> Love, charity, self-sacrifice, pure deeds,
> Tender affections, helpful service, war
> Waged against tyranny, fraud, suffering, crime.
> These ever strengthening with the strength of years
> Exalt man higher than fabled angels are.

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Literature and Morbid Sentimentality.—It will be said there is a possibility of too great a culture of the emotions as such; that to stimulate the emotions without corresponding activities leads to unreal, morbid sentiment. This is possible, but not probable, under existing conditions; for in general the teaching of literature is too lifeless and unimaginative—unemotional. We need be under no apprehension regarding an evil that is never likely to arise. But at all events, this culture of the imaginative and emotional elements is absolutely essential to the growth of character. Next to actual and intimate association with great or noble men is intimate and profound familiarity with great ideas. Ideas are behind all action, and sentiment behind all ideas. Saturate a youth with right ideas and noble sentiments and he is in a fair way to become a noble man. As St. Paul has it: "Whatsoever things are true, whatsoever things are honest, whatsoever things are just, whatsoever things are pure, whatsoever things are lovely, whatsoever things are of good report—if there be any virtue and if there be any praise—think on these things." To feel resentment against oppression of the weak, horror of cruelty, stern satisfaction in the just punishment of guilt; to have admiration for true heroism and noble self-sacrifice; to love the true, the beautiful, the good, the generous; to have pity for the sorrowful, compassion for the unfortunate, tenderness for the penitent; to have contempt for all deception, hypocrisy and shams; to have abhorrence for the low, the mean, the selfish, the impure: to have all this is to be all this; is to have that beauty of the inward soul, and that outward action in harmony with it, which are the flower and fruit of human culture.

III.—TEACHING THAT WILL MAKE THIS ELEMENT EFFECTIVE IN MORAL TRAINING.

1. *The Spirit of the Teacher.*—"As is the teacher, so is the school"—a maxim trite but forever true. As is the teacher's interest in a given subject so is the interest of the pupil and so the strictly ethical effects. This is true of all branches of instruction, but pre-eminently of literature. One of the saddest sights on earth is a half-dead teacher working upon a half-dead class, the product of his own handicraft; as, on the other hand, one of the most beautiful is the inspiring teacher before a class with hearts thrilled with his own spirit and throbbing with a certain newness of life and growing sense of power. I have seen the mere numerical Babbage machine, monotonously laboring at a creaking crank and turning out mechanisms the image of himself; and I have seen, too, the artist-teacher, a happy union of cultured brain and loving heart, working even upon the inert product of the

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spiritless tradesman with results typified in the dream-vision of the Hebrew prophet. What a marvelous change! How soon is there a shaking of the dry bones, a movement of flesh and sinews and covering skin, and a soul created under the ribs of death.

This Essential in Literature.—In literature beyond all other subjects is this artist-spirit of the teacher a prime necessity. In grammar, arithmetic and the like, the dry-as-dust teacher may be aided by certain external stimuli,—reports, examinations and inspectoral visits. But whatever worth these things may have as a stimulus to interest and as a test of results, they are utterly worthless as a means or measure of the best effects in literature—the ethical and the spiritual. These are subtle, impalpable, divine—the work of heart upon heart, of soul upon soul, with spiritual materials to which great and strong souls have given birth; they are hyperphysical and as imperishable as the immaterial principle which they have informed and transformed. They are therefore infinitely beyond the crude criterion of examinations and percentages.

Hence, of the teacher of literature we ask, not only what is his knowledge, his training, his experience, but above all what manner of spirit is he of? Love of literature and a clear consciousness of the profound ethical effects of his teaching are his prime qualification. His own imagination must be touched with the beauty, his own heart thrilled with the pathos, and his own intellect master of the truth and harmony of it, or his teaching will be but as sounding brass or tinkling cymbal. The mechanical teacher of arithmetic is a spectacle for gods and men; but how shall we characterize the mechanical teacher of literature? Intellectual numbness is less to be dreaded than moral paralysis. "It is a curse," says Byron, speaking of the poetry of Horace, "to comprehend, not feel, his lyric flow; to understand, yet never love, his verse." Equally strong lauguage may be used of the teacher who fails to make the truth, beauty, sublimity and harmony in literature produce their adequate effect upon intellect and heart. For the bread of life, he is administering to hungry souls the veriest stones; instead of quickening and nourishing the divine spiritual instinct which constitutes so large a part of the wealth and strength of man, he is, lesson by lesson, reducing it to an ultimate state of atrophy and death from which there is no resurrection.

Illustration.—Not long ago I saw "The Crossing of the Bar" used as the subject of a lesson to a class of young men and women, by a teacher who had some ability but no depth of nature. There had evidently been much preparation, but the lesson utterly failed of its purpose. The shallow nature of the teacher could put no heart into

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it. There was much fluent preparation and presentation and all the rest of it; questions and expositions upon tides and rivers and formation of bars; of sunset and twilight and curfew bells; but the beauty and pathos of it, the living soul of it—these touched no chord in the teacher's heart, and left in other hearts no vision of something beyond, which eye hath not seen nor ear heard.

Now, if the heart is touched with the spirit of the theme, with its faith, and hope, and love, what utter weariness to the spirit are elaborate expositions on rivers, and tides, and bars, and twilight, and bell, and all the *symbols* into which the sentiment alone breathes life. We see for a moment, indeed, the outward and visible form, the signs of storm, and darkness, and ship-wrecking sea; but this glimpse of the concrete form passes at once into the higher vision which fills the soul—the vision of faith, and hope, and victory through immortal love.

Sunset and evening star,
And one clear call for me!
And may there be no moaning of the bar,
When I put out to sea,

But such a tide as moving seems asleep,
Too full for sound and foam,
When that which drew from out the boundless deep
Turns again home.

Twilight and evening bell,
And after that the dark!
And may there be no sadness of farewell
When I embark;

For tho' from out our bourne of Time and Place,
The floods may bear me far,
I hope to see my Pilot face to face
When I have crossed the bar.

2. *The Idea of Unity in Literature* is a necessary factor in rational method. In every piece of composition worthy to be called literature, there is an orderly movement of ideas towards a definite end. In high class literature, the product of a strong and cultured mind working under a clear and ever-present conception of its purpose, this movement of ideas seems to be spontaneous—a self-movement of constantly increasing clearness, beauty and force. In prose composition the dominant unifying energy is intellect stimulated by a glow of emotion; in poetry the dominant unifying energy is emotion controlled by the intellect. Now, if a piece of literature is worthy of serious study for its thought or for its expression, or for the training of æsthetic and moral power, this idea of unity suggests at once an essential feature of the method to be followed. The genesis of thought, feeling and expression in the student's mind will follow the genesis of thought, feeling and expression in the author's mind. In the thought-process

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of the author's mind, his purpose and the central conception of his theme gave unity to the composition. They should, therefore, be the unifying force in the learner's process of acquisition. Just as the author proceeds from the *whole* through related groups of thoughts to the primary unity, and returns through all the related parts, finally welding them into a more perfect whole; so the student begins and ends with the whole, passes from part to part with increased unifying power, until at last he clearly sees the many organically constituting the one, and the one organically comprehending the many. There is no time to illustrate the application of this principle in teaching. It is enough to say that without the proper application of this principle the teaching of literature is apt to degenerate into a mere memory-loading process; that with its proper application, the fundamental activities of mind are trained, and literature makes a real contribution to the intellectual factor of the will. A single oration of Demosthenes or Cicero, of Burke or Webster, thus thoroughly handled, is worth whole volumes acquired by the memory-packing process. For, as Ruskin says, "You might read all the volumes in the British Museum (if you could live long enough), and remain an utterly illiterate and uneducated person; but if you read ten pages of a good book, letter by letter,—that is to say, with real accuracy—you are forevermore in some measure an educated person. The entire difference between education and non-education, as regards the mere intellectual part of it, consists in this accuracy."

3. *Poetry and the Emotional Factor of the Will.—Points in Teaching.*—Since the æsthetic and the emotional are predominant in poetry, it affords the best means for the cultivation of the emotional side of the will. Whether it is regarded as the profound and beautiful application of ideas to life, or the sane and beautiful expression of the best and happiest moments of the best and happiest minds, or the proximately perfect expression of a proximately perfect human soul; whether it is memory in imagination giving rise to poetic narration, or perception in imagination giving rise to poetic description, or imagination exemplifying truth and beauty in some concrete form—we have always the two co-ordinate factors, greatness and nobility of sentiment and thought embodied in congruent greatness and nobility of expression. While in teaching prose we have the intellectual analysis and the criticism of form, based largely on the unities, we have in teaching poetic literature with its predominance of imagination and emotion the following:

(1) The intellectual analysis—the intellect dealing with the concrete form in which truth and beauty are expressed—based, as in prose, largely on the unities.

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(2) The spiritual interpretation of this—the *soul* of it shining through the outward form.

(3) Critical examination of the form—its fitness to express the ideal and universal (that is, the spiritual) which it embodies. This will involve the consideration of two components: (a) The presentative elements, including melody, harmony, rhythm, etc.; and (b) The representative elements, including harmony of parts, poetic epithets, poetic elevation of common words and thoughts, so-called figures of speech, etc.

These Make for Moral and Æsthetic Culture.—Now, in right teaching, all these factors make for moral and æsthetic as well as for intellectual culture. It would need a series of illustrative lessons to show the importance of these points, but there is time for only a few thoughts by way of suggestion. Why should not the idea of unity have its place in teaching (or learning) poetry as well as in teaching prose? If there is logical unity, the unity of comprehension, in prose, is there no artistic and sympathetic unity in poetry, corresponding to the dominant emotion which produced it? And above all, why should we overlook the essential thing—so far as the ethical aim of instruction is concerned—the spiritual interpretation, the immortal truth and beauty which the concrete form incarnates and which speaks clear-toned to the living soul of man?

I remember two lessons on "The Chambered Nautilus." The one left in the mind a transient medley of facts in natural history, biography, grammar, and so on; the moral effect of the poem being swallowed up and lost by a confused mass of unorganized facts. The second lesson, with no elaborate discussion of irrelevant matters—irrelevant to the great and single purpose of the theme—inspired the heart with the great truth of the soul's self-development to higher life. A true illustration it was of the function of poetry as the profound and beautiful application of ideas to life:

> Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul,
> As the swift seasons roll!
> Leave thy low-vaulted past!
> Let each new temple, nobler than the last,
> Shut thee from heaven with a dome more vast,
> Till thou at length art free
> Leaving thine out-grown shell by life's unresting sea!

So that little gem of Longfellow's, "Excelsior" (in spite of some critics, I call it a gem; perhaps through a lingering prejudice of boyhood), I have seen taught again and again, not only without regard to its artistic unity, but, what is far worse, with little or no perception of the living truth which it clothes and which has a

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lesson for every heart. University graduates, even medalists, have told me that, though they had often read and heard and taught the poem, it had never struck them as being anything but a somewhat imaginative and musical account of the futile enterprise of a rash, though courageous, youth. They had been so absorbed in the bare outward form, the symbol or metaphor of the poet's feeling, that the moral nature had never been touched by the living soul within.

Why should we make a mere arithmetical division of the poem into parts—*disjecta membra* violently wrenched from an organic whole? Why not rather lead the pupil through unconscious grouping of the related thoughts to a conscious recognition of the unities constituting an organic whole? We have in the first part the introduction of the youth and his purpose, and, given with a touch of genius, his qualities typical of a noble manhood; then the physical perils, and the allurements of a subtler kind that would divert him from his purpose; and last of all the issue—apparent defeat—death; but with a suggestion of unrecorded victory. Why pour out mobs of facts and questions upon Switzerland, Alps, mountains, rhymes, monks, Longfellow, glaciers, St. Bernard dogs, avalanches, till the lowest pit of monotony is reached, and the freighted memory is left without a nook for a living thought? The spiritual interpretation that almost alone conduces to spiritual and moral influence has no place, or the lowest place, in such teaching. Never a word about the imaginative climbing, its temptations and threatening perils and dauntless spirit, as typifying the soul's struggle for its higher and highest life; how, perfected through conflict and stamped with the divine hieroglyphics of sorrow, it achieves through self-reverence, self-activity, self-control, that life of sovereign power which culminates in life immortal.

I remember being profoundly touched in my youth by this little poem, and the effect of the lesson has been with me through all the years. I *was*, for the time at least, the youth of high purpose and heroic endeavor. How I followed him in his perilous ascent, filled with the vision of thoughtful brow and flashing eye, and clarion voice and dauntless heart; of happy home and pleading maiden; of roaring torrent and awful avalanche, powerless against his steadfast soul. What deep sorrow filled my heart at the catastrophe!

> A traveler by the faithful hound
> Half buried in the snow was found,
> Still grasping in his hand of ice
> That banner with the strange device;

And I asked, as every sympathetic soul has asked, with the silent figure vividly before me: Is this the end? What now of the broad

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brow, the dome of thought, the palace of the soul? What now of the flashing eye, the clarion voice, the dauntless heart? O strong soul, what now of thy king-making heroism? Nay, not all:

> There in the twilight cold and gray
> Lifeless yet beautiful he lay:
> While from the sky serene and far
> A voice fell like a falling star!

Beautiful, as if the triumphant soul's last whisper to its noble co-worker had been of immortality and the resurrection morning. And falling from the opening heavens the life motto of the heroic soul seems to be lost in the mighty chorus: Lift up your heads, O ye gates, and be ye lifted up ye everlasting doors, that the victor may enter into life!

THE SKYLARK—WORDSWORTH—TRUTH AND BEAUTY THROUGH CONCRETE FORM.

Ethereal minstrel, pilgrim of the sky, etc.

* * * * * * * * * *

I. INTELLECTUAL ANALYSIS.

(1) The bird soars heavenward because it loves.

(2) Interaction of light and love; the higher the ascent into heaven's light the louder the song, the stronger the bond of home-love.

(3) Divine instinct of bird for privacy of glorious light; the two poles—light and love; the richer song for earth.

II. SPIRITUAL INTERPRETATION.

(1) Home-love the beginning of heaven-love; the soul true to home is true to heaven.

(2) The deeper the heaven-love, the richer the home-love; the soul truer to heaven is truer to home.

(3) Home-love and heaven-love are one: divine instinct of the soul satisfied only when home-love becomes love of heaven. Wider and richer benedictions for earth as vestibule of heaven.

III. ARTISTIC ANALYSIS.

(1) The representative elements.

(2) The presentative elements.

IV. ORAL READING ESSENTIAL IN THE TEACHING OF LITERATURE.

General Principles.

(1) The general effect of articulate speech.

(a) On the intellect.

(b) On the emotions.

On the intellectual side, expression develops power. The speech centers of the brain are correlated with the thought centers.

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On the emotional side, speech develops the higher emotions.

(2) As there is relation between thought and feeling, there is relation between the language of thought and the language of emotion.

Language of the intellect, so far as thought can be untouched by feeling, is *unmodified* articulate speech.

The language of the emotions is chiefly *modified* articulate speech, *i. e.*, modified by the voice in "tunes" of speech.

(3) That is, human speech has two factors: "Signs of ideas and signs of feeling, or 'cadence;'" that is, the "tunes of speech" is the commentary of the emotions on the propositions of the intellect.

Inferences.

(1) As the teacher must help the learner to *understand*, so he must help the learner to *feel*—this through the language of the emotions, *i. e.*, cadence, which signifies emotion, and excites emotion. Reading, the test of intelligence and feeling.

(2) Full effect of presentative elements, especially in poetry, can be had only by reading aloud.

(3) Finer shades of thought and touches of emotion left unrevealed if no oral reading.

(4) Hence it cultivates more thoroughly not only intellect, but eminently the æsthetic and moral elements.

(5) It leads to refined pronunciation, and to the removal of the badge of plebeianism from the "commons" whose "speech bewrayeth them."

(6) Therefore reading aloud—an essential part of the teacher's preparation for teaching literature.

REMARKS ON RHYTHM IN EDUCATION.

BY DR. G. STANLEY HALL, CLARK UNIVERSITY.

[STENOGRAPHIC REPORT.]

It is difficult, indeed, to come in at the close of an address such as you have just heard and supplement it with anything new or instructive. I shall not try to do that, but will express a single sentiment, and then sit down. I think teaching

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itself ought to be the most uplifting and ethical of all vocations, especially to-day. It is changing its aspect. Evolution has taught the teacher that he or she is to be its chief agent in the march of progress, and if we are to have a higher type of citizenship, of manhood, or of womanhood in the world, it is to be done by conscious agencies, and those agencies culminate in the teacher. In the vision of the super-man, if it is ever to be realized, it will be because the school, the college and university will succeed in bringing childhood to more complete maturity, physically, mentally, and, above all, morally. The physical man and woman will be better developed. Those latter stages of growth that are so easily arrested—so often arrested in most of us—will be completed. Instead of the hollow chest, incomplete shoulders and slab sides, the weak hips which mark the arrested development in the latter stages, we shall have the full physical manhood, which was the ideal of culture in the days of ancient Greece, and again in the best days of German education.

I believe that the child-study movement is coming to be a philosophic department in education, and that it is to bring all these agencies that have for their purpose human upbuilding into the one great science or art, called education.

There is one practical point—so practical that it can be introduced into the school-rooms the first day of next term. Plato believed and thought that the central word in education was rhythm. Now, a rocking chair is a very important educational instrument. It prevails nowhere as in this country. It is an instrument of rhythm. Walking is an instrument of rhythm. Let me introduce one technical term: If I stand on one leg or one foot, and swing the other like a pendulum, this way, [indicating] my own leg has a natural vibration, time 73, and that rhythm pervades everything I do. If you had an apparatus, which recorded accurately every accent as I speak to you now, you would find that those accents would be just about 73 degrees. That is my $\frac{73}{100}$ of a second. It is fundamental. If I take exercise—a walk—it is not exercise at all if I used this fixed vibration-time. My legs swing as pendulums. If I exert a little, that is exercise; or if I go slower, that is exercise, but if I should start fast and go slower and slower, I would invariably slow down to about 73. If I should start slow, I would gradually reach that. The idea is that there is a tendency to fall into that $\frac{73}{100}$ seconds time. Now, then, if I am excited, I begin to walk or step faster. A mother by singing slower and slower will almost always put her child to sleep.

The teacher's rhythm is an essential thing, for the teacher's habits invariably produce their effect upon the children. I noticed recently an article which indicated that all the children were afflicted with incipient corea and other forms of nervous disorders, to which childhood is so prone in this American climate and life of ours. Our moral rhythm is ethical, and the moral of it is never to lose your self-control. The moment you do, you are hysterical, more or less. The teacher who does not study these important matters may do great harm to the nervous system of the child.

Now, the very essence of motion is rhythm, and my closing sentence is this, that I do not believe we have any right to teach things that do not go through the intellect and affect the heart. All education that is real education is education of the heart. Let us teach nothing that we do not teach so thoroughly that it gets into the heart of the child, and in the heart arouses those deep cadences which have constituted some of the best systems of education in the past, and which inspired Plato.

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PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN NORMAL SCHOOLS.

BY JOHN W. COOK, PRESIDENT STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, NORMAL, ILL.

Before the beginning of the constitutional period, American educational literature had nothing to say respecting the professional preparation of teachers. The magnificent plea for popular education had been made, but you will search in vain for any suggestion looking toward a normal school, a pedagogical professorship, or even a teachers' institute. The idea that "teachers are born and not made" had undisputed possession of the American consciousness.

The campaign which resulted in the establishment of our first normal school marks an epoch in the educational history of this country. It was a revolutionary movement. It boldly and unequivocally attacked the generally accepted doctrine that he who knows a subject can teach it; to teach a subject it is only necessary to know it. Without that historic struggle, not only the teachers' seminary, but the educational magazine, the summer school, the university professorship, and the growing demand for trained teachers must have waited for another age. Take an inventory of the agencies at work to-day for the betterment of methods of instruction in all grades of schools, and you will appreciate the significance of that humble beginning in Massachusetts but little more than a half a century ago. The normal school was obliged to fight its way into popular favor. The extremes of intelligence bitterly opposed it. The liberally educated contingent looked upon it as an attempt to substitute a cheap veneer for the substantial mahogany of the time-honored college curriculum, while the great generality regarded it as the chimerical scheme of a few unpractical visionaries.

The struggle is not over, but the battle is substantially won. When our oldest and noblest university announced her courses in pedagogy, the opposition of the scholars became an anachronism. When the new States in the far West incorporated in their fundamental law grants of the public domain for the support of teachers' training schools, Horace Mann's vindication was substantially complete.

The first movement in this country toward professional schools was an original American impulse. Although the idea was not new to the old world, our early educators seem to have had no information of what had been accomplished. The Prussian system, long antedating ours, finally attracted the attention of Mr. Charles Brooks of Massachusetts, who lost no opportunity for acquainting the people

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of his State with what had been done abroad. His efforts well illustrate the influence which even one intelligent and tireless man may exert upon his own and later times, for the development of the normal school idea was materially influenced by the European example.

To Mr. James G. Carter of Massachusetts, however, attaches the honorable title of "father of the American normal school." To his persistent and enthusiastic advocacy is mainly due the final passage of the first normal school act.

The limits set to this paper do not permit me to trace the history of the movement which resulted in the establishment of the pioneer school. If you would read a story of devotion rarely surpassed in any annals turn to the account of the early days of Cyrus Peirce at Lexington. If our younger friends need the inspiration of a great example—and who does not?—let them catch the lofty spirit of that greatest of educational prophets, Horace Mann. Abandoning the attractive and lucrative practice of the law, declining the political preferment which awaited only his acquiescing nod, stepping aside from the discussions of his time, in the issues of which he had a burning interest, he threw himself into the one great task of building the public school, and as a fundamental necessity to its success, the teachers' training school. What cause has ever failed with such an advocate? What tireless devotion! What unmatched eloquence! What unanswerable logic! What unquestioning faith! Educational literature would be richly dowered if only his contributions remained.

Time would fail me if I were to attempt to speak of Henry Barnard; of Samuel J. May; of David P. Page; of the venerable and honored Dr. Sheldon and his forty years at Oswego; of Father Tillinghast and Dr. Boyden at Bridgewater; of Dr. Edwards at St. Louis and in Illinois. These and the other builders of the American normal school must be left to another writer and another time.

In this movement, as in all great movements, the idea was infinitely richer than its realization. What would not be possible with a carefully trained and thoroughly enthusiastic teacher in every school, from the remote district to the great university? Is there any other enterprise in which there is such lamentable waste? The beginnings were necessarily crude, and a half century of experience finds us still in the field of doubt and experiment. Let us hope that we shall never emerge entirely from either.

It was not difficult to suggest certain general lines of work. As early as 1824, Mr. Carter proposed three: a thorough grounding of the normal school students in the subjects to be taught; instruction in the science and art of teaching; and practice-teaching under supervision. Naturally the early schools laid greatest stress upon the first of these three elements. Where should they turn for pedagogical lit-

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erature, and how should they supervise the teaching work of their pupils before the development of something like a systematic methodology? And so it was unavoidable that the first work should be chiefly academic. But what academic work it was! It is difficult to estimate the great service rendered to the cause of thorough scholarship by the unsparing vigor with which they treated the elements of an English education. Their pupils were usually of mature age but of limited scholarship, having had few opportunities beyond the district or village schools. The epoch of elementary science teaching was far in the future. Their fundamental proposition was: "Teach the prospective teacher what he is to teach, and he will imitate your example." Subjects that are usually studied in the almost forgotten years of childhood and were regarded as only preparatory to the academy, were elevated to the rank of the classics as educative material. What breezy reading lessons! How simple geography was lifted to the dignity of an inspiring science! How arithmetic was stripped of its mechanical stupidity and made to yield a finer discipline in sharp distinction and critical analysis! It is not strange that the common school curriculum was immensely dignified in the esteem of these young men and young women, and that they should think somewhat slightingly of the studies that had held the chief place in the estimation of educators ever since the revival of learning.

Yet who that has been a pupil of one of the early normal school men can but be thankful for such superb instruction? Had their spirit possessed the Renaissance, Comenius, Rosseau and Pestalozzi would have lived in vain. But their fundamental proposition has its limitations. A method of treating the elementary subjects that is suitable to a youth of eighteen is ill-adapted to a child of eight. Those early normal graduates found a very stubborn and substantial fact in the limitations of childhood. It was very much in evidence that the method of the normal school could not be transplanted bodily into the early grades of a system of popular education. They found that their art was still to be acquired through the fruitful lessons of experience. Yet they were sensitive, enthusiastic, ambitious, and had that indispensable quality, the teaching spirit. They were an immense advance upon the average of untrained teachers, but their methods were empirical. The normal school soon discovered the necessity for the fuller development of its theoretical work, and at this point it encountered practical difficulties of the gravest character. Every teacher of experience can contribute valuable information respecting the mechanics of the school-room. Nor would I underestimate the value of a knowledge of those minor details of management, ignorance of which is so embarrassing to the beginner. But the function of the teacher is the stimulation of spiritual forces, the organiza-

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tion of a rational and commanding selfhood in every being under his direction. Devices are valuable to the degree that they contribute to this supreme consummation, and no further. The lessons in theory and practice that constituted the humble beginnings of professional instruction were barren and inconsequential enough, yet the ardor of the teachers often endowed even those commonplace platitudes with a degree of attractiveness.

But it was not long before we began to feel the stimulating influence of the prophets of the old world. The spirit of Pestalozzi crossed the ocean and had its re-incarnation on the shores of the beautiful Ontario. It could neither be laughed down nor starved in the new world as it had been in the old. The educational historian who overlooks the Oswego movement makes a grave omission. It was germinal in America as it had been in Europe. It is the happy fortune of its great promoter to survive its vindication.

But in many quarters it resulted in the apotheosis of method—a substantial reaction against the old ideal. It was inevitable that the normal school should have exactly the experience which it encountered. Nothing could have prevented it. The public seemed disposed to take it at its word, and demanded a show of results: and the normal school answered with method. Servile imitators exploited "rules of thumb," and began to entertain the pleasing hope that education was soon to take its place among the exact sciences. It was the old and fruitless attempt to sail by chart, forgetful of the overarching sky. I cannot dwell upon this interesting and suggestive movement, nor must I be understood as intimating that it lacked a philosophical setting in the house of its nativity. Subsequent events clearly demonstrate the contrary to be true. That it assumed grotesque proportions among the unthinking was witnessed by the fantastic object lessons of which many of us have melancholy recollections.

But the idea, the growing and insistent idea, with its rebuking ideals, clearly indicated that we had by no means touched bottom in our methodology. And where should we turn for guidance if not to psychology? The syllogism was elemental in its simplicity. Psychology is the science of mind. The function of the teacher is the systematic evolution of mind. The conclusion is irresistible: study psychology. And so it was impregnably intrenched in the normal school curriculum.

But alas for the literalness of human spirit! Psychology is indeed the science of mind, and a most difficult and profound science, too. From my own observation I must conclude that many a normal student has completed the prescribed course without having clearly defined to himself the idea that he had been studying his own biog-

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raphy. How the practical art of teaching can gain direction from a memorizing of the juiceless definitions with which certain compendiums of mental science are crowded is quite incomprehensible to me. And so the introduction of this subject in many schools simply resulted in adding an academic study to the already overcrowded curriculum.

I am convinced that it is to the third feature of the normal school —the training department—that we are especially indebted for the most wholesome and promising of the recent reforms in their administration. Originally established as schools of observation, they have become practice shops and experiment stations. Nor has their introduction been a revival of the monitorial system. Much sympathy has been wasted on the suffering pupil of the model school, who is practiced upon by the normal school apprentice with a skillful supervisor at his elbow, that could have been bestowed more wisely upon similar pupils in isolated school districts, who are being practiced upon by youths that have served no theoretical apprenticeship and that have no supervisor of any kind. That one shall never teach until he knows how to teach, reminds us anew of the historic mother whose children were not permitted to enter the water until they knew how to swim.

The model school, which at first lived in a sort of manufactured, and consequently an unnatural, atmosphere, is becoming the typical public school, so far as ordinary conditions are concerned. And it should be essentially typical, in the matter of number, quality of pupils and equipment, for two reasons: the normal pupil should find himself in no alien country when he steps from his professional school to the great common school, and the normal school teacher should be face to face with the problem in whose solution he is expected to furnish material aid. So the practice-school becomes the bar of judgment to which every theory of education may be brought for trial, and in this particular we find a new illustration of the old prophecy respecting the leadership of the little child.

The first normal school studied the subjects to be taught, and little beside. The later schools made much of theories about teaching. The modern school, not neglecting a careful examination of the course of study nor despising the doctrinaire attitude of the past, is rather disposed to go at once to the center of the situation and refer matters to the person most deeply interested in the whole business—the child himself. Where the wisdom of such a course has approved itself to the professional schools, there has been a transformation little short of magical. Among the changes may be noted the following: (1) Only those desiring to teach are candidates for admission, and the

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mongrel character of half academy and half normal school has disappeared. (2) A central, specific and dominating aim has separated itself from the more or less confused ends heretofore set up. It is only in the presence of the working child that one fully realizes the responsibility that he has assumed in undertaking the direction of the education of the masses, and he is driven to a sharp formulation of his purposes and a distinct focusing of his efforts. (3) The psychology of the text-book is surrendering to, or perhaps I should say receiving illumination from, the living text-book. It is apparent that there are certain psychological questions that are of pre-eminent interest to the teacher, and to these he must give the larger share of his attention. It follows that the systematic psychology of the schools is not the psychology of the normal school. There must be that quick welding of theory and fact; that assurance of utility which arises when one finds a philosophy that explains; that revelation of inner life which guides the molding hand of the teacher; that conviction that here is a line whose pursuit will result in insight and power and liberating skill. (4) There has been a return to the course of study for an examination and arrangement of its content with reference to the way in which mind works in acquiring knowledge, and for its substantial enrichment by the introduction of science and literature into lower grades. We are learning to make a practical application of our theories to the point of greatest resistance. Tentative lines of work based upon the principle of concentration are slowly emerging. The tendency toward the establishment of central and dominating subjects is unmistakable. There is a fortunate diversity of opinion in this field of modern thought, which promises the corrective influence of varied and fruitful experiment. (5) The university development of the normal school has turned the attention of the richest scholarship of the time to the problems presented by popular education. The professional schools will be the most sensitive points of public opinion. Already they are listening eagerly to the message of the specialist. The educational world is becoming a whispering gallery in which the faintest practical suggestion is infinitely multiplied. Herbart's audience is no longer limited to Germany. Dr. Hall's physiological gospel has already started reforms that entitle him to the gratitude of the new generation.

The kindergarten and the manual training school have ceased to be novelties. The outlook is full of cheer.

But, after all, we have made only a good beginning. While Germany can count ninety-five per cent of her teachers as fairly entitled to be called professional, we cannot claim a tenth as many. The new

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French revolution, so auspiciously begun only a quarter century ago, has already more than quadrupled our ratio. The English pupil-teacher system, inaugurated about the same time, multiplies it by six. The province of Ontario mocks our pretentious claims to excellence with no teacher in her schools who has not had some special preparation for his work.

Some of the States of the Union are winning laurels. Massachusetts seems resolutely determined to maintain her traditional supremacy which she was about to lose, if it had not already passed to one of the young States of the Northwest. New York has almost a dozen normal schools and Pennsylvania is by her side in point of number. Wisconsin has five and smilingly points to two more in sight. Minnesota, for the number of her teachers, is in the front rank. But Illinois has but two State schools, Indiana and Iowa but one each, Ohio the same; and so the list discouragingly runs on. A far more comprehensive plan must approve itself to the public if we are to have anything like a body of trained teachers.

In my own State of Illinois the ungraded schools furnish the most perplexing problem. They employ three-fifths of our 25,000 teachers. The average annual term is a trifle more than seven months and the average wages do not exceed forty dollars. From statistics carefully compiled by the superintendent of public instruction, I am led to conclude that the average teacher spends less than four years in the school-room. So far as I know there is no reason for regarding our experience as especially exceptional. And what a showing it is! The great army of instructors of the young, after an apprenticeship that prepares it for something like efficiency, leaves the school-room forever. What impotent statesmanship! What an inexcusable indifference to highest interests! Until there shall be an elementary normal school in every congressional district, an advanced school for every three elementary schools, and a pedagogical department of college grade, equipped with plenty of instructors adequately prepared for their work, with abundant library facilities, with suitable laboratories and with practice schools for experiments and observation in every State university, we shall look in vain for economical schools. It is useless to talk of a scholarly teacher in every school as a practical possibility in any near future. The diminishing rural school, with its comparatively short year of employment, its small compensation, and its many unpleasant accompaniments of mud, poor boarding places, limited social opportunities, inferior buildings, and other disagreeable accessories, will continue to be taught, in the main, by beginners. But every consideration of economy and justice

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demands that these beginners shall have a chance so far to anticipate their work, as to reduce to the minimum the perils attendant upon their inexperience. The grade teachers in towns and cities will continue to serve for comparatively short periods of time, and the suggestions already urged have only a smaller application here. Even the most permanent element in the whole system, the principal or superintendent, furnishes perhaps the most urgent argument for professional preparation, since one of his principal functions is to supplement the inexperience and ignorance of his assistants by his own comprehensive grasp of the whole situation.

Why should we sit longer with folded hands in the presence of the situation, or divide into hostile camps and quarrel over details? Let *us* do something that looks toward a forward movement in securing that professional recognition that we all alike desire and believe ourselves entitled to, but which the public as yet decline to accord us.

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN COLLEGES.

BY S. G. WILLIAMS, CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

A German university has the honor of taking the initiative in the higher professional training of teachers. About 1738, Johann M. Gesner, professor of humanities in the newly-founded University of Goettingen, was moved by the wretched preparation of university students to open a *seminarium philologicum* to prepare the future teachers of secondary schools for the better pursuit of their calling. He saw that the universities were almost wholly neglecting the preparation of men for teaching. "What the theologian or the jurist or the learned man needs," he says, "that is taught at the universities; but *not* what the schoolmaster needs. Hence men must be taken for the school service who have been prepared for another calling, and who, *being* fit for anything rather than for teachers, are able neither to think, nor to live, nor even to speak, rightly." To remedy this neglect, *and so* to root out the evil of students with no love for study nor idea of the true purpose of study, which constantly perpetuated itself in a *vicious* circle through untrained teachers, who pursued only a bad customary routine, Gesner founded his philologic seminary. "Its purpose was not the training of learned philologists, but schoolmasters," who should add to a thorough mastery of the subjects that they were to teach a general instruction in philosophy and in the art of effective teaching; in addition to which, "he admonished his seminarists to seek

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everywhere intercourse with children and especially to gain admittance to give some instruction in the city schools of Goettingen." Thus this earliest of university teachers of pedagogy has sketched with firm hand most of the lines of successful college instruction in pedagogy of to-day: mastery of subject-matter, knowledge of the science of man and of the art of teaching based thereon, the observation of children and youth, and some practice in teaching.

In this connection it is also well to observe that Gesner's success in this work was largely due to his previous experience in directing the famous old Thomas Schule of Leipsic, in which, during his rectorship, he had introduced many salutary reforms, and had gained the needful acquaintance with the conditions under which secondary instruction must be carried on. This fact may suggest the importance of having for the college professor of pedagogy a man who has had successful experience in the secondary schools.

But though Gesner was a pioneer in the teaching of pedagogy in a university, he was far from being the first to give to teachers of secondary schools a definite preparation for their work. Honor to whom honor is due. During a full century and a half before Gesner, the Jesuits had given a careful two years' preparation to those who should give instruction in their schools; and it is strange that the acknowledged superiority of these schools should not have directed attention to the means by which their excellence was attained.

From the time of Gesner, pedagogy, associated with philosophy as its natural ally, has never been without witness in some German universities. Kant's lectures on pedagogy in Koenigsberg are well known. Herbart's labors both at Goettingen and Koenigsberg always laid especial emphasis on pedagogy. The philosophy of education by Herbart's successor at Koenigsberg has long been known to American teachers, and none need to be referred to Jena and Heidelberg as present centers of great pedagogical activity.

It would be a cause of surprise, that in English-speaking countries effective efforts in the college presentation of pedagogy should be confined to the last twenty-one years, did we not take into account the persistence of the idea, that for success in higher teaching learning alone is needful; and that hence the college does its whole duty by sending out men of sound learning. The idea that the *know what* needs no aid from the *know how*, that learning gains nothing valuable from being presented in such manner and order as to be adapted to the youthful apprehension, and that a well-stored memory is rather to be expected from the school than a rightly developed personality, is still very widely prevalent, even in college circles, and is apt to be coupled with a shadowy notion of an inborn capacity to teach which needs no direction. These fallacious ideas have now been rudely

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shaken, and the recent report of the Committee of Ten, with its well-omened effort to solve the question of the grouping, order, proportion, and co-ordination of studies, and the demand made by most of the conferences, that teachers be not only more thoroughly equipped in point of learning, but also trained to present their special subjects more effectively by methods suited to their nature, are sure to direct serious attention to college and university instruction in pedagogy.

Whether education should be considered a science, as a well-known professor of pedagogy seems recently to have denied, depends on our definition of the term science. If a systematized body of principles, generalized from experience, admitting of correlation with certain related sciences and of useful application to all individual cases within their proper domain, and verified by the success of those who have acted in accordance with these principles as well as by the failures of those who have contravened them, deserves the name of science, then education can claim a scientific status. Yet whatever opinion we may be inclined to adopt of education as a science, no one doubts that it is an art, and moreover the most important of arts, because on its successful exercise largely depends the well-being of those who in the future are to practice this and all other arts. But like other arts, skill in this art is not a matter of mere intuition, but can be gained most surely and expeditiously through definite instruction by those already experienced in this art. Moreover, success in it depends largely on conformity to certain fundamental principles which, though they *may* be gained by long experience, as a matter of fact are very rarely so gained, because they are derived from a careful study of the mode and order in which youthful minds attain to clearness of view, and of the steps through which youthful predilections harden into habits and may be developed into estimable character. Such a study is obviously of a scientific character, and hence we shall not go far astray if we consider pedagogy as an art with a scientific basis.

I am asked to treat this science and art in its relations to the university preparation of teachers for secondary schools and colleges. That such teachers need a special preparation for their duties is taken for granted by the Committee of Ten, and is especially emphasized by the conferences that deal with subjects which are rarely well taught, for example history, English, and the sciences of nature. The chief grounds of complaint are the insufficient mastery, on the part of teachers, of the subjects taught, and the too usual lack of a proper method in their presentation. To supply the first of these deficiences is obviously the office of the colleges or universities in their ordinary classes. The reason for their existence, as usually conceived, is, that they may insure to diligent students a mastery of knowledge. Likewise these institutions should exemplify in their teaching the best

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known methods of presentation. Where they do this (and I do not aver that it is always the case), they naturally do so because it *is* the best method, but without those explanations which are so needful for unpracticed teachers, both that they may use methods aright and may modify them to suit circumstances. Every thoughtful teacher in a secondary school knows that the best methods used in colleges need very considerable modifications to adapt them to use with students less advanced, and that such modifications should not affect the *spirit* of the methods, however much they may vary their mode of application. It may be said in passing that here at once appears the need of a department of pedagogy, even in institutions in which the best methods prevail.

Much also will be gained, aside from the work of the special department of pedagogy, if the professors of such subjects as history, mathematics, sciences and languages can be induced to discuss in conferences with intending teachers the special claims of the subjects which they represent and the best modes of presenting them. The somewhat exaggerated and even exclusive claims often made by specialists for their favorite subjects, and the merely individual use of excellent methods exemplified by highly original professors, far from being harmful, may be turned to great advantage, when all subjects and methods are considered together by the professor of pedagogy in their relations to each other and to the general purpose which should animate all instruction.

In one other respect the general courses of the college may render a most essential preliminary service to the department of pedagogy, viz., by so arranging the course in psychology, logic and ethics that the work in pedagogy may presuppose a fair degree of mastery of these necessary subjects. Indeed, in all small institutions in which the instruction is not completely specialized, these subjects should be assigned to the professor of pedagogy, and such an arrangement would permit them to be treated more fully than is usual, in view of their pedagogic implications.

From what has now been said, it is obvious that the college work of preparing efficient teachers for the secondary schools is by no means the affair of a single department, but is rather one which calls for the friendly co-operation of several departments, whose labors prepare the materials on which the real work of the professor of pedagogy is to be done. For the philosophic subjects that have been named are of themselves by no means a philosophy of education. The best methods exemplified by various departments are by themselves but isolated fragments of a philosophy of methods. The apparently conflicting claims of great departments of human interest are sure to confuse the earnest student (if not to leave him with distorted views most prejudicial

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to his success as an educator), if not brought into relative valuation, and thus harmonized as being all needful, but not necessarily rival or even co-equal factors in the work of human culture. And, finally, the mastery of subjects to be taught affords little more warrant for skill in imparting them, than would the possession of a choice and varied stock of lumber, for skill in fashioning it into really artistic furniture.

These considerations may indicate to us some of the distinctive services that should be expected from the college treatment of pedagogy. Let us examine them somewhat in detail.

First, and most important of all, the teacher's mind and heart should be so prepared for his future vocation, that, to use a somewhat common expression, he may really receive the *entire* boy into school, and that in training him he may so bear in mind what the future man would wish to be that he may truly represent that coming man in the boy. In emphasizing the necessity that *tact*, as the fruit of experience enlightened by science, should act as a mediator between theory and the exigencies of practice, Herbart has so weightily expressed the need of this mental and spiritual preparation, that I cannot do better than to quote from his first lecture delivered at Goettingen: "Let us," he says, "reflect upon what active agencies and what influences it depends how this tact shall develop itself within us. It shapes itself first during practice. It is fashioned by the influence on our feelings of what we experience in this practice. This influence will produce diverse results according as we ourselves are disposed one way or another. Upon this disposition of ours we can and should act by deliberation. Upon the correctness and weight of this deliberation, upon the interest and the moral willingness with which we devote ourselves to it, will depend whether and in what wise it shall order and govern our disposition before entering upon the teacher's vocation, and consequently whether and how it shall rule our modes of feeling during the exercise of this vocation; and finally, with this, how it shall shape that tact on which depends the success or failure of our pedagogic efforts. In other words, through deliberation, through reflection and investigation, through *science*, should the educator prepare, not so much his future actions in individual cases, as rather *himself*, his disposition, his head and his heart, for correctly apprehending, grasping, feeling and judging the occurrences which await him, and for the state of mind in which he shall meet them." To promote this preparation of mind and heart which Herbart so forcibly urges, to provide through science the means which alone can make experience really fruitful, and to give the future teacher enlightened views of the

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nature and demands of his vocation, is a vitally essential duty of the professor of pedagogy.

In the performance of this duty, he should not neglect to emphasize the only sure corrective to the deadening effects of school-room routine, by impressing as the very foundation of scientific pedagogy the necessity of clearly defined *aims*, lofty indeed, yet never shadowy, and always consciously giving direction, not only to the entire work of education, but also to every operation of the school, the class, and the individual pupil. I surely do not need, in this presence, to go into any detail on the nature of these controlling aims. I surely need only to say that they should partake of that grander utilitarianism which looks to making of every increase of knowledge a fresh step towards rendering its possessor spiritually a free man, eager so to do his work in this world as to promote the well-being of the race and nation to which he belongs, and with a mind open to sympathy with all worthy interests of mankind. For our secondary schools are not to send forth merely skilled but narrow linguists, or scientists, or mathematicians, or historians, but cultured men and women, ready to meet all the exigencies of active life, and to face with modest confidence all its problems,—free in the ability to use every faculty to the fullest measure of its capability; free, also, in the subordination through discipline of all mere self-regarding impulses to those higher motives which sweeten and ennoble human life.

Doubtless the most significant part of the justly famous report of the Committee of Ten, properly so-called, is that in which it collects the studies properly belonging to secondary schools into groups of allied subjects, *i. e.*, groups of which the various members train the same capabilities to essentially the same purpose, and then endeavors, through tentative programs, to express in a practical form their supposed relative value, both as knowledge and as means of substantial discipline. Without intending in the least to express an opinion as to the sufficiency of the solution suggested by the committee, for which this is not the place, it is enough to direct attention to it, not merely as a promising effort to make school programs more self-consistent and all-sided, but rather as pointing to a highly interesting yet difficult function of the professor of pedagogy. I refer to the dispassionate discussion, which he should attempt, of the relative values, both as discipline and knowledge, of various groups of subjects, not only that such values may be duly expressed in the time-allotments of school programs, but that instruction may be given with clear consciousness of the spiritual results that should be expected from their proper use. The educational world has long been perplexed by heated

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and one-sided discussions of the conflicting claims of subjects assumed to be rivals, and such discussions have aptly been called "the conflict of studies." It is certainly high time that an honest effort should be made to treat them all as worthy claimants to the favor of educators, to approximate to a just estimate of their services, and to assign to all their rightful place as indispensable elements of a complete, because all-sided, culture. And where else can this be done if not in the college treatment of pedagogy in its scientific aspects? Where students are sufficiently mature to follow such a discussion intelligently, and are presumably possessed of such breadth of knowledge as to be able to form some judgment of its value and validity. Such a discussion, it may be added, is obviously indispensable to any proper treatment of the important topic of school organization, economy and supervision, which is naturally expected from the college department of pedagogy.

It goes without saying that the college professor of pedagogy should treat from a broader point of view than is usually possible in the normal school such fundamental conditions of success as teaching how to study, the theory of interest, the gaining of the co-operative self-activity of pupils, apperception, the due correlation of studies, and the having regard for the essential method of groups of subjects dependent on the nature of their subject-matter. These all are matters of course. It is almost equally a matter of course that the history of education should be studied, though it should be said emphatically that to limit its consideration to any of the extant outlines of educational history is greatly to underestimate its importance in the college curriculum.

For the deeper study of important phases of educational history, for practice in the investigation of educational questions, for the study of school systems and their tendencies, and for the examination of school operations, the seminary, or the more familiar conference, furnishes admirable facilities with which it may be presumed that the college department of pedagogy will never dispense save from stern necessity.

Again, in lectures, in the seminary, and in conferences, a most important service may be rendered to aspiring students by referring them to a wide range of valuable educational works with which they would rarely become acquainted without such reference. It should by no means be demanded that all these should be consulted at once. The purpose should be rather to give the future teacher abundant ideas of the sources to which he may hereafter go for inspiration or information during his professional career, thus possibly awakening in him a taste for research and giving him clues to the means.

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Finally, we reach the vexed question of practice work, which it is obviously in most cases impossible to give in colleges and universities. With regard to this, it may be said that a considerable proportion of the students who elect pedagogic courses have already had experience in teaching, or have received their preparation for college in normal schools. These are peculiarly desirable students, since the lectures are sure to be illustrated by many facts in their previous experience, and their influence in the conference or seminary is more than usually valuable. Visitation of neighboring schools or classes can easily be arranged, and this may be turned to great profit by directing attention to certain vital points on which reports are required. Besides this, highly instructive practice may readily be given within the pedagogic class, through quizzes, conducted by members of the class on the subject of past lectures, under criticism of the professor. In such quizzes the points that may most profitably be emphasized are: (1) The need of thorough preparation for all class exercises, (2) the attainment of skill in the art of questioning and of exposition, and (3) the ready use of expedients for holding the attention of a class.

If the visitation of schools and exercises of the kind just mentioned are thoroughly used, it is possible that we may greatly overestimate the disadvantage arising from the lack of training classes in colleges.

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN SUMMER SCHOOLS.

BY EMERSON E. WHITE, LL. D., COLUMBUS, OHIO.

I have the unusual felicity of an invitation to present a paper to this body on a new topic. A careful search through some fifteen volumes of the Proceedings of the Association has failed to find a paragraph or even a sentence on the summer school. These volumes contain many papers on the normal school, the same questions being again and again discussed; several papers on chairs of pedagogy in colleges and universities, and the teachers' institute, including the so-called normal institute, have once secured attention; but the summer school has until now escaped discussion in any department of the National Educational Association.

The reason for this omission may be the fact that the summer school, as differentiated from the normal institute, is of comparatively

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recent origin. It is but twenty years since the great Agassiz organized the Penikese Summer School of Natural History, the most illustrious, if not the first, experiment in this direction in the United States. Nearly all the summer schools of modern languages, literature, biology, physical science, psychology, etc., have been organized since 1874; and the summer schools of pedagogy, usually called summer schools of methods, are of still more recent origin.

Summer schools, as now organized, include several classes:

1. Schools that teach *special branches of knowledge*, as ancient and modern languages, literature, psychology, natural sciences, etc.

2. Schools that teach the *arts*, as drawing, industrial art, music, oratory, etc.,—one of the first being the summer school of drawing, conducted by Walter Smith in Boston, in 1875.

3. Schools that teach *pedagogy*, including psychology, principles and methods of teaching, the history of education, school management, kindergarten principles and methods, etc., properly called summer schools of pedagogy.

Many summer schools of the first class are now annually held in different parts of the country, increasingly in connection with colleges and universities—whatever may be the difference between these institutions in this country. Their multiplication has been greatly stimulated by the Chautauqua movement, and later by the university extension movement; and there is likely to be a considerable increase in the number of such schools from year to year. They are proving very helpful to earnest students who have not enjoyed full college advantages, and also to graduates who wish to pursue special lines of study and are not able to take resident post-graduate courses. They usually continue from four to six weeks.

The influence of these schools in promoting the adoption of better methods of teaching the subjects studied has been marked. The Agassiz school at Penikese, though continued but two sessions, owing to the death of its illustrious founder, gave to the country nearly a score of naturalists who have been leaders in efforts, greatly needed, to improve the methods of science teaching in American schools and colleges. The schools of languages (Sauveur's in Amherst, Mass., being one of the earliest), of literature, physics, chemistry, etc., have also exerted a salutary influence on the teaching of these subjects, this being specially true when they have been conducted by eminent scholars and teachers.

This class of summer schools also includes those that initiate special research and investigation, as in child study, physiological psy-

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chology, etc.—schools that promise valuable additions to pedagogical knowledge.

The practical value of brief courses of instruction in the several arts under skillful teachers has been widely attested. How many students have received their first impulse and guidance in some art from a few lessons by a great master! The writer, when a lad under twelve years of age, took twelve evening lessons in vocal music under a great musician and teacher, and, as a result of these twelve lessons, he could sing plain music in any key at sight, and continued practice without a teacher, but under the guidance of inspiring ideals, gave him increasing skill. When about seventeen years of age, he took twelve lessons in penmanship from that prince of American penmen, Platt R. Spencer, and, as a result, he acquired a natural movement and style in writing that has enabled him ever since to write much without the presence of the evils so graphically described by the advocates of vertical writing. A year later he took a few lessons in oratory from a master of that art, who himself was a pupil of the illustrious Brownson, and the few principles of true oral expression thus learned enabled him by practice to exorcise in part the bad habits of reading and speaking acquired in the schools, and years of experience as a public speaker have only served to unfold these simple principles. Happy is the art student who has the privilege of sitting at the feet of a great master and teacher, even for a few days! He not only gains inspiring ideals and a clear grasp of guiding principles, but some knowledge of fruitful methods.

This is specially true of teachers of the elementary school arts; eminently so of self-taught and inexperienced teachers. A few inspiring lessons to such persons by a skillful teacher are of very great value. Scores of the most successful teachers of writing, drawing and music in our schools have been greatly helped by such instruction; and this is just what every summer school of art should provide. To this end it must be manned by great teachers and artists. The novice has no place in the teacher's chair in a summer school. This is the place for inspiration and high ideals, and here must be the master's hand and the master's spirit.

In the above classification of summer schools, we have not included those short-session schools which are organized for the review of the several branches of study in which teachers are required to pass an examination in order to receive a certificate. These review schools are called by different names, sometimes normal institutes, a title wholly inappropriate when they do not add to the reviews of the legal branches helpful pedagogical instruction. In the absence of such

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instruction, no school is entitled to the appellation "normal." These review schools are here and there called "summer schools,"—a misleading appellation.

I have long doubted the real value of many of these brief review schools as a means of preparing teachers for their high office. They undoubtedly assist their students in passing examinations for certificates, especially when the instructors are the examiners. It is feared, however, that they do not greatly improve the real scholarship of teachers as a class. It is one thing to cram for an examination, and quite another to acquire real knowledge and abiding power. In so far as these brief reviews enable poor scholars to pass examinations, and thus gain admission to the schools as teachers, they are of questionable benefit, to say the least.

But these hurried reviews often, if not usually, present bad methods of *school* instruction. While classes are formed, even lessons daily assigned, the instructors do very little genuine class work—such work as must be done in the school-room with young pupils. They do most of the talking, the young teachers being listeners; they teach much by outlines and summaries; and these and other bad methods of real school work are carried by imitation into the elementary schools. The saving element in these review schools is the pedagogical instruction given, if any, and the interest and zeal in teaching awakened.

But the special purpose of this paper is to consider the professional value of summer schools of pedagogy, properly so-called. The aim of these schools is to present in brief courses the best that is known of teaching and school organization and management, and to afford fruitful personal contact between superior teachers and those who aspire to superiority. The courses of instruction should be as continuous and complete as possible, piecemeal and unco-ordinated work being of little value, and the instruction in each course should be "beaten oil." To these ends, the instructors should be selected with special reference to their ability to give the results of successful experience, as well as special study. They should indeed be experts, specialists, if you please, but not specialized specialists, who, in their microscopic search for isolated facts, often stumble over obvious principles.

The summer school of pedagogy is not the place for would-be philosophers to air the uncertain results of their excursions into the regions of the pedagogic unknown, nor is it a place where pedagogic Athenians can come year after year to hear or tell some new thing. The summer school is a place to which earnest and aspiring teachers

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come for light and inspiration in their great work. It stands over against the teacher's professional need, and its duty is to meet that need in the most helpful and practical manner possible. It should indeed be possessed of the spirit of investigation and inquiry and should present the most advanced results of pedagogical study and experience. It should bring to teachers the latest report from the laboratory, but it should be a verified report. All its instruction should have passed through the assay-room of successful experience. Earnest teachers who cross half a continent and spend half of a needed vacation, at great expense, seeking professional assistance, should receive the clearest light and the most helpful instruction which pedagogical research and experience can give. They ask for bread and should not be given a stone.

The summer school of pedagogy assumes that some things in education are known and determined, that there is a body of truth that may be so taught as to be clearly grasped and successfully applied in school work, and that there are also true methods of teaching which may be so presented and illustrated as to be profitably studied. I have the habit, possibly an unfortunate one, of transferring instruction in pedagogy to the school-room, and there endeavoring to harness it and put it to work. This habit involves the belief that all truth will work well, and when a theory of education can neither be harnessed nor yoked I half suspect that there may be error or uncertainty in it, and when the would-be philosopher has never harnessed his own theories, or seen them harnessed, there is at least ground for the fear that the average summer school student will never do so. I have sometimes visited the schools of teachers who were fertile in pedagogical theories, but weak in their application, and, disappointed, have left thinking, "What a sad divorcement of theory and practice, and what a strange alliance of new doctrines and old methods!"

What is greatly needed for the improvement of the American school is *the successful application of true principles in actual school work.* In the school-room there ought to be no wide divorcement between doctrine and method, principle and practice. It is not urged that practice should keep fully abreast of opinion; but opinion that has not seen practice is poor help for teachers who are earnestly seeking for assistance in their work.

The special value of the true summer school of pedagogy is that it puts fruitful professional training, under superior educators, within reach of teachers *who are actually engaged in teaching.* Its organization is demanded by the fact that there are thousands of teachers in American schools who had no special training for their work before entering upon it. The summer school offers to these teachers

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helpful professional training *while teaching*, and few, who have had no experience in this direction, can realize how much three or four weeks of vital instruction in pedagogy means to such teachers. Both observation and testimony justify the statement that a teacher, with two or more years' experience in the school-room, will receive much more help from three or four weeks of instruction in a good summer school than the student, who has not taught, receives in as many months in the normal school. Certainly no one who has taught the two classes of students will question this statement. The fact is that the great majority of American teachers must receive most of their professional training while they are actually engaged in teaching, and to these the summer school affords a coveted opportunity. It is not possible for anyone to make full preparation for teaching in advance of experience. Preparatory training is very important, but experience and training must also go hand in hand.

It may be too early to establish a summer school of pedagogy of high grade in every state, but it ought now to be feasible to organize one such school of the highest grade in each section of the country, say ten or more in the United States. To this end, each school ought to be at least partially endowed, making it possible and financially safe for the managers to employ the best qualified instructors in the profession.

It may be proper to add that it is feasible to unite the three classes of schools above named in one summer school, and this is now done in a few of the best summer schools in the country; but, in their fuller development, differentiation will, I am sure, more and more appear—a movement already initiated by the organization of schools of the first class in the universities.

But the summer school of pedagogy, however efficiently manned, cannot fully meet the increasing demands of teachers of scholarship and experience for an opportunity to learn from masters in the profession the best that is known of teaching, school organization and management. I do not know where, in this country, experienced and scholarly superintendents and principals, including principals and teachers in our normal schools, can go to receive even a year's professional instruction and training adapted to their needs. Our State normal schools are too elementary for teachers of such scholarship and experience, and even the departments of pedagogy in our colleges and universities are more specially adapted to undergraduates. I am happy to add that the new course of instruction in pedagogy in the University of the City of New York has much of promise in it, and that several other universities have made more or less auspicious beginnings.

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What is imperatively needed in this country is a *college of pedagogy of university rank*—an institution which in faculty and equipment is at least the equal of the best schools of theology, medicine and law now established. It is my earnest hope that this century may not close without seeing in the United States at least one high and worthy college of pedagogy. Whose name is to be forever associated with such an institution as founder and patron? His would be the highest service that this century has yet rendered education.

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS BY EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS.

BY JOHN A. MACDONALD, TOPEKA, KAN.

This year about 400,000 teachers will be needed in the schools of the Republic. All the vacancies will be filled, but not all by teachers. Imagine if you can or will a grand review in which this vast array of teachers and would-be teachers should march by the assembled educational magnates and philosophers of this land. There pass the worthy and the unworthy; those who are clad in the wedding-garment of fitness; others, alas! fit only to be cast into outer darkness. The halt, the maimed, and the blind are here, and contrary to all the teachings of science, a survival of the *unfittest* is plainly visible to everyone who hath eyes to see; and, alas! also contrary to all human experiences, the dead appear to be marching with the living.

It would be interesting and instructive to know how many of the 400,000 have had a normal training, either complete or partial; how many have had a collegiate education of any kind; how many have, by self-education, reached the degree of excellence which is represented by a State diploma or certificate; and, last of all, how many persons, wholly unqualified, are preparing to rush in where angels might well fear to tread, to mold the minds and to shape the destinies of tens of thousands of immortals. In the last report of the Bureau of Education there is no information on this subject, probably because it could not be obtained from the States. A letter of inquiry brought back from a number of States the surprising information that there was no way of ascertaining how many untrained teachers were employed during the year; from others came estimates, more or less accurate, and from a few, definite figures. To the question, "What percentage of your teachers began work last fall without training or experience?" twenty of the twenty-eight State superintendents

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who responded, answered in substance, "We have no means of knowing." The estimates made as to the number of untrained teachers ranged from ten to sixty per cent. As a basis for inquiry and discussion we should, first of all, have before us something more definite than approximations and estimates. Cannot the Bureau of Education set some statistical machinery in motion, which would bring to us, from every State and Territory in the Union, the exact facts in regard to the training of teachers?

But while the statistics are far from being complete, there are, in the reports of the Bureau of Education for other years and of State superintendents and commissioners, figures, facts and estimates enough to prove that tens of thousands of young people enter our school-rooms as teachers every year to succeed or to fail by blind experimenting.

In 1889 the senate and assembly of New York passed a resolution asking the State superintendent for statistics concerning the need of additional normal schools in the State. In response to this resolution Superintendent Draper stated that of 31,726 different teachers, employed in the schools of the State of New York, six or seven thousand inexperienced persons began teaching every year. In Kansas, in the year 1892, of 10,868 certificates granted, 3,127 were given to inexperienced persons.

Turning from statistics to the experiences of county examining boards, one is filled with amazement, largely mixed with melancholy, on contemplating the vast tracts of intellectual desolation revealed by the candidates' manuscripts. They were young people who thought themselves thoroughly fitted to take charge of young immortals who told me, on examination in United States history, that John Brown of Ossawattomie—our John Brown—"was in command of the Southern Confederacy;" that the Monroe Doctrine was a "kind of religion;" that Joe Hooker—"fighting Joe"—"composed 'Hail Columbia';" that Bayard Taylor was a "member of Cleveland's cabinet;" that Cotton Mather was "speaker of the Southern Confederacy." Another applicant —dead or married now, let us fervently hope—told the dazed examiner that the Monroe Doctrine was, that "any attempt to colonize this continent would be declared unconstitutional;" that Goodyear—the india-rubber man—"was known among the colonists as the year of good feeling." Do you wonder that the examiner longed for "a lodge in some vast wilderness with boundless contiguity of shade," when other candidates for teachers' certificates told him that, "at Bunker Hill the Federalists at first had the advantage, when suddenly Stonewall Jackson appeared upon the scene and turned their left flank"? As a flanker, Jackson was perhaps unrivaled, but this brilliant movement

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on the forces at Bunker Hill was the greatest flanking feat of his life. They were would-be schoolmasters who told us that Cornwallis "was an American general," and that "the Alabama claims extended from about the forty-eighth parallel to the Gulf west of the Mississippi to the Pacific Ocean." Seeking for the opportunity to train young people for citizenship, for life and its responsibilities, were those other aspirants who told us that, "when letters of marque and reprisal are issued, a letter of marque grants one the right of citizenship, and a letter of reprisal takes it away from him." Would that a letter of reprisal could be given to some schoolmasters! They were prospective teachers—now in the realms of darkness, let us trust—who clouded our cerebrums and caused our *medulla oblongatas* to diverge alarmingly from the perpendicular by telling us, on examination, that "the substance of the preamble to the Constitution is connected in some way with the election of President in case where there is a tie vote;" also, that the preamble to the Constitution was "Patrick Henry's exclamation: 'Give me liberty or give me death!'" that "treason is hypocrisy and contempt," and that "the difference between a republican and monarchical form of government is that a republican form of government is one that has a president to *set* at the head of the nation to inform the laws the people have made; it is not binding on any individual; everything goes on in harmony, love and peace. But it is not so in a monarchy government; the laws are binding."

These answers, culled from the manuscripts of candidates for teachers' certificates, have been copied with religious care. They are but few of many such answers which came under my observation during a twelve years' experience in examining the papers of candidates. The answers are not peculiar to our State, for they can readily be duplicated by every other local examining board in the Union. It would be most unjust to say that these answers represent the intellectual condition of a majority of those who aspire to be teachers. But they do represent a large number of young perons who seek to enter, and—"pity 'tis, 'tis true"—do, in too many instances, enter the sacred portals of our schoolhouses as teachers. That means for professional training are needed abundantly, and needed now, must be apparent even to the wayfaring man; much more is it evident to those of us who are brought, every year, face to face with the conditions. Could we, by some divine process of sifting, reduce our army as Gideon did his, eliminating the faint-hearted and the weak, what could be done? What could not be done with a small compact Gideon's band of thoroughly equipped teachers in conquering the principalities and powers of ignorance! But *our* army must be more than 300; must not be less than 400,000. The divine power of sifting, by water-lapping and other tests, is not ours. Behind every desk there must be placed a teacher

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of some sort, and the question of questions before us to-day is how, by the means of normal institutes, summer schools, university extensions, books and educational journals we can give the tens of thousands in our army, who, educationally and scripturally speaking, are wretched and miserable and poor and blind and naked, some degree of fitness for the great work they are proposing to do. The normal schools are utterly inadequate to supply the demand, and, were they adequate, trained teachers can hardly be expected to barter professional skill and divine gifts for precariousness of tenure, thirty dollars a month and boarding around. Therefore, while we are praying and hoping, and above all, working, for a sufficient number of normal schools to furnish qualified teachers to all the schools in the land, our duty now is to meet the needs of the hour with such materials and appliances as are at hand.

Philosophers sitting "apart on a hill retired," far above the "madding crowd," and all unconscious of the conditions which prevail below, will theorize, and possibly—though one hopes not—may, in this convention, urge that no one, who is not normally trained, who is not able to measure the height and the depth and the width of the German philosophies, should be suffered for an instant to teach in a public school. But while philosophers are theorizing, *we* must fill these 400,000 aching voids with material of some kind. If a brother or sister be destitute it will do little good to say, "Depart in peace; be ye warmed and filled;" when we do not give them those things which are needful.

In the absence of the normal school, the college, the university, these thousands of callow and crude recruits can, if they remain in the work long enough, be fitted for excellent service.

The reading circle movement has done, and is doing, a vast deal of good, in giving direction to the reading of untrained and partially trained teachers. In Illinois the membership in the teachers' reading circle last year was 7,500; in Iowa, 11,000; in Indiana, 11,295, and from a number of other States figures equally cheering and eloquent can be produced.

The circle regulations insure that each member shall study at least two books during the school year. This is much, but it is far from enough. In an excellent paper read recently by Supt. W. S. Picken of Iola, at one of our Kansas educational meetings, he advised that university extension be substituted for the reading circle, and that it be made a part of the county teachers' association work. This is a suggestion worthy to be pondered. The extension work, including a course in pedagogy, would place the teacher in line with the university; would periodically bring him in contact with the university professor; would place before him in the form of a degree an objective

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point worth reaching, and would in every way broaden his intellectual horizon and eliminate from his system that crudeness and provincialism which doth so easily beset the teacher who does his work amid the solitudes.

But whatever system may be adopted, extension or circle, there is needed more than aught else a divine sagacity in laying down a course of professional reading for untrained teachers. Thousands of those whom we seek to reach are in the alphabet stage of the profession, and stand helpless as babes before the profound treatises which are thrust before them by well-meaning but misguided persons. For instance, in a meditative and prayerful manner, note these extracts from a book which certain philosophers, of the mystic school, we judge, strongly recommend young teachers to study: "The feeling of a total, as not A, (A being the subject), but B is the feeling of B as an object. There is here a distinctly emergent duality, and we have Sensation in full operation. This sensation involves a *feeling* of diversity (of diverse many totals), and the particular object specifically felt is that object (B) which at the moment most vividly impresses the conscious subject; and B will remain as the object in the field of sensation until exhaustion takes place, or until C or D or E has pushed it out and occupied the field of consciousness for itself in turn. How long the object B may hold the conscious subject in its grip depends on the extent to which it interests the particular consciousness in whose presence it is. The point of special significance here is that sensation is still feeling in a higher form of reflex activity, that it is *the object which holds the subject*, and that it is successive objects which move it hither and thither. The Subject is subject (in the popular meaning of the word) to the Object. We may now, but only now, talk of Sensation as a phenomenon of consciousness, and we call that which is sensed the senate."

Yes, and it may be remarked parenthetically we might also call it the senseless to lay down such sentences before teachers who can hardly define psychology.

But again, with emotions which are speakable, but which must be rigorously suppressed, I ask you to mark, learn well, and, if you can, inwardly digest this: "The sensed-total there-being (B) is sensed as a total. This is the sensate. Future experience tells us much more about it. (For this let unceasing thanks be given.) We afterwards find that this total is a confused chaos of particulars, which we call its quantities and relations."

Even philosophers run their heads occasionally against a solemn fact. For that is precisely what these quoted abstrusities are to many a seeker after educational truth, "a confused chaos of particulars."

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"But in the meantime," says our author, "we have to be content with the total as a total." For this concession let grateful songs arise.

Let it not be understood that the foregoing extracts are thrust before you in any spirit of levity. Far otherwise. One stands—or sits—before these profundities with reverential awe. In the Convent La Rabida at the World's Fair, visitors were requested to remove their hats in the presence of a certain ancient writing, and it was observed by curious onlookers that many absent-minded people and others, in whom the bump of reverence was abnormally developed, did make profound obeisances in front of the venerable relic. So we—but time is passing, and we must hurry on.

Thousands of the young untutored people who will begin work in the public schools this year have in them the germs of growth, and need only wise guidance to become workers who need not to be ashamed. Deeply conscious of their crude and callow condition, hungering and thirsting after knowledge, they come to educational philosophers earnestly inquiring, "What lack I yet?" and often enough receive for answer, "the sense-total," "proximate universals," and "attuitional consciousness." They ask for bread and are given a stone; for fish, and receive serpents and scorpions; or, what is worse than these, "words of learned length and thundering sound."

At this point one feels moved to inquire: why it is that the smaller the child under discussion in certain books and papers is, the larger are the words used concerning him? As it is manifestly impossible for one to step out of the ranks and look at himself, it is difficult for an editor to discuss educational journals as a means of growth in professional grace.

Educational journals should be, primarily, not for the college professors, high school principals or superintendents, but for the masses of the teachers. It is not the righteous, but the sinner, we wish to call to repentance. The professors can care for themselves. The chief concern of the educational editor should be to rescue the perishing, revive the dry bones, awaken the dead, inspire the living to step to higher things. From these purposes the editor will not suffer himself to be diverted one moment by the clamors and even shrieks which come to him from people who think that an educational journal's chief end is to furnish cunningly devised lessons, patent methods, and hand-me-down recitations.

The educational editor will give in scriptural measure space to the institute, the association, the reading circle, and to all other agencies and means whereby the teacher's growth toward excellence can be promoted. He will, in season and out of season, with such skill and vigor as may have been given to him from on high, advocate legislation which shall raise the standard of qualifications for teachers;

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which shall broaden and deepen the sources from which school revenues flow, so that wages worthy of skilled work may be possible. The journal which is to be a factor in the training of teachers will class among rejected manuscripts all psychological dissertations, philosophical profundities, and all irrelevancies which in any way resemble the address now being hurled at this forbearing audience. The educational editor who desires to reach the great untrained will not appall the young seeker after truth on the very threshold of inquiry by a discussion of such fearful and marvelous subjects as that which astonished the earth and reverberated through the heavens at the Saratoga meeting, namely, "The Failure of Scientific Pessimism to Establish Cosmic Suicide as an Adequate Solution of the World Drama." In all his editing the wise educational journalist will ever keep conspicuously before him this fact: that one truth which shall be in the teacher's heart as a fountain of living waters springing up into everlasting life is worth more as an inspiring force in the school-room than all the devices and machine-made methods in the universe. With which remark we now gladly leave the editor to work out his own salvation.

So with summer schools, books and educational journals, we may take these raw recruits, and after a few years may be able to lead them up even to the sublime summits of the "sensed-total," the "proximate universals," and the consciousness which is "attuitional."

But after all this work is accomplished, behold and alas! the periodical disbursement arrives, and our graduates, just as the point of fitness for service was reached, depart one to his farm, another to his merchandise, and henceforth are as completely lost to us and to the schools as the lost tribes of the house of Israel. For, in what we are pleased to call "the profession," the teacher is but as a bird of passage. Here he hath no continuing city. Let these facts and figures, from our own country in the West, be carefully and prayerfully noted. In the rural schools of Shawnee Co., Kansas, during the twelve years from 1876-1877 to 1888-1889, there were employed in the public schools 563 different persons, and the average number of teachers needed was but about ninety. Making allowances for deaths, marriages and other accidents, it will be safe to say that 125 different persons should have been more than enough to do the work. As to the loss to the profession by marriage, it has been and will continue to be what scientific men call "a constant." As a flower of the field the young lady flourisheth in the school-room, then the hour and the man arrive, and she is lost to us forever. 'Twas ever thus since Eve and Adam wended their solitary way from Eden; and it will continue to be thus long after our souls are beyond the reach of the varying and

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variable factors of this problem, and we may as well at once place ourselves in harmony with Mother Nature's inexorable decrees.

But notwithstanding this constant rush from our school-rooms to the Elysian fields of matrimony, we should be able to hold in the profession the men, and the widows, and the young women who are not ambitious to support men.

In all our discussions and animadversions, has the thought ever entered our cerebrums that when the people pay for a profession it will come and stay? We, here and elsewhere, call vociferously for trained teachers possessing all the cardinal virtues and the Christian graces, the German philosophies, the wisdom of Socrates, the inspiring power of Arnold and Mann; and we offer, with much flourish of trumpets, precariousness of tenure, shortness of terms, meagerness of pay.

But after all, brethren and sisters, the practical results we obtain from these exceedingly imperfect means are marvelous, and are not equaled in any other country on this planet. The German philosopher and critic stands appalled as he observes our crude battalions and their unscientific movements. But has our German brother ever considered the conditions? Not since the morning stars sang together have such conditions confronted any people. Gideon had Midianites to meet; Germany has to educate chiefly Germans; France, French; Norway, Norwegians; England, English; but *we* are called upon to educate the children of every kindred and tongue and nation and people. There pour in at every port every year mighty rivers of human beings—Italians and Irish; French and Finns; Germans and Greeks; Spaniards and Swedes; Danes and Dutch; Hungarians and Swiss; Austrians and Russians. It has been a question—yea, it is now a question—whether the assimilative powers of the Republic are equal to the work to be done or not. Certain it is, that without the aid of the public school the assimilation of these diverse and often antagonistic elements is impossible. The phenomenal increase in our population; the sudden springing up of villages, hamlets, towns and cities in the forests and on the plains, have forced us to go out into the byways and hedges, and to draft into the public school service every attainable man, woman, boy and girl. It must, therefore, be apparent to the wayfaring man, be he fool or philosopher, that temporary drilling agencies—summer schools, reading circles, educational publications—are, and must be for many years, an outcome of the conditions.

During the most serious part of the Franco-German war Sheridan accompanied the German commanders to observe the movements of the contending armies. Will lecturers, philosophers, magazine-writers, and all others whom it may concern, note in a prayerful and

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meditative manner this from Sheridan: "It must be borne in mind," said he, "that campaigning in France—that is, the marching, camping and subsisting of an army—is an easy matter, very unlike anything we had during the War of the Rebellion. The country is rich, subsistence abundant, the roads all macadamized highways. Thus the conditions are altogether different from those existing with us. I think that under the same circumstances our troops would have done as well as the Germans, marched as admirably, made combinations as quickly and accurately, and fought with as much success. I can but leave to conjecture how the Germans would have got along on bottomless roads—often none at all—through the swamps and quicksands of northern Virginia, from the Wilderness to Petersburg, and from Chattanooga to Atlanta and the sea."

In the language of Capt. Jack Bunsby, "The bearings of this observation lies in the application on it." The German educational machinery, concerning which we hear so much, would be as poorly adapted to the work which confronts us as was Locke and Shaftesbury's "Grand Model of Government" to the colonial conditions in the Carolinas.

DISCUSSION.

DR. R. G. BOONE, President of the Michigan State Normal School, Ypsilanti, Mich., in discussing the subject, said: It has occurred to me, that in these ten minutes I might better make a kind of comparison of the four agencies for the preparation of teachers as they seem to me to be able to render their respective services. They all have their value; I think, indeed, each one might be put first in a list. I mean by that, that the normal school has its advantages and its points of superiority over the other three. I think the college professorship, the college department of pedagogy, has its advantages. The summer normal school, as just described by Dr. White, has elements of real strength. Moreover, the school journal, educational papers and periodicals for the teacher have some real virtues. Just a moment or two, then, with a reference to each.

Let me start with the school journal. The usefulness of the educational paper, in its suggestiveness, for younger teachers, seems to me greatly in its favor. I do not know that its methods are always the best; I think rather the opposite. I do not know that there is always sound doctrine in it; there is sometimes just the reverse. There seems to be little continuity in the articles of most educational magazines or journals; no well defined course or sequence. The teachers are not drawn to any line of study. But there is an abundant suggestiveness, and therein lies the strength of the educational publication. It is healthful to the young teacher who has seen little of the world, who has attended few associations, who has had little opportunity for wide reading, who has not gone to school; that is, had no opportunity in the way of association with liberally educated teachers of the college or normal school. It is the suggestiveness in pointing out to these young teachers

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the experiments and experience of others, through these journals, of which, perhaps, they would never know otherwise.

On the other hand, the influence of the normal school, because of its intensely professional character, the considering of professional studies, and the professional interpretation of all questions that come up, is wholesome. Whether pupils study science or education, or psychology, or history; or whether they go into the practice school as observers of work; or make a review of what we call the common branches; or whether they study the higher branches; it is still held before the young teachers, that they are doing this in order to understand the science of teaching. They study algebra, not as algebra, but that they may understand how it may be used as an instrument of culture for the pupil. In every true normal school there comes to be a professional atmosphere, everything being interpreted in terms of the learning act.

Then consider the college department of pedagogy. One here gains an insight into educational problems, needs and conditions not to be had elsewhere. There is a certain largeness of view, and a knowledge of related subjects which is greatly helpful. An insight is gathered into educational conditions and forces of the past, in the light of other factors and civilizations,—that is, we look at the school as one aspect of social growth. We have come to make a study of the State and of the Church as factors in the development; the life of the various peoples from the earliest times, as in industry, commerce, society and law. So we come to look at the school, not simply as *an* institution, but as one institution, and there is developed a largeness of view that is wholesome. It is not only with reference to history; it is equally true of science, that one's view is extended. And so, when one comes to look at the school, the teaching of the children, their school work, recitations, text-books, and courses of study, in a large sense, it appears that these are simply a few of the great tendencies that are making for culture. Let me stop here to say, that I think one of the dangers incident to all this discussion of professional study is in the undue emphasis we are inclined to put upon what we call method. There is no virtue in this method, except it further the processes of learning and growth. We may too greatly magnify the ways of our doing. There is nothing that so greatly improves one's insight into professional devices as a large, generous, liberal, far-sighted, long-continued education.

There is a certain spontaneity, a certain freedom, a certain enthusiasm, which teachers get in the summer schools, which the teacher is not likely to receive in the normal school, partly because there is more formality here, and so more conventional limitations and restraints.

So, it seems to me, we need to keep before us the advantages of the summer school. These school journals have their place and are valuable; as have the other agencies that have been mentioned, but let us not forget, that, in addition to this liberal culture, this large, generous training which has been referred to, we need, as teachers, to pursue for ourselves such plan as will give solidity of character, that we may instill in the minds of pupils, correct aims, right habits, worthy motives. Education, with all its methods, cannot succeed, if it does not build up right character. That education or preparation of the teacher is best which touches this side of culture. It must be deemed of more importance than all the so-called professional methods.

Dr. Thomas B. Stowell. Principal of the State Normal and Training School, Potsdam, N. Y.—In determining a course of training for teachers much will depend upon the conception of the end or aim of school life, much upon the conception of the working of the mind, and much upon what results may be reasonably expected from a course of training.

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The end or purpose of academic training is defined variously, according to the point of observation, whether regarded as utilitarian or cultural. It is not a matter of surprise that the Committee on Secondary School Studies, appointed by the National Educational Association in 1892, and known as the Committee of Ten, should answer Question VII. in the negative, and recommend, that "every subject which is taught at all in a secondary school should be taught in the same way and to the same extent to every pupil so long as he pursues it, no matter what the probable destination of the pupil may be, or at what point his education is to cease," whether he is fitting for college or the scientific school, or whether he will presumably attend neither; for these gentlemen by profession belong to the cultural school, have the cultural bias, and their judgments cannot be other than influenced in the direction plainly indicated.

Another presentation of the aim or final course of school life might be somewhat as follows: to effect accuracy, quickness and versatility in judgment.

Accuracy must depend in large measure upon the content of the concept, the clearness and definiteness of its elements. Quickness in decision is in a large degree a matter of heredity, and yet every teacher knows something of the value of training along this line. Versatility, or ability to bring all related knowledge to bear at once upon a given problem, is one of the characteristics of genius; and still I am persuaded that much can be effected in the school-room to secure this habit of mind. Without attempting a discussion of the means to be employed to secure the three ends or qualities named, it is evident that the training of the teacher must have these activities in view.

The final cause of education may be said to be the development of character; by which expression reference is generally had to ethical, rather than to intellectual, training. With this end in view, the training of the teacher should consider the conditions which cultivate or give guidance to the emotional life.

These four elements in education may be combined in varying proportions, with varying prominence to any one of the four; the cultural, the practical or utilitarian, the ethical, and the æsthetic elements.

PRINCIPLES ASSUMED.

I. The unity of the self or soul.

II. The transmission and the inheritance of psychic traits.

III. The constancy of the totality of self-energy. The total energy of the self is constant.

IV. Potentiality of innate energy. The relation of the potency and the kinesis is variable. The amount of energy at command at a given time is limited.

V. The end or final cause of training or discipline or experience is to render the potency of the self kinetic; to make the potential actual.

VI. The automaticity of the self; or the response of the self to stimuli.

VII. The acquisition of conditions, both physical and psychical, which conserve energy, subjective and objective, and which insure a strong tendency toward a certainty of conduct, namely, habit.

VIII. The possible acquirement of such conditions of soul or self as will incite to a given conduct, namely, tastes. These tastes are the effect or the concomitant of habit, and in turn create habit.

These principles I take to be primal or fundamental in all educational effort.

COROLLARIES.

I. The pupil can be prepared for the lesson.

II. The pupil can be adjusted to the task set or the end sought; that is, subject-matter may be so selected, arranged, and presented as to induce in the pupil the activity or the conditions desired.

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THE ADJUSTMENT OF THE SOUL TO THE SUBJECT-MATTER.

In the adjustment of the self to the subject-matter, the pupil not only perceives —an act which is purely automatic and has no special disciplinary value, beyond increased readiness of response to stimuli—but he compares, judges, reasons, or "thinks," as is commonly said.

The care to be taken by the teacher is to guard against giving a name to a process or result before it is certain that the process or result has clearly taken place in the pupil's mind; otherwise he is misled or misdirected, and forms a concept quite foreign to what would have been formed had his own processes been permitted to occur in their normal order.

By this systematic adjustment of the pupil there is formed in him a habit of self-adjustment, whereby he recognizes a familiar or natural way of addressing himself to a given task. When the habit is acquired he is said to be a logical and systematic investigator, and he works correctly and with dispatch. Such a mind is disciplined, and yet it is well to note that the training simply took advantage of the child's automaticity.

To prevent the introduction of foreign matter into the concept—to render it exclusive, as well as inclusive—requires the most careful foresight and the keenest sensibility on the part of the teacher; for in spite of precautionary measures the pupil will incorporate percepts not yet apperceptive, and will give to these meanings which are irrelevant and which in turn invalidate the concepts into which they enter. It is for this reason that the teacher must be sensitively alert to every tendency to wrong activity on the part of the pupil. This becomes an essential factor in the training of teachers, to which I shall presently revert.

Because of the necessity of regarding wholes before parts, the first forms of the child are vague, indefinite, irrelevant. To resolve these wholes into parts, or groups of proper content and relation, requires (a) critical knowledge of the matter to be presented, the possibilities of subdivision and regrouping, and (b) critical knowledge or discernment of the practical condition of the pupil, so that his adjustment to the part or group (simple or complex) shall be readily and economically effected. The extent to which this analysis can be carried is determined by many conditions, as, the future use to be made, the maturity of the pupil's mind, *i. e.*, the scope or content of his concept, the clearness with which he holds concepts, etc. In the so-called preparation of the lesson this is one of the most difficult ends to be secured.

For such adjusting or relating of the self to the subject-matter as will insure the desired form or condition, the teacher must (a) understand the order of dependence of the various phases of psychic activity, and (b) he must discriminate in his selection of material for illustration and demonstration, having reference to the age, maturity and personality of the pupil. He must ascertain that the pupil's knowledge is true in essence and correct in form.

Defective or erroneous or partial percepts are chief sources of error in the school-room. The order to proceed from the familiar or known to the new or unknown is fundamental.

I see but one answer to the inquiry as to the cause of the deplorable results of school life. I can put the responsibility in only one place, viz., upon the teacher.

There may be causes or conditions explanatory or apologetic for the teacher's failure, but the failure is not the less real.

THE SELECTION OF MATTER.

The selection of matter or stimuli should regard:

1. The inherited status; or innate capacity of the child.
2. His future needs; should be in some degree utilitarian.

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3. The stage of advancement; or the experiences of the child, beginning with the familiar.

4. The maturity of the child; or be considerate in some measure of his years and environment.

5. The tastes of the child.

THE ARRANGEMENT OF MATTER.

The arrangement or the system should have regard to the degree of progress: the rate at which the student can work, his grasp of matter, the readiness and the correctness with which he generalizes, *i. e.*, the scope of his thought.

THE PRESENTATION OF MATTER.

The presentation must be such as to call forth the largest activity on the part of the pupil, holding clearly in mind the principle that all education must be individual.

It must regard susceptibility of the sensorium to stimuli. The pupil may require repeated illustration to effect a *summation of stimuli* before the self will respond.

The trainer of teachers must unremittingly demand certain intellectual qualifications and effect their development, among which I mention two: First, scholarship (which will be readily conceded), familiarity with subject-matter, with analysis and synthesis of elements involved, so that the teacher's energy may be concentrated upon the work of the pupil. Second, a condition which seems to the writer to be primal, viz., vividness of imagination, powers of visualization, seeing distinctly the end to be attained. In proportion to the possession of this ability is the teacher's work consecutive, unified, and his energies conserved; in proportion to its absence is his work disconnected and detached.

The training of the teacher must regard this end. It is my conviction that much may be gained in this direction by retrospection. At the close of each recitation, or of each day, the teacher in training should be directed in retracing the work of the recitation and in analyzing the conditions which produced prompt and accurate results and those which failed in securing this end. He who can picture vividly to himself the route by which he traveled and can put guide-boards at each turn or digression from the direct road will not be long in attaining the mastery of the art of teaching.

The power of the teacher to effect moral tone in the school depends primarily upon vividness of imagination, power of visualization; for if I err not, sympathy is the essence of moral power.

This power of visualization is indispensable for discovering the relation of any given matter to the kind of activity sought. The teacher must see how a given illustration or exercise will relate the mind of the pupil to the truth desired.

Vividness of imagination will enable the teacher to hold a principle or central truth clearly before the pupil until the principle shall become a central bond uniting and relating all cognate truths.

As a summary of the discussion so far there should be for training of teachers:

I. Knowledge of subject-matter, to the end that this may be used readily as a machine or instrument.

II. Knowledge of the forms of psychic activity and their order of dependence.

III. Knowledge of the means by which the self can be related to matter.

IV. Knowledge of the educational values of studies for adjusting the self to matter.

To which may be added:

V. Observation of model lessons.

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MODEL LESSONS FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL STUDY.

Early in the professional study model lessons should be given before the classes, whose attention should be directed to the workings of the children's minds in the reception of the lesson, and these observation lessons should be the foundation of the study of psychology, in order to familiarize the teacher in training with the study of mind rather than with the study of books.

OBSERVATION WORK BY TEACHERS IN TRAINING.

Since teaching is an art as well as a science, at first the teacher in training can learn more by observation than by study of abstract principles. The teacher in training should first observe model lessons given by the method teacher, and additional lessons given by associate pupil-teachers of larger experience. The fact of the faultlessness of a lesson given by a model teacher is often a source of discouragement to the teacher in training, which discouragement is removed by observing the work done equally well by an associate or classmate.

A considerable amount of such observation should be required before the teacher in training is permitted to have charge of a class, the amount varying from two to five weeks, according to proficiency. Whenever the "system" and the "mode" of the teacher observed are comprehended, so that a clear and accurate account of the procedure and of the results attained can be given, especially how backward pupils were brought to see the point of the lesson, the teacher in training may with profit be put in charge of a class; but *observation work should extend through the entire year.*

SIZE OF PRACTICE CLASSES.

From a somewhat extended experience in normal school work I am convinced that the classes at the beginning should be small enough to require only a minimum of the teacher's energy in maintaining order and in awakening interest,—perhaps eight to sixteen pupils in a class. This permits the teacher to give the maximum attention to the study of the mental condition of his pupils and to the effect of his "mode" in leading them to the end sought. The personality of the pupils is thus kept prominently before the teacher. When he has acquired ability to give a clear account of the condition of each member of his class—which on the average will require ten weeks of teaching, five periods per week—the teacher in training may be put in charge of a more difficult grade, or a larger class. It is a matter of serious question in my minl whether much advantage is gained by having more than twenty pupils in a class taught by a teacher in training.

When the ability to follow a subject accurately and systematically has been acquired, so that a degree of certainty has been gained in the sequence of questioning, etc., the teacher in training may be asked to assume the more difficult task of discipline and teaching at the same time. But this is practically after graduation.

CRITICISM.

Criticism upon the work should be given daily by heads of departments of instruction and methods, who teach subject-matter and methods and who criticize in the same subject. This work has unity, and the teacher in training can see the correspondence of theory and practice.

In view of the importance of training teachers; in view of the practicability of the work; in view of the results of training, is it not time that the National Educational Association take formal action to effect greater uniformity in the training of teachers, to the end that greater efficiency may be secured and that the status of the profession may be more clearly defined and understood; looking ultimately to

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a national standard of training, which shall have a legal status throughout the Union.

D. B. JOHNSON, President of the Teachers' Training School, Columbia, South Carolina, said: It is to the discredit of human intelligence that one of the most delicate, difficult and important vocations should be one of the last for which special training should be demanded. This can only be explained upon the ground that injury to the body and to the pocket is more readily and surely felt than injury to the mind and spirit. But it is cause for rejoicing that very generally the teaching vocation is advancing in the estimation of the public, and is approaching, though yet afar off, its true place in rank and dignity with the other professions. This is due in great measure to the improvement in professional skill and spirit, resulting from the good work of the many agencies now in operation for the training of teachers. I hope to see the day when no one will be allowed to teach either a public or a private school without a license from the State showing him to be qualified, as is now the case with lawyers and physicians. This would make teaching a profession in fact.

The provision now made for teacher-training is properly grouped under two heads:

1. The training of those already teaching.
2. The training of future teachers.

Though a normal school man, I cannot shut my eyes to the very great importance of the first of these provisions. There are about 275 normal schools in the United States, and they send out annually over 4,300 graduates. There are more than 400,000 teachers in this country. Estimating the number of new teachers going into the schools each year at twenty per cent of the whole number of teachers, which was ascertained to be the rate of annual change in one of our great States, we find that more than 80,000 persons begin the work of teaching each year in the United States. Of this number, since there are about 4,300 normal school graduates annually, over 75,700 do not receive any special preparation. The great and pressing need of training for teachers in the field is thus clearly seen.

One of the most important of these provisions is the summer school, and very close to it is the institute; when properly conducted, a method of normal school extension.

With Chancellor Payne of the Peabody Normal College, I believe that the institute, and for that matter also the summer school, when properly conducted, will have for its aim, so far as the teachers are concerned:

1 A wholesome preparation of the soil, through a healthful stimulation of the emotional nature; the awakening to a knowledge of need and the arousing of a desire to know.

2. The giving of a clear and vivid conception of what it is really to teach and to educate—a sure route to method; for to know the end is almost to know the way, and to feel a strong desire to reach the end is practically to find the way.

3. Method as applied to instruction and government.

4. Instruction in subject-matter.

The normal school needs and desires, in most cases, I presume, to get away from academic work and to confine itself to strictly professional work. In order to do this it must receive students well prepared in scholarship.

It may be that in North Carolina we are favored in the material for our female teachers. As a result of the war there occurred in the South one of the greatest social revolutions of modern times. Women from homes of wealth, refinement and culture have been brought to the necessity of self-support, by loss of fathers,

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brothers, supporters, and we have, in consequence, as teachers and prospective teachers, the brightest and the best.

With adequate professional training rigidly enforced, compensation would be increased, dignity and permanency of position could be secured, child life would be relieved of the baneful influences of ignorance and incompetency in the schoolroom, the best talent would be attracted to the profession, and all the vexing school problems would be satisfactorily solved.

IMPROVEMENT OF CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

BY HENRY P. EMERSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BUFFALO, N. Y.

The question of school administration in large cities is a comparatively new question, and grows out of two causes; the rapid expansion of population, and the recent advance in the aim and proper methods of education. When the population of our cities was smaller and less complex, and an intelligent, active public opinion was vigilant in behalf of school interests, a very simple school organization was adequate to provide the fundamentals of an education. But a more complex condition, the growth of our cities by the addition of thousands of foreigners coming from countries where the public school idea has not taken deep root, as it had with our earlier emigrants from Germany, the increasing proportion of people who are unacquainted with our institutions and traditions and have no feeling of attachment to them; all this has brought new problems, not only relating to the proper maintenance of our public schools, but to every department of municipal government. More and more has been demanded of the schools, and yet, at the same time, new difficulties in school management have been constantly present. So long as the task set before the public schools was to get the pupil through such and such books, and the chief duty of the teachers was to see that the pupils got their lessons, almost any teacher could do it and the simplest machinery was sufficient.

Perhaps concrete examples are better than abstract principles in getting at a subject like the one we are considering. At any rate, I shall draw some illustrations from the educational history of my own city. You have all heard of the Buffalo system, but I have never happened to meet a man outside the city who understood it. Mark Twain once made a war-map which he submitted to Generals Grant and Sherman for their criticism. The humorist was much pleased with the commendation of General Grant, who said: "I never saw anything like it!" And General Sherman exclaimed: "It is fearfully

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and wonderfully made!" I suppose that many are ready to bestow the same kind of commendation upon the Buffalo system.

Buffalo was organized as a city in 1832. At that time there were six schools at which tuition was partly free. These schools were open but a few months of the year, the lowest possible price was paid for teachers, and not half of the children of the city attended any school at that time. In the year 1837, after much agitation and many public meetings, the schools were reorganized and the office of superintendent of schools created. This new officer was appointed by the common council. A committee of the common council took the place of a board of education. This system worked fairly well under the conditions then existing. The schools, from 1837 to 1854, were, I judge, better than those of most other cities at that time. During this period the rate bill, or tuition system, was abolished, and schooling made free earlier than in any other city in the State. Buffalo was also one of the first cities in the country to employ a superintendent of schools, and it is not strange when we consider the prevailing ideas of those days that the duty of electing a superintendent, like other school affairs, should have devolved upon the common council. This body was made up of the best people, the representative men of the city. The superintendent's term of office was two years, and as a rule the common council chose one of the school principals for the office, or some other citizen who was known to be interested in education. The men who took the lead in public affairs in that day of small things were intelligent, enterprising and energetic, and they chose superintendents of the same character. We must remember, also, if we would do justice to the Buffalo of 1837, that the idea of close supervision of educational work was then undeveloped. There was scarcely a normal school in the country. To teach children how to read, write and cipher was the end of education. Few cities had any system of exact grading or promotion or graduation, or any free high school. Long after that period the common schools of the entire State of New York were superintended by a deputy in the office of the Secretary of State. These hard-headed pioneers of Buffalo doubtless thought that they were in the van of progress in providing for supervision by a central authority, instead of allowing each school district to manage its own affairs, as many cities were then doing. The superintendent was clothed with great power, and it seemed to them that they were accomplishing at one bound what cities like Philadelphia have since been doing by degrees.

This system existed for seventeen years, or until 1854, without material change. Buffalo, as I have said, was reputed in those days to have the best public schools in the State, and so they continued to be, while large-minded men of integrity and enterprise and public

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spirit were influential in civic affairs. But it could not be expected, as the city grew in size and the government complex, so that the people could not understand its inner workings, that a superintendent who had been elected by aldermen, who were themselves looking for re-election, would furnish a model of independent action, especially in the matter of appointing teachers. Abuses of the appointing power became more frequent, and finally a public scandal resulted from the alleged selling of appointments by the superintendent, and as a result the office was made elective by the people. This action would seem to most of us like jumping from the frying-pan into the fire; though really it is not more incongruous than nominating the State superintendent of New York in a party caucus, or electing a State superintendent by popular vote, as is done in some States.

The system lasted without farther modification for thirty-eight years, or from 1854 to 1892. There was a superintendent elected by popular vote for a term of two years. Each of the leading parties nominated a candidate in its city convention; generally, as before, one of the school principals. Some of these were men of ability, integrity and organizing power. But the idea of rotation in office seems unfortunately to have been generally accepted, as it was rare until recent years for a superintendent to be re-elected. The superintendent had power to appoint and dismiss teachers and to recommend to the common council such measures, both educational and material, as he deemed to be best for the schools. The only really good feature about the system was the superintendent's absolute power of appointment and dismissal, and the good effects of this feature were largely destroyed by the manner of his own election.

The evils of such a system, and I speak from an observation extending through twenty years, were these: (1) With the absolute power of appointment in the hands of an elective officer, the temptation to favoritism was greater than most men could resist. (2) The superintendent was loaded down with responsibilities, growing out of the business affairs of the schools. It was not possible to repair a furnace or mend a lock without an order from the superintendent. This demand on his time made any real supervision of the educational work of the city impossible. (3) School legislation was intrusted to the common council whose members were not elected for that purpose, and who, as the city expanded, were almost certain to make school matters mere make-weights in realizing their larger political ambitions. Thus a system which worked well enough in a small city and under favorable conditions, showed its vicious possibilities as the city increased in size. It brought forth its worst fruit during the last ten years of its existence. It was a time of marvelous growth and material prosperity in Buffalo. The population during the decade from 1880

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to 1890 rose from 155,000 to 255,000, an average yearly increase of 10,000 for ten years. People were busy in getting gain, and hardly realized that there was forming a compact political organization which used the name of one party while honeycombing the other with its mercenary influence. This organization,—this ring, if you please,—embracing voters of both parties, yet gradually arousing the alarm of the patriotic people in both, got its tentacles around the school system. Thoughtful people knew that things were going wrong; many protested, while many dropped into the indifference and inactivity of despair. Nearly every winter saw an effort made to get needed changes from the legislature, but to no purpose. Finally there came a non-partisan effort to get an entirely new charter. A commission was appointed by the mayor for this purpose. When the school department was reached in framing the new charter, a wide difference of opinion became manifest, some advocating a full appointive board and some no change at all. The friends of radical reform, believing that the opposition to a board of education was strong enough to defeat the whole charter, including needed reforms in other departments, and feeling that half a loaf were better than no bread, consented to the following compromise: The superintendency, with a term of three years, was continued as an elective office, most of the purely business matters were transferred to a newly created board of public works, and as the feature of an elective superintendent was deemed to be dangerous and mischievous, chiefly because coupled with the absolute power of appointment, a board of school examiners was provided for, consisting of five members, to be appointed by the mayor for a term of five years. Their chief duty was to examine and certify to the qualifications of candidates. This, of course, is not the ideal system, but it was a most beneficial change. The mayor appointed to this board four men and one woman. They were in sympathy with reform and understood the damage which had already been done. There was an instant change from dark-lantern methods of appointment to open and honest competition. It is believed that this reform will accomplish much, besides correcting abuses in the appointment of teachers: (1) By gradually familiarizing the people with a board, against which in the abstract there has been a most unaccountable prejudice; (2) by removing temptation from the superintendent; cutting his claws, so to speak; making the office less attractive to a politician and more attractive to an educator; and (3) by destroying the chief motive which had led politicians in the past to oppose beneficial changes; in short, the system is defensible on the same ground that power to get any necessary compromise, any half way measure, is defensible: it will in time prepare the way for something better.

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At present, then, this is the system in Buffalo. Business matters are attended to by the board of public works, under the direction of the common council. The superintendent is elected by the people for three years, and has more power while in office than any other superintendent in the United States. He appoints teachers from a list of qualified candidates furnished by the board of school examiners. He has power to dismiss teachers and exercises that power. He is the head of a great city department. He makes out annually a detailed estimate of expenditures to be submitted to the comptroller, and then by him to the common council. I have never yet had a figure changed, nor has a measure which I advocated been refused, though some radical changes have been made. How long this happy state of affairs will continue time alone will tell. That there are possibilities for good in this unique system is evidenced by the fact, that during the past year and a half the free book system has been adopted, an entirely new course of study prepared and put in operation, a lot of antiquated text-books discarded, the special departments of music and drawing reorganized, the position of supervisor of primary grades created, and a person appointed who has put new life and new ideas into the work. Regular grade meetings have been instituted for the first time a woman teachers' association, numbering over 200, has maintained the best course of lectures on elementary science ever given in the city. The principles have formed an organization for the promotion of educational interests, and the night schools, which were a disgrace to the city, have been reorganized.

The weak point in this system is the uncertainty of tenure on the part of superintendent, and all talk about keeping the schools near the people is the merest sophistry in the face of this glaring defect. As long as there is an aroused public interest, an administration is safe; but there will always be danger, that, in some political upheaval, the schools will be lost sight of and a man elected who will undo whatever others may have done in the way of progress.

As to the ideal system, it seems to me it would be something like this: A small board, of say seven or nine members, appointed, or elected at large instead of by school districts or by wards, for long terms, say five to seven years. They should have power to employ a superintendent of schools, to attend to the educational needs of the city, and a superintendent of buildings, to attend to the matter of buildings and repairs. The superintendent should have the appointment of teachers and of supervisors. No attempt should be made to keep the board bi-partisan or politically equal. If the appointing power is vested in a man who really wishes to act for the good of the schools, men will be appointed who will be above politics. If,

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however, any unworthy scheme is to be carried out, men can be found in one party, as well as in the other, who are favorable to it. A bad mayor can find men of his own kind in the opposite party as well as in his own. Some plan should be devised, either a city training school, or a competitive examination open only to graduates, or a system of probationary appointments, to guard against favoritism. The principals of the several schools should have power to assign teachers, and control over all matters of school organization, promotion, etc., subject to the superintendent. There should be such confidential relations between the superintendent and the board that his recommendations would be accepted as worthy to be carried out. I consider the Buffalo system to-day better than a school board made up of members elected by wards. So far as I have observed, school boards thus chosen are only a second common council. In fact, it is a common saying in some of our cities, that when a politician is disappointed in his ambition to be an alderman, his wounded feelings are assuaged by being elected to the school board.

But no system, no machinery, can be devised which will run itself. Where the people are indifferent and satisfied with a low type of school, that is just what they will have. A stream cannot rise higher than its source. On the contrary, if there is a healthy, vigilant, school sentiment which will protest and sound the alarm whenever poor teaching is tolerated by the school authorities, then a system which is unsatisfactory in itself may become a powerful engine of reform.

DISCUSSION.

LAWTON B. EVANS, Superintendent of Schools, Augusta, Ga.—The public schools of America are and ought to be distinctly American. But like everything else to which the people contribute their money the schools have been the victims of much unwise interference. The people of various cities have demanded of the schools the employment of unsuitable persons, the introduction of improper texts, and in other ways have hindered their progress by unthinking and imprudent legislation. The result of this interference has been to impress upon many school systems a local and political influence that has been hurtful, though often done with proper motives.

The school legislation of the future will need to adopt some measures that will rid the schools themselves of the dominance of unwise party-influenced and friend-rewarding men. The school systems should be run by school men, and not by politicians. What incentive have school officers to labor and to learn if their plans for improvement are blasted by the rude hands of prejudiced boards? It was suggested to me once, that it would be an improvement in the school laws of our country if an examination for members was required, as well as examination of teachers.

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Akin to this suggestion is, that school superintendents should have entire control in the selection of teachers, in the course of study, and in the conduct of the schools. Boards of education, representing the tax-payers, ought to control the finances, paying of officers and teachers, building of houses and cost of supplies. Beyond that they should trust the officers whose business it is to know. If the officers prove unworthy and unreliable they should be impeached and removed. It is a golden rule to pay an official well, let him alone, but watch him closely. The superintendents and supervisors are often held responsible for errors in the schools that they were powerless to prevent. Make the work of school supervision a profession, require the officers to surround themselves with proper help, and then hold them responsible for the results. I believe that, if school officers instead of inexpert members were allowed to select teachers and text-books the tone of our schools would at once improve.

This would be the way to procure better teachers. The profession responds to the demand. If high grade capacity, founded on experience and training, is demanded in the schools, at once the attention of applicants is turned to that kind of qualification. If we will require better capacity, we shall get better capacity. So long as election goes by favors there is no guarantee that the schools are safe. Some of these days we shall reach the golden point in our city schools where the laws will require that no teachers shall be employed except those who have had liberal preparation in schools designed for the training of teachers. But few teachers can do scientific teaching unless they have had scientific preparation. Some may happen upon good methods by accident, but the majority are empirics, and empiricism in school work is as deadly as quackery in medicine.

Another evil that the future only will remedy is the assignment of too many children to one teacher. I have seen a system where sixty children was the allowance, in another instance eighty were on the roll of one teacher, and in a single case a poor teacher was doing her best with a class of 120 pupils. I should say that the average in large city systems was fifty pupils to a teacher. I know this to be the case in most of the Southern school systems. An ideal school would limit the number of graded pupils to thirty or thirty-five for each teacher. This, however, will require more schools, more schoolhouses, more teachers, all of which will cost more money.

The last point I shall make is, that, since we commit ourselves to education at the public expense, there should be no limit this side of thoroughness. Every kind of education belongs to the public school scheme. The education of a child should begin as soon as he can leave his mother's arms. Therefore, schools should claim him as soon as he can learn anything. Therefore, the infant play schools, the nursery schools, the kindergartens logically belong to the public school systems. I know of no reason why the State should keep its hands off until the child is seven years of age and has learned many wrong things. I look for our city schools in the future to reach down and take hold of the three-year-olds and start them in the proper roads of learning. Likewise, there is no reason, in morals, why any kind of education should be barred. Popularly we think only of a literary training in public schools. But logically children are entitled to musical, artistic and industrial education. They are entitled to be trained from the very beginning for life's work and for life's joys. Ultimately we shall see our city schools reach out their arms to enfold the very infants, and then keep them under proper nurture until they can be delivered to the State as worthy citizens ready for any work.

I have emphasized these points: that school officials should be allowed more liberty, should have more ability, should be endowed with more courage, and should

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shoulder more responsibility. This will result in uniform work over the country, better teachers in our schools and better teaching in consequence. This, with fewer children to each teacher and an enlargement of our educational schemes to take hold of the very young child and to include every kind of education for him, will comprehend improvements devoutly to be wished for.

Fortunately, we are improving. There are errors, of course. These we shall be rid of in after years. We are groping in uncertain light for many things. Still, our schools are like our country; young, but vigorous and determined. Like overgrown boys, they are awkward and move uneasily, but exercise will bring grace and strength. They contain no seeds of disease, and all they need is care and culture to make them the pride of the land.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE HIGHER EDUCATION OF A COUNTRY UPON ITS ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

BY WM. T. HARRIS, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

In the whole country, according to statistical returns for 1892, there were 2,269 pupils out of each 10,000 of the population that attended school sometime in the course of the year. Nearly twenty-three per cent of the whole population were enrolled in school for some period of time, longer or shorter, in that year. This is a very good showing, and if the length of the average attendance of the pupils on school were as promising, the efficiency of our school system would be undoubted. The proper school year should count about 200 days; but the actual average number of days attended was only eighty-nine for each pupil. Reducing our average schooling to European standards, we find that we are not giving so much education to our people as Germany is giving. But we seem to secure a larger whole number that get into the school house for some portion of the year than any nation in Europe.

Moreover, we have increased this enrollment in the course of twenty years from twenty to twenty-three per cent of the whole population, besides increasing the length of the average attendance from seventy-nine days in the year in 1871 to eighty-nine days in 1892.

With all our self-congratulations over the progress of our schools, we do not find ourselves in a condition to boast of a victory won, or to lay off our armor in satisfaction with the result.

At the rate we are now securing attendance on our schools, we are giving to each inhabitant of the United States in the coming generation only an average of four and three-tenths years' instruction of 200 days each; say enough education to take all the population through the primary school and for a half year into the grammar school. This does not look as though we were over-educating our people.

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What the people get on an average is about one-half of an elementary education. They learn barely enough of reading to qualify them to read the newspaper without spelling more than half of the difficult words. They can read pieces written in the colloquial vocabulary pretty well; but they find such articles as employ technical words too hard for their degree of intelligence.

No State, not even Massachusetts, is now giving an education in all its schools, public and private, that is equal to seven years apiece for the rising generation. Some States are giving less than three years of 200 days each.

In the face of this, let us summon before us the statistics of the relative proportions of elementary, secondary and higher education, and inquire into the effect of the higher education upon the lower and lowest.

In 1892 there were over fourteen millions (14,165,182) of children in the elementary schools; over four hundred thousand (402,089) pursuing the secondary course of study in public high schools, private academies and preparatory schools; and nearly one hundred and fifty thousand (147,662) pursuing the courses of higher education in colleges, technical and professional schools, including normal schools. To realize these figures let us say that one in five of the population was enrolled in some elementary school, one in 160 in some secondary school, and one in 439 in some institution for higher education. If we consider only the so-called academic courses of study in colleges, we find that there was one in 895 pursuing that line of studies.

We must not forget that the ideal of our education is to give to every child in the elementary schools the capacity to read. After he leaves school he shall continue his education by reading the printed page of newspaper and book. The great increase of public libraries in the United States is significant of progress towards the realization of this ideal. In 1892 we had over 4,000 public libraries with more than 1,000 volumes in each. The schools teach how to read; the libraries furnish what to read. But far surpassing our libraries in educative influence are our daily newspapers and magazines. Far more freely supplied with newspapers is our people than the people of any other nation. We are governed by public opinion, as ascertained and expressed by the newspapers, to such a degree, that our civilization is justly to be called a newspaper civilization. The library and the newspaper are our chief instrumentalities for the continuation of the school and the university. Lecture courses, scientific and literary associations, are assisting largely. But the work in the churches of the land is a more potent factor in school extension. The increase of foreign and domestic travel is another item to be mentioned

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as an educative influence that converts our people to cosmopolitan views and sympathies. The people of our Atlantic cities visit the borderlands of the far West. Europe sends hither its stream of travel, and America sends a far larger concourse of visitors annually to Europe, Asia and Africa. Much is learned by personal inspection, that could not be learned from books or lectures, even at the college. Our civilization will eventually grow into a process of perpetual education. Even if the citizen gets only a start in an elementary school, he will be kept in a state of intellectual growth by the necessity to read and study and investigate in order to preserve his intellectual equilibrium in the midst of social movements. The man who possesses a higher education at present is kept in a perpetual practice of using his knowledge of science and literature in order to re-adjust himself to a perpetually changing environment. Every day unfolds to view some new problem. The rational man is called upon to understand the event of to-day by explaining it as a further development of the events of yesterday and the past. We can all see that our great daily newspapers furnish to the citizen a daily lesson of sufficient length to keep him at school, if he keeps up with the course of events.

But there is something specific in higher education, as it is given in the college, which gives an advantage to its graduates in the way of directive power over their fellow citizens. Elementary education is a defective sort of education, not merely because it includes only a few years of school work, but because its method of study and habits of thought are necessarily crude and inadequate.

The elementary course of study is adapted to the first eight years of school life, say from the age of six to that of fourteen years. That course of study deals chiefly with giving the child a mastery over the symbols of reading, writing and arithmetic, and the technical words in which are expressed the distinctions of arithmetic, geography, grammar and history. The child has not yet acquired much knowledge of human nature, nor of the world of things and forces about him. He has a tolerably quick grasp of isolated things and events, but he has very small power of synthesis. He cannot combine in his little mind things and events so as to perceive whole processes. He cannot perceive the principles and laws underlying the things and events which are brought under his notice. He consequently is not able to get much insight into the trend of human affairs, or to draw logical conclusions from convictions or ideas.

It is a necessary characteristic of primary or elementary instruction that it must take the world of human learning in fragments, and fail to give its pupils an insight into the interrelation of things.

The education of high schools, academies and preparatory schools —what we call secondary schools—begins to correct this inadequacy

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of elementary education. It begins to see things and events as parts of processes, and to understand their significance by tracing them back into their causes and forward into their results.

While elementary education fixes on isolated things, secondary education deals with the relations of things and events. It studies forces and laws, and the mode and manner in which things are fashioned and events accomplished.

To turn off from occupation with dead results and to come to the investigation of the living process of production is a great step.

Where the pupil in the elementary school studies arithmetic and solves problems in particular numbers, the secondary pupil studies algebra and solves problems in general terms. Each algebraic formula is a rule for the performance of an indefinite number of arithmetical examples. In geometry, the secondary pupil learns necessary relations of spatial forms. In general history, he studies the collisions of one nation with another. In sciences, he takes the forms and relations of nature's phenomena. In the study of foreign languages he studies the variations of words to indicate relations of syntax; he studies the structure of language, in which is revealed the degree of consciousness of the people who made that language.

But secondary education does not connect in any adequate manner the intellect and the will. It does not convert intellectual perceptions into rules of action. This is left for higher education. A principle of action is always a summing up of a series. Things and events have been inventoried and relations have been canvassed. Now the result must be summed up. The conclusion must be reached, and then the will can act. If we act without summing up the results of inventory and reflection, our act will be a lame one.

It is the glory of higher education that it lays chief stress on the comparative method of study; that it makes philosophy its leading discipline; that it gives an ethical bent to all of its branches of study. Higher education seeks as its first goal the unity of human learning. Then in its second stage it specializes. It first studies each branch in the light of all others. It studies each branch in its history.

A good definition of science is, that it unites facts in such a way that each fact throws light on all facts and all facts throw light on each fact.

The best definition of that part of higher education that is found in the college is, that it teaches the unity of human learning. It shows how all branches form a connected whole and what each contributes to the explanation of the others. This has well been called the course in philosophy. After the course in philosophy comes the selection of a specialty; for there is no danger of distorted views

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when one has seen the vision of the whole system of human learning. Higher education cannot possibly be given to the person of immature age. A college that gave the degree of bachelor of arts to students of eighteen years would give only a secondary course of education after all. For it would find itself forced to use the methods of instruction that characterize the secondary school. The serious tone of mind, the earnest attitude which inquires for the significance of a study to the problem of life, cannot be formed in the normally developed student from fourteen to eighteen years of age.

The youth of proper age to enter on higher education has already experienced much of human life, and has arrived at the point where he begins to feel the necessity for a regulative principle, or a principle that shall guide him in deciding the endless questions which press upon him for settlement.

Taking the youth at this epoch, when he begins to inquire for a principle, the college gives him a compend of human experience. It shows him the verdict of the earliest and latest great thinker upon the meaning of the world. It gives him the net result of human opinion as to the trend of history. It gathers into one focus the results of the vast labors of specialists in natural science, in history, jurisprudence, in philology, in political science, in moral philosophy.

If the bachelor of arts is not acquainted with more than the elements of these multifarious branches of human learning, yet he is all the more impressed by their bearing upon the conduct of life. He sees their function in the totality, although he may not be an expert in the methods of investigation in any one of them.

For the reason that higher education makes the ethical insight its first object, its graduates hold the place in the community at large of spiritual monitors. They exercise a directive power altogether disproportionate to their number. They lead in the three learned professions, and they lead in the management of education of all kinds. They correct the one-sided tendencies of elementary education, and they furnish the wholesome centripetal forces to hold in check the extravagances of the numerous self-educated people who have gone off in special directions after leaving the elementary school.

The person who has had merely an elementary schooling has laid stress on the mechanical means of culture—on the arts of reading, writing, computing, and the like. He has trained his mind for the acquirement of isolated details. But he has not been disciplined in comparative studies. He has not learned how to compare each fact with other facts, and still less how to compare each science with other sciences. He has not inquired as to the trend of his science as a whole, nor has he asked as to its imperfections which need correc-

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tion from the standpoint of other sciences. He has not yet entertained the question as to its bearing on the conduct of life.

We would say of him that he has not yet learned the difference between knowledge and wisdom; or what is better, the method of converting knowledge into wisdom. For it is the best description of the college course of study to say, that its aim is to convert knowledge into wisdom—to show how to discern the bearing of all departments of knowledge upon each.

It is evident that the individual who has received only an elementary education is at great disadvantage as compared with the person who has received a higher education in the college or university, making all allowances for the imperfections of existing institutions. The individual is prone to move on in the same direction and in the same channel which he has taken under the guidance of his teacher. Very few persons change their methods after they leave school. Hence the importance of reaching the influence of the method of higher education before one closes his school career.

All the influences of the university, its distinguished professors, its venerable reputation, the organization of the students and professors as an institutional whole, combined with the isolation of the student from the strong ties of the home and the home community; all these taken together are able to effect this change in method when brought to bear upon a youth for four years. He acquires an attitude of mind which may be best described as critical and comparative. It is at the same time conservative. He has learned to expect that the existing institution may have deeper grounds for its being than appear at first sight; while, on the other hand, the mind trained in elementary and secondary methods is easily surprised and captivated by superficial considerations and has small power of resistance against shallow critical views. It is easily swept away by a specious argument for reform. It is true that the duller commonplace intellect that has received only an elementary education is apt to follow use and wont and not question the established order. It is the brighter class of minds, that stop with the elementary school, which become agitators in the bad sense of the term. The commonplace intellect has no adaptability, or at least small power of re-adjustment, in view of new circumstances. The disuse of hand labor and the adoption of machine labor, for instance, finds the common laborer unable to substitute brain labor for hand labor, and it keeps him in the path of poverty wending his way to the almshouse.

Our numerous self-educated men, of whom we are so proud, are quite apt to be persons who have never advanced beyond elementary methods. Very often they are men of great accumulations in the

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way of isolated scraps of information. They have memory pouches unduly developed. They lay stress on some insignificant phase of human affairs. They advocate with great vigor the importance of some local center, some partial human interest, as the chief object of all life. Such a man is like an astronomer who opposes the heliocentric theory, and favors the claim of some planet or some satellite as the true center.

It is here that we may find the strongest ground for advocating the scheme known as university extension. The greatest use of this movement is to be found in its connection with self-educated men. It will guide their studies and set them into lines of new growth. It may even lead them into new methods.

In proportion as the newspaper age develops, the self-educated man becomes more important in society and his peculiarities more dangerous. This has been for some time obvious in the department of sociology—the department that lies so close to all the questions of civil government.

I do not see how we shall be saved from a great deal of trouble from this source unless some plan is devised to unite the classes who have received higher education more closely with the enterprising minds who, after leaving the elementary schools, have entered on careers of self-education. It is true, however, as I have already shown in this paper, that the few persons who receive higher education remain the chief directors of the spiritual interests of the community.

Let us hope that the number of those who reach the college and university may be greatly increased, and that, instead of one person in 439, we shall have, at least, one in every hundred, while the number who continue their studies after leaving the elementary schools under some wise Chautauqua plan or under some board of university examiners, through secondary and higher courses, may be, at least, a score in every hundred.

REMARKS ON PRACTICAL EDUCATION.

BY PRESIDENT C. K. ADAMS, WISCONSIN UNIVERSITY, MADISON, WIS.

[STENOGRAPHIC REPORT.]

I have heard a great deal during the last few weeks,—or months, I might say,—of practical education, and it has sometimes seemed to me that there is no word so much abused, no word so wrongly used as is the word *practical* in the matter of education. It is sometimes spoken of as though, if we only learned the right thing while we are children, we shall be able to turn those particular things to immediate account when we come into manhood and womanhood. In my judgment,

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there is no greater educational fallacy afloat, and that is saying a great deal. It has sometimes been said that it is useless to study the ancient languages, because we cannot use them. With as much truth it might be said of almost everything that we study. How much do we use of mathematics, that we toil over for so many years? Those who go into the countinghouse, those who are engaged in anything less than professional engineering, are never called upon to do anything more with mathematics than to use, perhaps, some of the most elementary rules that we are taught in the very first years of our school life. Has not the most of the knowledge which he acquired of botany, or of chemistry, or of physics, or of physiology, or of whatever you please, faded from his memory, given way to the certain something that is left; that has come, he knows not whence, he knows not when, but which has come to make up his mind and his character. I cannot but conclude, that the practical education, after all, is not that which teaches the particular thing which we shall want in after life for use. That cannot be taught, because we do not know what we shall need in after life. As a matter of fact, very few of us follow the things, in after life, which in childhood we supposed we should follow. Therefore I say that practical things are those which build up the mind and character, and not those which teach specific things in detail. And if I follow this thought further, I am brought to this conclusion, that our minds are made up of certain qualities and characteristics, and that the man that has those qualities and characteristics most fully developed is the one who has the most practical education.

It is necessary that every man who is to have success should have the powers of discrimination. It is necessary he should have reasoning faculties. It is necessary that he should be able to reason in other than straight lines. The most needed faculty of the business man is to arrive at correct conclusions from imperfect premises. More than that, in addition to all of these three qualities, he must have that indefinable something which we call character; and the education which furnishes this in the largest measure is the most practical education.

In making out our courses of study it seems to me a great mistake has been made in supposing that we must have, in the course of our primary and secondary education, a little of almost everything. I do not believe the mind is best developed in this way. It is by the regular and frequent application of the mind in certain directions, it may be for a long period, that education is best developed. And if Dr. Harris, or some other of the great educators of this country, can tell us just what those studies are that are best qualified to give these peculiar characteristics of which I have spoken, I would then put pupils to work on these studies, and I would keep them at work. I believe that the Germans, in this respect, have been wise, in requiring that their pupils shall continuously work along certain lines that have been decided by experience to be the most fruitful in the results of which I have spoken. I believe we might profit by studying their experiences and following their example; and I believe, if we have to reconcile ourselves to study more of the few things, we should, in the end, know something valuable about things practical. Our pupils have the impression, because they have studied twenty or thirty or forty things in early life, they know a little something. They have had an introduction to all, and they are ready to go about anything that may present itself when they get into life. They are not, in my judgment, so well prepared for the events of life as they would be if they had concentrated their education upon a small number of subjects, and had studied them with corresponding continuous application. I believe in the next twenty-five years the advances in this country that are to be made in primary and elementary education will be made upon these lines. When throughout our country some system has been adopted which will carry out

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these principles, we shall no longer hear it said, as we have so often heard it said within the last ten years, that our boys and girls at eighteen are not better educated for the work of the world than are the boys and girls in some of the countries of the old world at the age of fifteen. It is by the intense and continuous application along certain lines of study, that these great results, I believe, are to be obtained.

WHAT MAKES—WHAT MARS, THE TEACHER?

BY MISS CORINNE HARRISON, NORFOLK, VA.

In a paper to be read in twenty minutes, it will be impossible, as you know, to make more than certain broad statements upon a subject so important, so suggestive, as the topic assigned to me on this program. If, therefore, I succeed in emphasizing upon the minds of any, some truths recognized by all, but not fully assimilated by most of us, my purpose, at present, will be accomplished.

This age, to me, seems pre-eminently the age of self-recognition, the age in which the race is to realize or must realize its possibilities for complete and harmonious development.

It is the time, when, more than ever, thoughtful man recognizes why he was created; that he is a creature endowed with God-given power, capable of being developed to a degree hitherto scarcely conceived of. With certain great steps in human progress already taken singly by nations of the past, we stand to-day, I believe, on this completed foundation, this mosaic of commerce, law, philosophy and religion, realizing that upon this completed foundation may be built, high towering, a structure, a civilization—a unified, harmonious, enduring, civilization—as a worthy and full expression of the Creator. An enduring civilization, because each single stone in its foundation has been, by its individual age, rounded and polished, thus fitting each into the other; the cornerstone—Christ—which the builders rejected, has been added; the capstone to be illumined by the love of humanity, which will shine serenely, lighting the ages to come.

Since the teacher's part in the development of the possibilities of the race is so important and responsible a part, since much of the teacher's life is to be spent with those of whom Christ has said, "of such is the kingdom of heaven," and the spirit of the true teacher is to look with similar reverence upon every soul in whose development he may be engaged, I hope we may discuss with profit certain steps in the development of the possibilities of our nature, that we may become in faith and in humility as the little child, when to us may be revealed truths as wonderful as to the children are the stories of

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Mythland. It does not seem unwise to talk together of the possibilities of our nature so far as we know them, as well as of the means by which these possibilities may be soonest recognized and best developed, and of what to-day are some of the things most antagonistic to the best development of these possibilities, that what we believe to be remedies for evils noted may be suggested.

Man, a complex creature, must needs have opportunity for the full development of his complex nature. There must be brought about the co-ordination of his physical, intellectual and spiritual powers. The whole end and aim of the teacher should be to bring about this co-ordination. Growth, constant and harmonious through the self-activity of the child, will be the successful test of this co-ordination; the unfolding and development of all the possibilities of the child—the perfection of the individual—its end.

What is the school of to-day for? Is it for the child? Is it not too often a refuge for the indigent men and women of the community? a place in which popularity must be gained by the teacher? an institution to be so manipulated as to insure financial success to the publisher? And, too, does it not too often furnish the means for the gratification of the whims of the politician, who has under his control both teacher and child—the child the sufferer? Teachers, do we sit humbly and willingly at the feet of all sources of knowledge from which power may be gained, at the feet of the child and at the feet of the sage as well, that we may gain that true insight, which will enable us to help on the uplifting development of the human race? Check this development in any way—the physical by neglect, the moral by the egotistical desire we may have to impress our individuality upon the child—leave the spiritual aspirations of the child unstirred, and by just so much have we checked, thrown back, the development of the race. Were not the opposite of the above statements as true—that all we do for the individual child helps on the uplifting of the race—as teachers we might well shrink more consciously from the responsibility placed upon us in the part we play in the development of this image of God—the child. Then let us not turn aside from the work of our high calling, but in humility and in faith seek to know the being whose possibilities we would unfold, for whom we may make self-development a reality.

The foundation of this possible development must be health. There must be the strong, vigorous body, the development of that activity which shall be always an expression of genuine vitality.

You will tell me heredity is to be overcome, conditions changed, before this ideal state of the physical can be brought about. In one of the commandments, learned long before we could comprehend its

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meaning, we are told, "The sins of the fathers shall be visited upon the children unto the third and fourth generation." I say it in all reverence: Are there not enough of the fifth generation with whom we doubting ones may begin our work of physical training?

It is already past the time, it seems to me, when a universal beginning should be made to change existing physical deficiencies of the race; when this Association, as its part in the universal beginning, should at more than one round table plainly and practically discuss the importance of recognizing and recommending, yea, urging, that this lowest form of development, yet absolutely essential to all development that may follow, should be scientifically understood by every teacher and scientifically taught by those specially prepared for the work.

Scientific physical training has been much discussed in America, as we know, for the past ten years at least. The advocates of the various systems have emphatically stated what they believe to be the excellencies of each. Still I have yet to hear of more than one educational institution in America that allows a course in physical training to count toward a degree.

Correlate, co-ordinate as we may the studies of the separate schools, or the schools one with the other; even reach that ideal development in our system of education, ideal co-ordination and co-education, begun in the kindergarten ended in the university, when the members of society are but then better fitted for co-living; when we have reached, I say, this ideal system of education, the results hoped for would be disappointing were not physical development the basis and accompaniment of each step in this system, not ideal without it.

The young child's world is the sense world, though we too often make it to the child the sense-deadening world. That the sense perception, the beginnings of intellectual life, the harbinger of moral activity, culminating in psychical phenomena, may be readily and accurately gained, the avenues through which these perceptions are gained must be vitalized—energized. This vitalizing and energizing can be done successfully only when the child's physical possibilities are recognized and daily and scientifically developed. This scientific development should begin ere the period of squirms and kicks passes into the ceaseless activity of the child—to be ended never; but to be lessened, when, later in life, the spiritual should predominate. Give babies gymnastics? No, nor college men too much nor too vigorous athletics. Such knowledge of physical training as makes it possible for the teacher to have an insight into the pupil's physical needs is not required of the teacher. Those of us who have had in charge the physical development of the child know how much

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of our work—indeed, sometimes it seems all—done for the correction of certain apparent evils in the child's body is counteracted, not by the willfulness, but through the ignorance, of the average teacher in the school-room. The mind untrained to the consideration of the value of physical development does not see—cannot see—the significant danger of constantly allowed incorrect positions in sitting, in writing, in standing, and in walking. Nor are school boards less culpable when they furnish our school-rooms with seats, which even when arranged in the usual graded sizes must be several inches too low or too high for many of the pupils occupying them. We recall, I think, with peculiar interest at this time, Dr. Scudder's and Dr. Mosher's very excellent papers on this subject of physical deformity, brought about because in many instances we have been unwilling to spend the money needful to get the right desks for the pupils. Such desks there are and every school should be furnished with them.

A gymnasium connected with every school, this gymnasium conducted by a scientifically trained instructor, who is allowed to give to the teachers of the school, as well as to the pupils, the needed period of physical exercise, explaining to the teachers, at least, certain broad and valuable principles underlying these exercises, will enable us to take wisely the first great step toward the long-postponed development of the physical possibilities of the child of this age.

The importance and readily recognized close connection between the physically strong, morally pure, and mentally fine is too well known to be argued, but a too rarely carried out scheme not to be urged upon the thoughtful consideration of every educator in the land.

The teacher with that insight necessary to the intelligent understanding of the full meaning of health as the basis of all future development, who has the trained eye to see the uneven shoulders, the unnecessarily bad positions of the children in school, will soon be recognized as of value to the profession; the teacher ignorant of this meaning, or indifferent to it, is a clog in the way of true development. With his physical functions properly energized, there is made possible for the child all the developing influences to be found in the realms of science, history, literature and art. The world created for man must, as the home of man, be understood by man, that he may rightly accommodate himself to his place in the universe.

Ruskin says: "For one man who is fitted for the study of words, fifty are fitted for the study of things, and were intended to have a perpetual, simple, and religious delight in watching the processes or admiring the creatures of the natural universe. Deprived of this source of pleasure, nothing is left to them but ambition or dissipation; and the vice of the upper classes of Europe are, I believe, chiefly to be attributed to this single cause."

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Man, a law unto himself, made so only by finding out the law for himself, would scarcely make for himself the fiendish chaos of to-day, nor submit to the misrule and anarchy brought about, were his relations to the universe understood. As teachers, it seems our province to place the child in that relation to the universe, that the discovery of the law being a possible thing, simple at first, but as true as when more complex, he may be better fitted to take his rightful position and maintain it, not by struggle, but by obedience to law, which alone can make him free. Make materialists of our children? Yes, as we have made formalists of them. Materialists are not necessary outcomes of nature study, but of the ignorance of the meaning of nature, its beauty, its harmony, its inspiration. Happily abstract science, or science in the abstract, is no longer in great favor, the true teacher realizing what life is, and giving the child a chance to get this life. Who that has watched the child chasing the butterfly, studying it when caught, gathering the flowers to learn more of them, examining the stone, or asking unanswerable questions about the heavens and the earth will doubt the fact that the self-activity of the child is at work, its percept clear, appercept strong, and content valuable.

The teacher, who with reverence opens up to the sense-getting child this universe of wonder and beauty, and leads him to catch in his soul even the distant harmony of the spheres, has done more for humanity, more for its elevation, its purification, than can be estimated, or even imagined.

Specific scientific training has its place, and its value upon the character and upon the mind of the pupil is inestimable, and none but the over-enthusiastic or thoughtless will depreciate its value.

Should not every one of us try to be intelligent readers of God's universe? Listen once more to Ruskin as he talks of the grass: "We may not measure to the full the depth of this heavenly gift in our own land; though still, as we think of it longer, the infinite of that meadow sweetness, Shakespeare's peculiar joy, would open on us more and more. Yet, we have it but in part. Go out, in the springtime, among the meadows that slope from the shores of the Swiss lakes to the roots of their lower mountains. There, mingled with the taller gentians and the white narcissus, the grass grows deep and free, and as you follow the winding mountain paths beneath arching boughs, all veiled and dim with blossom—paths, that forever droop and rise over the green banks and mounds sweeping down in scented undulation steep to the blue water, studded here and there with new-mown heaps, filling all the air with fainter sweetness—look up toward the higher hills, where the waves of everlasting green roll silently into their long inlets among the shadows of the pine; and we may

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perhaps at last know the meaning of those quiet words of the 147th Psalm, 'He maketh grass to grow upon the mountain.'"

> Earth's crammed with beauty, and every bush afire with God,
> But only he who sees takes off his shoes.

With this reverence toward God in our heart we shall feel more of reverence for God's creature, man. Contact with each other will enable to better understand each the other, and understanding our place in the world we shall be willing to grant to our brother his place. Contemplation of the great and good in man will react with increasing fullness on our natures; each from the other may get a good, each to the other may give a good.

Character will be strengthened by this association, culture broadened, and nothing do I believe to be more necessary to the real success of the teacher than that he shall be a recognized social factor, made possible only by this broadness of culture.

We have been too long content that our minds should be filled with scarcely more than extracts of fragmentary knowledge, plus partially faded visions of manifold examinations generously distributed from the patent grinding machine of those who by common consent and agreement of public opinion are allowed and expected to continue the grind. Our constant association with those less cultured than ourselves, our long assumed and peculiarly self-assertive authority over those less cultured beings, have a noticeable tendency toward making us dogmatic, autocratic, rather to be dreaded additions to society at large. The many exceptions to this rule prove that it is possible to be a teacher and still to be a truly cultured, as well as knowing, being. But I repeat: I believe the general tendency of many members of our profession is toward the dogmatic. Clubs other than teacher's clubs, consistent and well directed efforts towards self-improvement, special work outside of work engaged in, but, more than all, contact with the best men of the best minds in other callings, contact with humanity at large, will make us human, will make us men, will make us women. The inspiration thus received we give again, and so the lives of those under us—I like to say with us—are brightened, are broadened.

Nothing, it seems to me, is more helpful to pupil or to teacher, than the genuine brightness which comes from the fusion of a well-stored mind with the culture of a broad experience.

This culture, happily, is possible to the humblest of us, through history, literature and art, increased by contact with the human element we find always about us. All know the teacher who "has not ability to be a practical man, and not enough genius to be a crank."

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The habit we unconsciously fall into of complaining of alleged difficulties and the burden of work, having no time for general culture, etc., arises, I believe, from lack of insight into what it needed for the child's development; hence, working under this discouragement of poor results, because of incompetency on our part to do the work. Annoyed and irritated, we are apt to vent the spleen of self-incompetency upon the child, and thereby stifle the development of the child.

Child life, the beginning of human life, can be only truly understood when this human life is known and understood. Hence, contact with the human we must have, that we may be human, that our knowledge of him may be clearer, our interests in his pursuits intelligent, love for him increased, and sympathy with him intensified.

Teachability, the willingness to be cultured beings—not knowing beings only—to get from every source, and when this getting has changed to got, to give and give and get again: this will bring about in our rank and file that unity so longed for; not "the unity of oneness," but "the unity of universality."

To sum up what I have so hurriedly sketched:

First—This age seems pre-eminently the age of self-recognition.

Second—In order to enable the human being to develop these recognized possibilities, the teacher, to be successful, must recognize and emphasize the three-fold nature of the child, and must be able to lead the child to bring about the co-ordination of its physical, intellectual and spiritual powers.

Third—To be able to bring about this co-ordination of the powers, the teacher must know the physical child, his needs; he must know, too, the world of this child, and how best to lead the child to know this world.

The historical, æsthetical and philosophical environment of man must be the teacher's environment, thus completing that circle of knowledge which will enable the teacher to bring about in the child's development that "unity, not of oneness, but the unity of universality.'

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THE FEASIBILITY OF MODIFYING THE PROGRAMS OF THE ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS TO MEET THE SUGGESTIONS IN THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF TEN.

BY REV. JAMES C. MACKENZIE, PH. D., LAWRENCEVILLE SCHOOL, NEW JERSEY.

Is it not in order to congratulate American teachers, the National Association, and in particular the National Council, upon the production of this report of the Committee of Ten? Doubtless it has defects and shortcomings—it is not offered to our intelligent teachers as a Nebuchadnezzar golden image—but it has the capital character of being a direct, positive scheme, a description and philosophy of superlative educational work; in brief, it is offered as a good working hypothesis for the teachers of our high and other secondary schools. Improvements can and will be made in the methods and ends it proposes, but the totality of educational good possible to our 400,000 teachers and 15,000,000 pupils is now believed to be possible only through the agency or influence of a co-operative movement, such as is bodied forth in the report.

As one, therefore, of the one hundred teachers, and in particular, as one of the Committee of Ten, I think it is becoming to felicitate the Association upon the reception which has been accorded the report by governmental officials, by the newspaper and magazine press, and by our foremost educational writers and thinkers. To begin with, it could hardly have been hoped that any educational work would have attracted such widespread attention. That the concensus of opinion should be so generally favorable, is a new encouragement to the American teacher in his chosen work.

To be sure, what the lawyer calls the *prima facie* case was solidly in favor of the report. Ten appointments by the National Council, and then ninety appointments by these ten, of teachers representing every type of institution, East, West, North, South, public and private, secondary and higher—every appointment made solely with a view to securing the most valuable service; the purpose of the Council could hardly miscarry. And let it be noted, that more than seventy per cent of the one hundred makers of the report were men and women who are either now actively engaged in secondary work or were very recently so engaged, the promotions or transfers to college work being (as, *e. g.*, in the cases of President Baker and Professor Kittredge) of recent date. It is only through ignorance of the facts, or something

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worse, that the criticism can be made that the report is the work of college men. It is, first and last, the schoolmasters' performance, in execution as well as in conception.

But I have hurried forward without speaking of two additional causes for congratulation, one that the British government has apparently been influenced by our example to hold her first meeting of schoolmasters and college teachers, and then to call into existence an almost similar committee to undertake for the English schools an almost identical work; the other and more substantial cause for satisfaction being that when our work on the report was finished, although we had proceeded along quite independent lines, we discovered that our summarized results did not differ materially from those of the famous European schools. Dr. Butler, to whom we owe so much in connection with this movement for better educational work, points out most happily, that "although the report itself contains no reference to European experience or practice, it will be interesting to compare the committee's recommendations with the programs of European secondary schools. Take, for example, the Prussian Gymnasium, of which the tertia and secunda nearly correspond to the American secondary school years; and the French Lycée, where the classes known as cinquième, quatrième, troisième and secunde, are in about the same relation; and in spite of differences between them, it is clear that the proposed American classical program is not very unlike those in vogue on the Continent. Were the comparison extended to the other programs—the Latin-Scientific, the Modern Language, and the English—a similar relation to the French and German programs of like character would be found to exist. The higher classes of the Gymnasium and Lycée have still a great advantage over the American secondary school in the fact that the work leading up to them is carefully organized and developed."

I will not here describe in detail the method of procedure by which these important results were attained, and by which the Committee of Ten had the invaluable service of ninety experts in the nine fundamental lines of work, and yet were free to classify, systematize and co-ordinate the findings of the conferences, in view, as Dr. Harris has so clearly pointed out, "of the conflicting necessities of hygiene, preparation for college or technical school, and of comparative educational values," so that the final results "fall safely within the lines of hygienic limits prescribed in the most cautious and conservative schools."

To continue somewhat further, these general observations which seem both useful in view of the discussions that have already taken place, and imperative by way of introduction to the more detailed

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discussion of the report that is to follow this morning, I beg you to reflect upon the conditions of the secondary schools as they confronted the committee.

Forty leading subjects, a majority of them mere information studies, were found in the programs of our important high and fitting schools, arranged in no clearly logical order, without suggestion of co-ordination with preceding or succeeding studies; marked diversity of opinion as to the value of different studies and as to their time, claims and limits; such heterogeneity in schools of the same grade, that pupils moving from one part to another of our otherwise homogeneous country, or from public to private school, or the reverse, invariably lose by reassignment precious years in their school life; boards of control and school managers apparently in ignorance of the necessities of successful school work, and failing to do that which would elevate the teachers' work to a professional career; a condition of affairs (explain it as we may) by which but three per cent of the 300,000 graduates of our 3,000 public high schools enter college; the 500 American colleges evidently vying with one another to compel the existence of 500 different classes in every fitting school; a promotion each year from the lower to the high schools of an army of pupils whose education thus far secondary teachers—either because these secondary teachers have too little or too much wisdom—persist in criticising; an almost criminal or sordid standard of admission on the part of professional and technical schools, by which the preparatory work of their prospective pupils is hopelessly prostituted and many professional men in after life become an inexcusable reproach to our general standards of culture; and finally, what appears most anomalous of all, such an endless circling of educational discussions that it has remained for this report to concrete and fuse into practice the better intelligence and zeal of our teachers.

This mere catalogue of the work that presented itself must make clear to what extent the secondary school is the real pivot about which the best educational work must turn, and to what an extent it has felt itself to be between the upper and nether millstone of the college and the elementary school. And if further word is needed to justify in part the apparently wide scope of the committee's work, it must be repeated that all educational work, in all true philosophy, is one. As kindergartens and as university professors, it may be said, "We are members of one body."

I propose now to speak of some of the surprises that have greeted the committee before examining some of the criticisms.

Previous to the submission of the report to the public, the chairman expressed the belief that no two of the committee could agree upon a model program. He saw that if the experts and specialists

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were to have what they deemed necessary, pupils would recite as often as thirty-seven and one-half times a week, an average in a four years' course of thirty recitations a week. Our first surprise, then, was that, of the ten gentlemen composing the committee, nine signed a report containing some apparently startling educational judgments and four model programs. Confessedly such a result was not reached without compromise, and no one on the committee yielded more or yielded more graciously than the chairman. On several vital questions the college men of the committee yielded to the school men. Antedating this significant unanimity, was the still more surprising agreement of the conferences. Asked to return catogorical answers to eleven far-reaching questions, involving educational philosophy and pedagogical art, they replied with a unanimity that has been pronounced by others little short of miraculous. Then followed the discussion in the press and in teachers' meetings of various character, in which the report has been considered from various points of view; the public high school, the endowed academy, the small college, the collegiate preparatory school, the citizen and the parent. You know the trend, the drift, of all this discussion. Of the twenty-five formal articles in periodicals, I know of but two that can be called unfavorable. With but rare exceptions the newspaper articles have commended the report and awarded high praise to the National Educational Association. Our next surprise has to do with the apprehension that too much is proposed by the report; that haste, cram and pressure would follow the effort to realize the recommendations. The chairman was able to testify, with penetrating significance, that "there are already many secondary schools in this country in which quite as many subjects are taught as are mentioned in Table II., and in which there are more weekly periods of instruction provided for separate classes than are found in any year of the table. In some urban high schools, which provide from five to nine different courses of three to five years each, and in some endowed secondary schools which maintain two or three separate courses called Classical, Latin-Scientific, and English, or designated by similar titles, the total number of weekly periods of unrepeated instruction given to distinct classes is even now larger than the largest total of weekly periods found in Table II. The annual expenditure in such schools is sufficient to provide all the instruction called for by Table II."

And it should be borne in mind that the model programs are not those of Table II., but those of Table IV., upon which the committee at its final meeting spent nine-tenths of all its time. It was seen that these programs called for the introduction into the elementary schools of some of the new learning that all thoughtful people realize should have place. Unquestionably, the high school work has for two

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generations been retarded by the "arithmetic of many puzzles, the spelling-book with its child-frightened words, and the endless geography in which the pupil has to be *thorough*." The testimony, therefore, is most welcome that already in several communities these older subjects are receiving less time, and room has been made for the new ones. "In the best city systems," writes an experienced supervisor, "children learn more during their first year in school than was formerly learned in three years. A good foundation is now laid in the first grade for instruction in two or three branches of natural science, substantial acquisitions are made in language and number, while the advance in reading, phonetics, spelling and penmanship is quite surprising. Those who are familiar with the recent changes and improvements in primary education confidently look for a similar advance in the work of the grammar and high school. The pressure in these upper schools has already been largely removed by the absorption of their work into the lower grades. Only a few years ago English and American history, elementary botany, zoology, physics, physiology, civics and literature were all considered strictly high school subjects: now they are all taught in the lower schools, and some of them in the primary grades. The work in geography, language and drawing has been increased, and time has been found to give such oral instruction as would make children intelligent concerning occupations, manufactures and commerce. Meanwhile, the overpressure, which a few years ago was so common in schools, has disappeared most completely where these improvements and enlargements in the work have been carried to the greatest extent."

Turning now to different types of secondary schools, I quote with pleasure the statement of the principal of Andover, that the college preparatory school can meet the increased requirements without advancing the age of entrance, and to the same effect another prominent schoolmaster in New York, who says: "If the present movement is to be fruitful, let these new programs be considered as the minimum of attainment. In fact, it was, we may assume, the purpose of the Committee of Ten to offer what no high school could hereafter conscientiously curtail. Even the first year's work of the four-year scheme, considered in some quarters too decided an advance on the grammar schools, will, a few years hence, when the latter attain greater proficiency, seem devoid of unusual difficulty."

It may be safely said, that thus far complaints as to the amount of work proposed for either the elementary or secondary school have come from communities where old methods, insufficient appropriations, and low aims prevail.

Thus it appears that not only has the report accentuated the imperfect achievements of our schools: it is serving the better purpose

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of bringing to clear view the few schools and teachers that are already doing what is proposed for all.

I hesitate for various reasons to speak of the more forcible criticisms, because they have been offered chiefly by gentlemen who are in attendance upon this Association. They are naturally the best judges of the work, and in the main have spoken so kindly, even when criticising, that only loyalty to the ninety-nine other makers of the report constrains me to refer here to their criticisms.

1. It is objected that the scheme is not feasible, because it was apparently prepared for the college-fitting school and not for the public high school. It has been urged that the framers of the programs know a good deal about preparatory but little about high school work. I wish to say, as publicly and forcibly as I may, that this objection is made without knowledge. I have already referred to the preponderating influence of schoolmasters in the work of the conferences and in the committee. It should be a matter of easy observation that our more highly-equipped preparatory schools must make important sacrifices and concessions, in both quality and quantity of work, if they adopt the committee's report, and surely those who make the criticism overlook the following words of the report: "The secondary schools of the United States, taken as a whole, do not exist for the purpose of preparing boys and girls for colleges. Only an insignificant percentage of the graduates of these schools go to college or scientific schools. Their main function is to prepare for the duties of life that small proportion of all the children in the country—a proportion small in number, but very important to the welfare of the nation—who show themselves able to profit by an education prolonged to the eighteenth year, and whose parents are able to support them while they remain so long at school. There are, to be sure, a few private or endowed secondary schools in the country which make it their principal object to prepare students for the colleges and universities; but the number of these schools is relatively small. A secondary school program intended for national use must therefore be made for those children whose education is not to be pursued beyond the secondary school. The preparation of a few pupils for college or scientific school should, in the ordinary secondary school, be the incidental and not the principal object." This, I submit, could not be the language of a body of gentlemen whose report concerns only the college preparatory school.

2. A second class of criticisms relate to the omission of art studies, manual training, penmanship, elocution and book-keeping. I think it could be shown that methods of teaching drawing are pointed out in connection with work in natural history, mathematics, and other science subjects, but I am sure every member of the committee

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would be glad to see proper provision for this and other subjects named; but we were soon confronted with the stern necessity of choosing between the information studies and courses and those that possess training character. And it must be borne in mind that the final recommendations of the committee contemplate only the minima —the least that shall be attempted in a co-operative movement. We all know that French and German pupils would esteem the day's work proposed for our pupils not severe, and every alert school could find time for these subsidiary subjects.

3. But the most formidable criticisms, I presume, are those that have to do with the epoch-making words and phrases, "co-ordination," "equivalence," "educational values," and "correlation of studies." For myself, I am going to admit frankly that the committee should have depressed somewhat the use of the word "equivalence." I believe there was no valid difference of opinion upon the subject suggested by the word. If the chairman is known to have a marked conviction to the effect that Choctaw or road-making have as much educational value as Latin, there was nothing done or said by the committee in its official capacity, so far as I can recall, to give the slightest warrant or authority to such opinion. But words have crept into the report that are calculated to mislead the suspicious or unwary, and so far forth I deplore their presence. As to the settled conviction of the committee, they need only point to the programs to make clear their hyper-orthodoxy on this mooted question. Much more natural would it be to challenge such an affirmative statement as the following: "Although the committee thought it expedient to include, among the four programs, one which included neither Latin nor Greek, and one which included only one foreign language (which might be either ancient or modern), they desired to affirm explicitly their unanimous opinion that, under existing conditions in the United States as to the training of teachers and the provision of necessary means of instruction, the two programs called respectively Modern Languages and English must in practice be distinctly inferior to the other two." But the challenge aside, these are clearly not the words of people who think one study is quite as good as another for mental training.

With regard to the other phrase, "correlation of studies," we have heard strictures ranging from sharp rebuke to a gentle plaint. It is regretted that since success in introducing the newer subjects into the elementary schools depends so largely upon the proper interlacing and co-ordinating of kindred studies, more is not revealed by the committee as to how this is to be done. Admittedly our younger teachers could not be expected to have acquired this higher science or skill in work, but every well organized system of instruction faces the

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problems proposed with composure and confidence. The report itself abounds in references and illustrations of the methods to be employed, as, for example, page 21: "'That the best results in the teaching of English in high schools cannot be secured without the aid given by the study of some other language; and that Latin and German, by reason of their fuller inflectional system, are especially suited to this end.' In the case of high schools, as well as in schools of lower grade, the conference declare that every teacher, whatever his department, should feel responsible for the use of good English on the part of his pupils. In several passages of this report the idea recurs that training in English must go hand in hand with the study of other subjects. Thus the conference hope for the study of the history and geography of the English-speaking people, so far as these illustrate the development of the English language."

But the fullest and boldest illustration of the method is found in the postponement of Greek to the third year of the high school. In the light of the discussions it may appear unfortunate that the committee's explanation of this postponement deals so exclusively with the somewhat practical necessity that controlled. I believe it could be shown, also, that the postponement is feasible and desirable, because of the organic unity of all language work and the sure operation of the principle of the interlacing of related studies. Five hours a week for two years in a foreign language, taken up after two other foreign languages have been studied, should produce more satisfactory results than the ordinary three-year provisions for Greek in a less generous course of four years.

I should be very sorry, too, if our teachers have not been sufficiently aroused by the claims made for the theory of concentration or co-ordination in study to have already put it to test. They are surely not unaware of the existence of such books as those of Herbart, Stoy, Rein, the McMurrys, Seeley and Lange, and the long list of treatises upon educational psychology. Teachers have been asking themselves and others whether reading is not required in nearly all school studies, whether much in number work is not done in elementary science, geography and history; whether mastery and thoroughness in a given subject do not come quite as surely through onward as well as through circular movements.

As an American teacher, I should take umbrage at the suggestion that I could not work out the essential problems proposed in the correlation of studies, with the stimulus of these conference reports and the other valuable literature at hand. To have gone further into either prescription or description in the committee's report would have exposed the committee to the suspicion that it lacked confidence in the ability, learning and devotion of our teachers. They will now

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in yet larger numbers betake themselves to summer schools, to voluntary classes under principals and superintendents, and to special courses in our universities; and in every intelligent community there will be a growing disposition to help defray the necessary expenses of teachers who exhibit an ambition to further perfect themselves in and for their work.

Over against these, and any criticisms, let us set that body of clear, clean cut and largely new pedagogical affirmations of the report, about which we are all agreed, of whose feasibility in practice there is no question, for which our profoundest educational thinkers declare they are ready to vote with "both hands."

The time is ripe for the trial of the scheme of the report. It would have been premature ten years ago. The activities of a decade in education have prepared the way for the modifications proposed. Heralds must now precede it with appeals for some definite, preparatory steps, saying to superintendents, principals and boards of control, lengthen your secondary courses to six years, whenever possible, and begin high school work two years earlier in the life of your pupils. In this way, as in no other, you can harmonize your work with that of systems in England, France and Germany, that have been slowly evolved after generations of experience; to the typical elementary, particularly to the district school, saying, in the name of outraged childhood, cease to exact three-fourths of a pupil's time and strength for arithmetic and geography; to the college, spare schoolmasters further agony and confusion confounded by your experimentations in entrance requirements. Our work is one, and does not admit of such violent hiatuses between different colleges on the one hand and different schools on the other. After the pupil is yours exploit galore your inscrutable *a priori* theories; we now pray for union, for generally open doors for the graduates of the people's schools; to the public, to parents and boards of control, saying bravely, almost sternly, "there must be no caste in public elementary education." All children are entitled, in sheer public defense, to the best we can give. Three-fourths of them leave school before they reach the fifth year, not because of poverty, but because school life and school courses are not attractive. More accomplished teachers, richer, fuller courses of study would successfully compete with the street, the shop, and the bad book. More highly equipped teachers for younger pupils means better paid, more permanent teachers; in short, a national body of professional workers whose aims and methods would be largely inspired and directed by a public opinion enlightened and sustained by the general circulation among parents of what will doubtless in time be regarded as the first classic in American pedagogical literature.

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DISCUSSION OF REPORTS OF COMMITTEE OF TEN.

LATIN.

BY JOHN T. BUCHANAN, PRINCIPAL OF HIGH SCHOOL, KANSAS CITY, MO.

To-day the world is moving faster intellectually than it has ever moved before. There are more eyes open to see; more ears eager to hear; more tongues ready to criticise. It is, then, but natural that revolutions come faster, that extremes follow more quickly.

We are confronted with a revolution in educational matters. Educators are not satisfied with the methods used in a large number of our schools; nor with the time taken to perform given amounts of work; nor with the qualifications of the teachers attempting to do this work; nor with the methods of articulation of one system of schools with another; nor with many other things belonging to the pedagogics of our schools. To get unity out of the great diversity that exists in our heterogeneous system, and to get before the public mind the conditions as they are, and to get suggestions as to what remedies might be applied, the Committee of Ten called together nine conferences of ten persons each to discuss the matters pertaining to their respective departments of secondary education, and instructed them to report back their recommendations.

Of all the various reports of these nine conferences, the two referring to the classical languages seem to me the most rational. In them no attempt has been made to show how much could be demanded, nor do they comprise a new encyclopædia on the subjects. They emphasize quality; they limit quantity; they are concise and to the point.

As to the demands made by the Greek conference, I have but little to say. The report asks for three years of Greek, and that the study of Greek be commenced one year after the pupil has entered upon that of Latin. The inductive fad is kindly referred to, but not viewed with any favor, and the proper way to pronounce Greek with the Attic, Ionic and Æolic accents is not mentioned. The report is clear throughout. One need not be a college professor to understand it.

The Latin report is fully as strong as the Greek one, but, unfortunately, it is not quite so clear. In the second section of the "Recommendations" we find the following language: "Education below the high school course should be so organized that students may be prepared to enter upon that course at least a year earlier than, in most places, they now do." What does this mean? Does it mean that the grammar school course shall end at a time one year earlier than it now does? or does it mean that pupils in these schools who intend to take Latin shall be allowed to take it there for one year before they finish the course, from teachers doing other work in the grammar schools, or from teachers from the high school set apart for this special work? To the uninitiated the report proposes to water the stock. It proposes to demand two more years of the child's life to perform work that ought to be accomplished in the four years granted by the people in most of our cities. To them the report is not even definite as to where it wishes the two years placed: whether the high school course should be extended from four to six years, or whether Latin should be taught in grammar grades. They say, if in the grammar grades, who are to be the instructors? College graduates of experience will not teach at grammar grade salaries; and we all know that the first years of any study are the important ones. They ask the question: "Will the people allow the appointment of special teachers for Latin?" There may be special teachers in German and French in some of the larger cities where the foreign vote counts, but alas!

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there is no Latin vote to be gained. They ask further: "Will the people permit the high school course to be extended from four to six years, in order to allow a pupil to use the time of sixty months in getting what he ought to get in forty?" I agree with them in their answer: "We fear they will not." If the Latin teachers will only be practical in their demands, practical in their work, practical in their methods, the results will show what they can do, and the people will stand by them. There is no need of extending the time, if they do hard, honest, efficient work and do not waste their time in unburying mummies,—so-called Latin fads,—mummies that common sense and practical experience entombed long ago in European countries.

But the uninitiated have the wrong idea. They have not interpreted the language of this section as the authors of it intended. In the Latin conference, it was shown that in many parts of the United States, notably in Massachusetts, nine years are taken for the completion of what is called the grammar school work; while in other parts of the country, Kansas City, Mo., for instance, only seven years are taken for doing the preparatory work for the high school. The members of that conference believed that nine years was too long a time to be given to grammar grade work, and they therefore couched their courteous and respectful recommendation in the language as found in section 2. It was never intended by them that the high school should dip down into the grammar schools, take two of their years, and thus increase the course of the high schools to one of six years; but rather that grammar school courses should be so arranged as not to take more than eight years for their completion; and that the time thus gained should be given as a part of the four years allowed for high school work.

The amount of work demanded by the conference is reasonable. From my personal experience and observation, I know that every requirement, both qualitative and quantitative, can be fulfilled, and is fulfilled in many places; and I am of the opinion that if it is not fulfilled wherever Latin is taught it is the fault of the teacher, who, either on account of his lack of scholarship or of his method, or of both combined, does not accomplish what can be accomplished. The truth is forced upon us, that the objections against the study of the classics have their source largely in the superficial way in which the subjects are taught. The subject is often attacked when the method of teaching it should be censured. The remedy offered by the committee may be found in section 14 of the "Recommendations," where it emphasizes the necessity of a high grade of scholarship in the teachers of Latin, especially in the teachers of the lower classes. If this be insisted upon, we shall have greater efficiency in our teachers and better methods of teaching the subject. As long as we shall find teachers in our best high schools wasting their time and that of their charges in unscientific teaching, and in following fads, we have no right to demand more time. In a beginning Homer class, I once saw a teacher waste four weeks of valuable time in expounding to his class Wolf's "Theory," and in trying to prove to his pupils that Homer's poems were not written by Homer. It would be as useless as for the English literature class to while away their time by investigating Bacon's interest in Shakespeare's work, or Ignatius Donnelly's interest in Bacon. In a beginning Latin class, I know a silver-tongued teacher who used a full recitation period in a masterly rhetorical effort to explain to his class the different shades of meaning of the various Latin words meaning "to journey," something after this fashion:

"Now, young ladies and young gentlemen, if you lived in the cultured city of Boston, a city so full of historical associations, surrounded, as it were, by the greatest institutions of learning on this continent, and you were a Latin and should

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wish to depart from that city, to go away from its hallowed influences,—what word would you use to express that wish? You, you, you (pointing to different pupils in the class). Ah, you cannot tell me? Well, then, I will tell you. You would use the word '*proficiscor.*' *Proficiscor* is a deponent word of the third conjugation, whose principal parts are *proficiscor, proficisci, profectus sum* and it means to depart, to depart, to depart. Yes, you see, to depart, to go out of or away from. Now, after leaving this renowned city, and traveling for days through the beautiful fields of the Mississippi Valley, and coming to that bustling, thriving, noisy city of Kansas City, situated at the mouth of the Kaw—a city resembling in many features that ancient one on the banks of the yellow Tiber—a city of seventy and seven hills, one not of the Roman soldier but of the cowboy, you should wish to go out to the beautiful little suburb of Westport to see Sister Brown, and then go over to that other little suburb of Harlem to see Sister Smith, and down to that beautiful capital city near by, Independence, to see Sister Jones, and you were a Latin, what word would you use to express the wish? You, you, you (pointing again). Ah, you cannot tell me? Well, I will tell you. You would use '*iter facere.*' *Iter* is a neuter noun of the third declension, young ladies and young gentlemen: *iter, itineris.* The peculiarity of the third declension is, that the accusative and vocative endings in the neuter are the same as the nominative; and the ending of these three cases in the plural is always '*a.*' *Facere* is a verb of the third conjugation, from *facio, facere, feci, factum;* and *iter facere* means to make a journey, little visits out a short piece, a going from place to place to see friends, visiting, as it were. Leaving this city that reminds one so much of ancient Rome, passing through the blooming valleys of Kansas, once called the Great American Desert, 'doing' the beautiful city of Denver, with all her kaleidoscopic beauties, passing rapidly in panoramic view the Royal Gorge, Marshall Pass and the Black Canyon of the Gunnison, and hurrying through the lovely homes of the Mormons and the thrifty vineyards and orchards of California, and taking passage in one of those magnificent ocean steamers that ply the placid waters of the Pacific; if then, arriving at one of the great cities of the Eastern hemisphere, you should travel from place to place, visiting the noble art galleries, the wonderful and mighty amphitheaters, the soul-stirring musical conservatories, you should behold all the great and grand things of that peerless Eastern country, and were a Latin, what word would you use for this traveling from place to place? You, you, you (with the old gesture). Ah, you cannot tell me? Well, I will tell you. You would use the word '*peregrinor.*' *Peregrinor* is a deponent verb of the first conjugation, from *peregrinor, peregrinari, peregrinatus,* and means 'to journey in a foreign country.' Now, young ladies and young gentlemen, I regret exceedingly that the hour is so short that I cannot continue further this recitation which you have given so well. Don't you agree with me that this recitation has brought out many things that you ought to know?"

It seems to me that work of this kind does not belong to the first year of Latin. It is more in keeping with college practices, and should be left to these institutions.

Another reason for the poor quality of work done in some communities may be found in the fact that poor text-books are used. In former times, when the good, old-fashioned text-books were the only ones in the market, there was little complaint of the chasm between the first year's work and that of the Cæsar class. In modern times, new books have been manufactured by ambitious educators. "An Easy Way to Get Latin," "Latin in Six Weeks," "How to Get Latin Without Studying It," have become very popular. It is strange that this popularity lasts only during the first year, for when Cæsar appears on the stage, and Dumnorix, the

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illusion vanishes. Bridges have to be built and the beautiful stories of the Gradatim have to be composed in order to arouse genuine enthusiasm in the juvenile mind. In my estimation, a good, thorough first-year book in Latin will be found the most efficient bridge to Cæsar.

The recommendations of the committee are all right when properly interpreted; but, in some of the side lights thrown on to illuminate them, the glare is somewhat brilliant. Those outside the chosen few are made to see that sight-reading is to be made the beginning in the study of language, rather than the end to be attained by it, and that Latin is now to be read from a literary standpoint, and by students, too, who are sadly deficient in the rudiments of Latin etymology. Some will go so far as to say, "Before long we shall have a manual on Roman elocution." But I wish to say right here that Cicero himself, if he should find time to return from the Elysian fields, could not help us to obtain the true Roman accent and intonation. Some writers on the Latin tongue describe more or less accurately the positions of the organs of speech while uttering the various Latin sounds. But who will have the boldness to say that the bill of the crow, although in the same relative position, will produce the same sweetness of sound as that of the canary? Our utilitarian citizen, as he, looking over the schemes for the sounds of the letters, comes upon the following, "Final 'm' preceding an initial vowel (or vowel with 'h') should be pronounced as a faint nasal sound, the lips approaching the ordinary 'm' position, but not touching; the pronunciation before a consonant is doubtful; and for the present, a change from the sound of the English 'm' is not recommended," can almost be heard to say: "*'O tempora! O mores!*" The people see it; the people read it; and these men live! and they live not only to lay down their wisdom, but even to increase it; for ere long they will discover the sound of 'm' before a consonant, too; and what a revolution there will be!"

And this brings to my mind what a chance the Greek conference lost, when it neglected to regulate the pronunciation of Old Ionic, New Ionic, and genuine Attic. What a mental training could be obtained, if only we could read Homer's verses as Homer used to read them, follow strictly the enunciation of Herodotus; and if we could but reach the correct imitation of the Attic Bee, the morn of the millennium would certainly have dawned upon us.

As these are but reflections upon the side lights and not upon the recommendations, I will close by saying:

To sum up, I should not attempt to modify the programs of elementary schools for the purpose of introducing the study of Latin. I should recommend, wherever to be taught in secondary schools, a four years' course of Latin and a three years' course of Greek; the quantity of work as now found in our best high schools to remain the same; the quality to be improved, not by adding time, and therewith watering the material, but by improving methods, teachers and text-books; by leaving out things immaterial and strictly ornamental, and by giving time spent in cultivating fads and satisfying vanity to thorough, honest, practical work.

ENGLISH.

BY DR. A. F. NIGHTINGALE, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CHICAGO, ILL.

The Committee of Ten, clothed with the authority of the National Educational Association to appoint nine other committees of ten each, men of the largest experience and the widest repute, who should consult concerning the application of

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proper remedies to cure the evils which make the secondary schools (God save the mark!) "the most defective part of the education of this country," have published their report.

No such educational movement, whether considered in the light of its conception, or in the light of its denouement, was ever before attempted.

The report is by far the best contribution to educational theory of the century, whether we consider the range of subjects discussed, and the exhaustive treatment of each, or the high character, scholarly ability and rich and varied experience of the contributors.

The committee was nationally appointed for a national purpose, and it was fair to presume that the results of their deliberations were published for no other reason than to receive the commendation, the criticism, or the condemnation of the free-thinking, individual-minded educators of this country.

Personally I have had no words but those of exalted praise for this marvelous report, issued with such marvelous unanimity in such a marvelously short time; but there are those who, out of their large experience, and with the independence of the American spirit, have dared to place some strictures upon the conclusions reached. They are men whose experience entitles them to be heard with candor, whose opinions I respect, and whose judgment on educational matters would lead me to review my own.

Wendell Phillips once said: "If the Alps, piled in cold and still sublimity, be the emblem of despotism, then the ever-restless ocean is ours, which girt within the eternal laws of gravitation is pure only because never still." So it seems to me that the far-reaching and long-abiding benefits of this report are to be secured, not from an idolatrous adoption of its every tenet, but through the ceaseless agitation, in every educational circle, of the ideas propounded, so that out of the revolution that has been inaugurated may come reformation, progress, advancement.

Less than one hundred years ago a young girl in Hatfield, Mass., was in the habit of going to the schoolhouse, and sitting on the door-step that she might listen to the recitations of the boys, in a building across whose threshold no girl might pass as a pupil. Less than four score years ago, Emma Willard, of sainted memory, gave the first examination in this country to a young lady in geometry, and about the same time she introduced into her little school in Middlebury, Vt., the study of physiology, and so great was the innovation, that at the examination the entire audience, shocked at the indelicacy of teaching such a subject to girls, rose and left the room, and they were not Christian Scientists either. These instances, with which our own fathers and mothers were conversant, seem strange to us now, and I refer to them only to show, that notwithstanding all the defects of our present educational system, its puerile methods, and its meager results, there has been constant improvement since 1792, when a Massachusetts town was indicted for voting "not to be at any expense for schooling girls."

It is with this optimistic spirit that I approach the discussion of this much analyzed subject of English.

It is my conviction that the highest interests of our schools would be best subserved, if, without a single attempt at exegesis, this most admirable and most exhaustive report of the conference of English could be adopted and placed on trial as the *ne plus ultra* of matter and method in the instruction of the English language and of English literature in all our primary and secondary schools.

I do not agree with all the propositions of all the conferences as set forth in this educational encyclical, but I am in hearty accord with this superb report of the conference on English, which is so largely permeated with the empirical thought

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of that teaching genius, who has aroused on this subject the white heat of enthusiasm, Dr. Samuel Thurber.

It is not my province to discuss the recommendations of the conference relative to elementary schools, but "if," quoting from the report, "during the period of life when imitation is the chief motive principle in education," the child could "be kept away from the influence of bad models and under the influence of good models," and if "every thought which he expresses would be used as a proper subject for criticism as to language," all of which is practically impossible amid such a lamentable lack of language culture among the common school teachers of to-day, then indeed would there be little to change or criticise in our secondary schools, and our colleges would be a veritable "Paradise Regained" for the professors of literature.

It is the process of undoing what has been poorly done, and of doing what has been left undone, that dissipates the strength, shocks the sensibilities and destroys the nerves of our secondary teachers, most of whom are the products of the wisdom of the colleges.

When the radical reforms now being attempted shall have culminated in perfecting the *what* and the *how* in our lower schools, then shall we make axiomatic the maxim that "the beginning is half the end."

Taking exceptions to the brief and summary way in which the committee discard the spelling-book, which we believe to be still a spell of power and of might in all schools where the foreign element largely predominates, we commend this portion of the report as a New Testament on the teaching of English.

I do but echo the universal opinion of all competent to judge in maintaining, that language is or ought to be basic study in all our schools. It is the fountain head whence flow all the helpful, healing streams of education. Language is the key that unlocks all human thought and gives voice to all human aspirations. To think well, to speak well, to write well; these are the rightful heritage, the common prerogative of all who are correctly educated.

Words are ammunition in the battery of intelligence, steam in the engines of thought, true coin in the exchange marts of scholastic culture. A man without words is like a beautiful ship launched upon the welcome bosom of the sea without a pilot. There is no substitute for language. It is the common carrier of all thought, the drawn sword in all strife, and the one language that American pupils should study through all their career is the English language. Courses of instruction, however, that confine language study to the English, eliminating foreign tongues, ancient or modern, ignominiously fail in the production of that power essential to modern culture.

I would have children at the age of ten or eleven years commence the study of that language, which in the fields of persuasion and philosophy, of literature and law, is so largely the progenitor of the English—the incomparable Latin. This is the international arsenal out of which men in all ages have taken the weapons of words with which they have fought the battles of all genuine culture. Latin is the carboniferous age in its relation to modern thought. We heat our firesides now by the consumed and adapted sunlight of paleozoic times, so the light of modern literature and law comes from the intellectual sunlight that warmed the souls of the great masters of Greece and Rome. Side by side in daily study the two languages should be pursued, the Latin constantly illuminating the English, and making the study of our native tongue more and more a delight, therefore, more and more fascinating, and as an inevitable sequence, more and more profitable.

It cannot be controverted that Latin, as someone has recently written, is the most valuable and loyal handmaid in securing that accurate and discriminating use of the English language which is the sign and seal of the educated and the cultured.

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I therefore deprecate the force and fervor of that movement, now gathering strength, which would permit some modern language to usurp the place which rightly belongs to Latin, and for which there is no adequate alternative.

In large cities, for utilitarian reasons, German may be suffered as an elective. But to introduce French as a culture study into our grammar schools, to accompany that of the English, to the exclusion of Latin, will work mischief, and defeat the very ends for which we all labor, viz., a fluent and facile use of the English language as an instrument for the expression of thought by our pupils.

The controversial history of the last two decades in regard to humane studies has established the fact, that there is no substitute for classical learning. I still believe in the Cape Horn route to culture; not in the short cut, the miasmatic way across the Isthmus.

If we would be strong, we must contend with something, resist something, conquer something. We cannot gain muscle "on a bed of eider-down." Toying with straws will only enervate the faculties. The blacksmith's arm becomes mighty through his ponderous strokes of the hammer upon the anvil. The very facility of acquisition of the modern languages precludes the possibility of discipline.

Put Latin into our common schools and the puzzling problem of English grammar will be nearing its solution, for the *why* that meets the pupil at every step, the very laboriousness and difficulty of the task, will open the intellect, develop the powers of discrimination and adaptation, enlarge the vocabulary, enable the student to write a better English essay, use a more terse and trenchant style of speech, and grasp with more avidity and keenness any promulgated form of thought, than if he should spend quintuple the time in the study of English grammar alone.

It is clear that the English conference, as President Eliot says, "intend that the study of English shall be in all respects as serious and informing as the study of Latin;" but they did not commit the error of saying that it should be as serious and informing as the study of French.

Permitting me to digress a moment, I have always believed until recently that the course of study in our high schools should be the same, whether the pupil's immediate outlook was the activities of life or a college course; that a good preparation for college was the best preparation for any alternative; but the demand on the part of some of the leading colleges, that pupils must enter with an elementary knowledge of three foreign languages will forever prevent this desideratum on the part of our high schools.

Pupils cannot afford to devote so large a portion of their time to foreign languages at the risk of not going to college, but substitute one or two sciences, physics and chemistry or biology, for one foreign language, ancient or modern, then will the high schools of this country rise to the occasion and infuse the college spirit into all their pupils.

While no one will essay to contravene the logic that each teacher in every school (and I would not except the college) should be a paragon of excellence in the use of English, an exemplar of a pure and polished style, and an untiring critic of those habits, formed from environment, which make our young people careless in their choice and slovenly in their arrangement of words, spoken and written, nevertheless I believe it of paramount importance that the departments of rhetoric, English language and English literature should be under the care of special teachers who are enthused on this subject; teachers of a contagious personal influence, who worship at the throne of language, who have mastered the subtle power of rhetoric, and who constitute a Thesaurus of English literature from which they may enrich the heart, stimulate the intellect, and infuse the reading spirit into the soul of every pupil.

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To be sure, a physicist, who looks with contempt upon the idea that he must watch the English expressions of his pupils in the laboratory and correct the form as well as the fact of their written exercises, is a poor teacher and ought not to be tolerated; yet, as it is essential that science should be taught by scientists, and Latin and Greek by superb linguists, so it is equally desirable that the essentials of a good style in writing and the inculcation of a taste for good reading should be in the keeping of specialists who have made the history and the masterpieces of literature their chief delight.

As we can learn to converse only by conversing, to debate only by debating, and to write only by writing, so the pupils in all schools of all grades, including especially the college and the university, should be constantly employed in giving their thoughts a tongue, and in transferring them to written exercises, essays and theses.

Rhetoric is being taught to-day in the colleges very much as it is in the high schools, and with about the same results. There is too much distrust of the higher for the lower, and time is wasted in trying to do what we are prone to believe others have left undone.

So long as New England colleges insist in dividing the entrance examination in English into two parts, the second of which shall be: "The candidate will be required to correct specimens of bad English set for him at the time of the examination," so long will our secondary schools produce miserable results in a study that ought to be the crown and glory of those schools.

At the risk of excommunication, I would recommend that a conference of primary and secondary teachers be appointed to suggest to the colleges some rational method of examination in English. Then would this idea of correcting bad specimens be "relegated to the limbo of discarded absurdities."

I am not quite in sympathy with the plan to postpone the study of technical rhetoric until the third year, to be limited to forty lessons. I appreciate that this course is good form, and quite consonant with the dictum of the so-called inductive method. O thou baleful word, Induction! what sins are committed in thy name! Yet, I believe that, following the pursuit of technical English grammar in the lower schools, there should be a somewhat systematic study of the principles and maxims of elementary rhetoric and English composition in the first year of the high schools; that all these exercises should be illustrated and illuminated by the reading of choice specimens of English style, and by original work on the part of the pupil, as a basis for the after study of the English classics and of English literature. In this way, the first object of the teaching of English may be secured, viz.: "To enable a pupil to understand the expressed thought of others, and to give expression to thoughts of his own."

To secure the second, viz.: "To cultivate a taste for good reading, to give the pupil some acquaintance with good literature, and to furnish him with the means of extending that acquaintance," I would have forty or fifty books for the English laboratory of each year of the high school. They should be furnished in such quantities in duplicate as to accommodate all the pupils; they must be wisely graded and selected with the greatest care as to style and content; they should be suited to all talent and to every good taste, and each pupil should be encouraged to read one book a month throughout his entire course. In the earlier years he should present original reproductions of some of these books, and as his ability to reflect and draw inferences increases he should prepare intelligent book reviews.

All this written work should be conscientiously and pleasurably criticised with each individual writer, the best productions read as class exercises, and frequent

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conversations indulged in between teachers and pupils concerning the motive of the book, and the lessons it inculcates.

This is no idle theory. I have watched its results for some years, and it is no exaggeration to say, that I know of scores of pupils the current of whose life and character has been turned into new channels by this method, and who will be readers of the best literature while life lasts, always finding contentment, even in solitude, and enjoying the sublimest associations, whatever be their lot in the daily drudgery of life.

In conclusion, in no one study has there been such advancement in late years as in the teaching of English; and since all educational reform must come from above, if the colleges will modify their methods of examination, abandon the deleterious system of presenting specimens of bad English for correction, allow our high schools to introduce a laboratory method of teaching English, similar to that used in the department of physics, permitting pupils to present note-books, essays and book reviews as a partial test of their preparation, change the requirements of admission in foreign languages, to two instead of three, allow a few discreet substitutions in the sciences, then will the requirements of graduation from the high schools and the requirements of admission to the colleges be in harmony, and we shall enter upon a new era of educational progress in this country before we cross the threshold of the twentieth century.

HISTORY.

BY FRANK M. McMURRY, ILLINOIS STATE UNIVERSITY.

The report of the Committee of Ten on history, political economy and civil government was prepared by ten gentlemen, seven of whom are college professors. It pertains to the course of study in these subjects and the method of teaching them in grammar and high schools.

There is a conviction, somewhat common, that college professors are poorer instructors than public school teachers; that they know little about common school work, and care less. The question immediately arises, therefore, what right have these ten gentlemen to give advice on these topics? What proofs do they offer of their fitness?

Their moderation is their first recommendation. Although college specialists in history, political economy and civil government, they resolve that "civil government in the grammar schools should be taught by oral lessons, with the use of collateral text-books, and in connection with United States history and local geography;" also that "no formal instruction in political economy be given in secondary schools, but that, in connection particularly with United States history, civil government and commercial geography, instruction be given" in some economic questions. They do not ask to increase the amount of time devoted to either of these studies, and they even deny formal independence to political economy in the high school. There is nothing narrow or grasping in that standpoint.

They possess the merit also of a living faith in pedagogy. Although college professors, they actually believe that a knowledge of history does not insure the ability to teach it. Their eighteenth resolution reads: "That it is desirable that in all schools history be taught by persons who not only have a fondness for historical study, but who also have paid special attention to effective methods of imparting

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instruction." In other words, they say: "It would be as sensible for schools to employ a deaf and dumb person to teach reading, or to ask a Cherokee to teach Latin, as to depend for the teaching of history on persons who have not had a special training in history." Such statements certainly tend to arouse confidence in the committee.

But other facts prove them not only worthy of confidence, but wonderfully well fitted for their undertaking: they have shown a remarkable knowledge and appreciation of the present status and of the present problems in common school education.

The amount of time they wish to see devoted to history and its allied subjects seems, at first, extreme. At present there is given to it in the grammar school only one year of daily recitations, and in the high school about the same number of recitations extending over two years. They recommend, however, more than four times as much time for it; or about one-eighth of the school time after the first four years of school. In making the recommendation they call to mind the special responsibility thrown upon our systems of education by the great number of children of foreigners, children who must depend on the schools for their notions of American institutions, or of anything outside of their contracted circle. The public schools of Germany and France teach, I think, more history than is here recommended, although there are few foreigners in those countries. They do so because they believe that so much study of history is necessary in order to develop a proper knowledge and appreciation of one's own country. From their standpoint, considering the number of foreigners among us, the suggestion of the committee must seem very moderate.

Their distribution of the time given to history involves a very important point for our public schools. Heretofore it has been our policy to devote daily recitations to subjects for short periods, rather than two or three recitations per week for long periods. For instance it is the custom in Illinois high schools to give one or two terms of daily recitations to physics, instead of one year of two or three recitations per week. The same holds true in general of grammar school work; the studies recite daily. The committee suggest an important innovation here, *i. e.*, three forty-minute recitations per week during eight years; or according to the shorter course, during six years. Their thought is that a certain amount of study given to a subject has a greater effect if it is continued over a longer period than we commonly give it. They are opposed to short courses. Their theory is already generally applied in European schools and in American universities. If it is correct, it should be applied to most, or all, of our studies; hence, it may ultimately exert a great influence upon our curriculum.

The committee have not blindly demanded more than four times the usual amount of history without knowing where at least some of the time was to come from. One of the most prominent topics among educators to-day is that of concentration, or the relationship of the studies to one another; and the report under consideration is extraordinary in the attention that it gives to this topic. It suggests comparisons, as between thoughts in literary selections, campaigns in history, customs and institutions of peoples, and the facts of any given study; but further than that, it insists repeatedly that the various studies be welded to one another, that cross-relationships in all directions be established. Thus, literature, commercial, political, historical and topographical geography, English grammar and composition, civil government and political economy are to be brought into a close relation to one another. This demand is the most striking feature of the report, if we except the great amount of time asked for history. Without entering into the theoretical reasons for this stand, the committee remark that such an arrangement of the

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studies would save much time. In that way a good part of the required time can be found. Herein is seen the thorough insight of the committee into the peculiar advantages of a proper correlation of studies.

The fact that they reject outline books in general history is further proof of pedagogical fitness for their undertaking. Instead of pursuing a general history of the world, they would associate other facts about those of one or more countries. That idea, if extensively applied, would effect a revolution in high school text-books on history.

The reforms suggested under method are likewise far-reaching and imbued with the spirit of modern ideas. The most weighty recommendation is that oral instruction be substituted to a considerable degree for text-book work. History in the fifth and sixth grades is to be oral; civil government in the grammar school and political economy in the high school are to be taught without any formal text-book. The committee evidently are convinced that we are, in general, making a very slavish use of text-books. They speak favorably of object lessons in civil government, such as perhaps excursions to police courts, to legislatures, etc. School-room apparatus also receives some attention. We are inclined to believe that we are fully up with the times in that department; but the words of the committee, in speaking of wall maps and historical atlases, run thus: "In no other civilized country are good and cheap maps so rare, and our school atlases are notoriously inferior to those of France and Germany." The maps at the World's Fair attested to this fact. Those of France, and especially of Germany, were much superior, for school purposes, to the others there exhibited. It is suggested, further, that there is much room for improvement in the nature of our questions. Instead of being dry memory tests, as is so commonly the case, they can better be so framed as to awaken thought and test the pupil's good sense. This applies to examination questions for entrance to college, and also to questions in reviews, as well as to others. These numerous recommendations are modern and pat: having been reached unanimously by such distinguished gentlemen they should have great weight with every teacher in the land.

But, in my opinion, the committee have also shown a remarkable degree of weakness in two points, one of which is the most fundamental one in the whole report. The latter pertains to the purpose of school and the purpose of history. The report affirms that the principal end of all education is training; that the mind is chiefly developed in three ways, *i. e.*, by cultivating the powers of discriminating observation, by strengthening the logical faculty, and by improving the judgment; that, while the natural sciences are best adapted to cultivate the habits of observation, and mathematics the reasoning faculties, history and its allied branches are peculiarly fitted to promote the invaluable mental power called judgment.

I fully believe that this statement of the principal end of education and of history and this conception of the human mind are behind the times. It used to be asserted that discipline was the main object of education, and that word has been employed so seldom in this report that I suspect that the committee purposely avoided it. But they did not better matters by substituting training in its stead.

Training is a still more indefinite term. I scarcely understand what is meant when one says that the principal end of all education is training; and when the explanation is given, as in this case, that it means the development of the powers or faculties of the mind, the reply is at hand, that recent psychology and pedagogy tend to deny that the mind is composed of a bundle of powers or faculties.

Even if the old style psychology were probably correct, the committee's statement of the chief object of historical study would still be a surprise. It is declared to be "the training of the judgment in selecting the grounds of an opinion, in

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accumulating the materials for an opinion, in putting things together, in generalizing upon facts, in estimating character, in applying the lessons of history to current events, and in accustoming children to state their conclusions in their own words." It is evident, from these words, that the training or exercising of the intellect is the leading thought in the minds of the committee. Recent educational theory does not accept that as the highest work of history. It makes the development of good character the main object of the school; it regards motive as the chief element in good character, and relies upon history and literature as the most effective agents for the development of right motive. According to it, the highest value of history consists in its ability to awaken right desires by presenting ideals which pupils learn to love. It not only teaches them to discriminate between right and wrong, to estimate character, *i. e.*, to show a knowledge of the right, but to love and gradually to do what is right. The committee seem to recognize this value of history, but they give it a subordinate rank. Inasmuch as they declare the training of the judgment to be the chief thing, they take an unpsychological stand and set a low estimate upon their favorite branch of study.

The other matter of complaint has reference to method. The greatest defect in our present method of teaching history lies in the fact that our subject-matter is not classified; that the facts stand in one long list, without a discrimination of the more important from the less important. The committee advise that some facts be omitted; but they furnish no criterion by which to determine the relative value of facts so that the right ones may be omitted. In this respect history is far behind the natural sciences, arithmetic and grammar. All of these studies are aiming openly at generalizations. The natural laws in the sciences and the rules in arithmetic and grammar are the culminating points of the instruction in these subjects. They contain thousands of facts; what ones should be taught? Those that lead to the understanding and appreciation of the desired generalizations, the laws and rules. Other facts may be interesting, but it is wise to omit them; knowing the generalizations, the way is clear.

But in history no one has ever stated or collected the generalizations and shown just what material could lead to them. The result is, that the study is in a chaotic state, and the instruction in it is almost always to a considerable degree unintelligent. To-day the highest, the best truths of United States history are omitted because of the want of arrangement of the subject-matter. For example, the cause of the civil war is largely omitted from our teaching. Not one high school pupil in fifty sees just why our union should be preserved. There are already three governments in North America, *i. e.*, Mexico, United States and Canada. They are getting along well; why couldn't four flourish as well? Then, if some of our States wish to withdraw, why should men sacrifice their lives to prevent it? This question of secession is not yet fully settled, and is not likely to be soon; still, it is a matter of vital importance. The general truth that "united we stand, divided we fall," should be taught with great care; it should become a conviction following out of numerous concrete facts. It is our duty to discover what parts of our history contain these facts and what they are.

Again, patriotism is a general notion which must be developed out of individual notions. But text-books do not show satisfactorily what different experiences are necessary to develop it with a fair degree of completeness, nor do they even attempt a collection of the same.

Another important truth that our history could well teach is, that the world is moving forward; that civilization is progressing. A conviction on this point tends towards optimism, and hence has a benign influence on life. A careful comparison

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of the ways, at different periods, of caring for the sewerage of cities, of heating houses, of treating children, etc., would make this valuable thought clear and strong.

But our history instruction is omitting such truths as these three mentioned, or is leaving them entirely to accident. If arithmetic and the sciences showed the same carelessness they would prove utter failures. Generalizations are not properly reached unless they are consciously aimed at, and even laboriously planned. It is upon this point that discussion of method in teaching history greatly needs to be centered. Our committee have signally failed to open up this field; they hovered about its entrance a little by a few blind remarks in regard to inductive work and generalizations, but they did not seem to know it.

In conclusion, I would say that we have before us the most valuable publication on history in the English language, so far as I know. It is valuable both because of the eight or ten extraordinary recommendations that it makes, and because it shows the present state of history instruction in this country.

It is, however, weak in two points—probably the most important ones possible—*i. e.*, first, as to the purpose of the public school and of history in particular; second, as to the generalizations that history contains and the arrangement of its subject-matter so that they can be reached. The standpoint on the former topic is not up with the times, and the latter is, strange to say, almost entirely omitted.

PRESIDENT C. K. ADAMS of the Wisconsin State University said: As chairman of the Committee on History, I have been very much entertained and gratified by the commendations and by the criticisms to which we have listened. I do not feel disposed to take much time in discussing the matter. I wish only to elaborate a little one of the points touched upon in the report. It seems to me to be a most useful recommendation in the report, that the study of history should not be pursued spasmodically, as it now is, but through a long period, beginning earlier in the course of the students and carried on continuously to the end of the student's preparatory course.

The recommendations of the Committee of Ten perhaps departed quite as far from the recommendations of the Conference on History as on any other subject. It was, I suppose, because the conference had a profound conviction that history must be studied as a whole; that it could not be taken up and studied in parts; that History should be a part of the work and the life of every pupil, from the time he is beginning to study until he goes to college. In our opinion the study should begin in the primary school, but not through the use of text-books. I remember very distinctly, when a student in Germany, I went into one of the preparatory schools, and the most impressive thing I saw was the teaching of history to a class of boys of eight years of age. The first lesson I heard, was on a subject that would ordinarily not be thought to be very inspiring. It was entirely oral, and very interesting, as the teacher called attention to the leading facts in the life of the person, and it seemed to me at that time that I never saw a class of any age listen to instruction with more attention; and as I went into the class the next day I never heard results reported more successfully than by those boys of eight. The work was repeated with so much fidelity and accuracy, that it seemed to me they had learned every word that had been given to them. Although the conversation or talk of the teacher was all there was of it. They do not believe that pupils from six to twelve can do very much in the way of actual study.

The committee were impressed profoundly with the idea that important changes in this regard should be introduced into our methods of teaching history. I am glad to see that changes have taken place within the last few years. Ten or fifteen years ago it seemed to me, when I was engaged in the active work of teaching history

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in the university, that it made absolutely no difference whether the student had studied history in the preparatory school or not; he came to his work with a mind that was practically vacant of all historical knowledge. I believe that is no longer true; but it is still true that our pupils do not come to us with that systematic knowledge desirable, concerning what the growth of civilization has been. Every German boy, before he goes to the university, has been taken three times over the whole of history in three different ways—first in a biographical way, then in a way that shall teach him a narrative of events as a whole, and thirdly, in a way that shall emphasize and teach him the meaning of the great events with which he has already become familiar. Until we can do this in our own schools, we cannot pretend to have done so much as the German and French schools do for history, in fitting students for the university.

MORAL TRAINING THROUGH THE COMMON BRANCHES.

BY DR. CHARLES DE GARMO, PRESIDENT SWARTHMORE COLLEGE, PENNSYLVANIA.

The public schools being for all sects, we have instinctively resisted every effort to sectarianize them in the interest of any given organization. Setting our faces thus resolutely against every tendency to utilize the schools for proselyting purposes, we have doubtless succeeded in intellectualizing them to an unwarranted extent. Doing so much to sharpen the wits, we have perhaps not done enough to develop the character. Without underestimating or displacing any means or method now found in the school for the development of moral character, the purpose of the present paper is to inquire if we cannot utilize more fully for moral ends the means now unquestionably at our disposal. It is not unnatural, in view of the history of such efforts in the past, that men should jump to the conclusion, that because we cannot teach religious doctrines in the public schools we are consequently unable to accomplish in them any adequate moral training. Only an analysis of what constitutes moral training and an examination of the value of the common branches in this respect can show what we may fairly expect from an honest, clear-sighted teacher working in the most efficient manner with these materials now at command. It takes a weary time for the world to acknowledge the validity of a new idea or to view old problems from new standpoints. The notion that specific religious doctrines and observances are the indispensable basis of any moral development worthy the name has been so long prevalent in the world, that it is difficult to get serious attention to other means, which, if not so good in some respects, have the advantage of being at free disposal. Teach morals

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through the inculcation of religious systems we cannot, but not a hand will be raised to stay us when we propose to utilize to their highest extent the value of the common studies as instruments of moral training.

A man is religious when he bears the right relations to his Maker. He is moral when he bears the right relations to his fellowmen, both in their individual and in their organized capacity. Some men who would scorn to cheat an individual out of a nickel, will unblushingly steal a ride on a train if the opportunity offers. They distinguish between persons and organizations. They are moral in private, but immoral in public intercourse.

An analysis of moral character shows three prominent characteristics, viz., moral insight, moral disposition and moral habit. Unless one has an intelligent insight into the quality of moral actions, his deeds can never be counted moral, however agreeable or useful they may be. We ascribe no moral or immoral nature to the ox that drags the load, the rabid dog that destroys his master, or the bird whose song delights the ear, because these are lacking in power to discriminate between that which is morally good or bad.

In the same way moral disposition, or the right attitude of the mind toward those with whom we come into moral relations, is essential to the moral deed. If I deal honestly for fear of punishment merely, if I refrain from stealing merely for lack of opportunity, if I am polite simply to secure trade, if, in short, I am not right at heart, my insight avails nothing, and my habits, though good as to apparent results, are morally indifferent, if not actually negative.

Furthermore, no man can be said to have a strong moral character if he has not well-grounded moral habits. Until this end is reached he is not safe. Not only must his thought be clear and his disposition right, but his corresponding deed must be assured through well-grounded habits of consistent right actions. If through instruction in the common branches and the discipline of obedience the public schools can give clear moral insight, if they can develop the disposition that always springs from right feeling, and at the same time fortify the soul through well grounded moral habits, they will accomplish a noble work, and may confidently intrust to the Church and the family the specific religious training for which they have laid so firm a foundation.

Can the common branches be made to reveal to the child, in any adequate manner, the moral relations that should exist between man and man and between the individual and the organized business, social and political groups of men with which he comes into contact? In other words, is it possible through their agency to make a moral

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revelation of the world? Furthermore, if it is possible to do so, is it necessary to make this revelation in order to fulfill the demands made upon the modern citizen?

In the first place, I should like to point out that the moral problem in its concrete filling changes from age to age. The golden rule has, indeed, eternal validity, but the deeds that I would my neighbor should do to me differ with the changing ideals of different ages. Furthermore, ideals of morality arising from the relations of individuals to society, as grouped into civil, social, educational, charitable and family organizations, are subject to still wider variations. In ancient Greece moral conceptions were focused about the art ideal. In Rome, the boys were taught to swim and to know the table of the laws. Virtue was military and civil in essence. During the middle ages, when the Church became both the spiritual and the temporal power that ruled the world, morality necessarily focused upon the religious idea, when obedience to Church authority and strict conformity to her ordained ceremonial was naturally esteemed the basis of moral character. In our own age, however, science and political evolution have changed the point of view. In theory, at least, every individual has political freedom and equality. All are alike in the liberty to influence the economic and political policy of the nation. Science has made it possible for many more people to live much better. Not only are large populations now possible, but medical science and hygiene enable even the feeble to survive; civil equality has raised the demand for universal education, and this in turn lifts the ideals of the people as to what belongs of right to human existence—a high standard of life, good, wholesome food, decent clothing and housing and some leisure. The scholar has long been able to make his recreations develop his body; the laborer's demand now is for leisure to enable him to make his recreations cultivate his mind. In spite of the fact, therefore, that there is much in morality that is unchanging and eternal, the emphasis, perpetually changing, is now economic, social, and civil, as it was once æsthetic, then military, then ecclesiastical. This being the case, we may turn all the more earnestly and expectantly to the inquiry as to whether the studies of the common school are capable of becoming the means of a moral revelation of the world to the child.

The moral training possible in the public school is foreshadowed in the kindergarten. This is the most potent instrument in the hands of teachers for developing the social instincts of the child. All pride and selfish enjoyment of isolated pleasures are soon cast aside or strictly subordinated to the larger groups of pleasure found in participation in the songs, plays and occupations of organized groups.

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The domineering temper, the peevish disposition are both dissipated in the air of good-fellowship that always pervades the true kindergarten. The mental training that can be given in such an institution is not to be compared with the moral good that is the inevitable consequence of its influence.

To one whose conception of common school education is the mastery of forms without thought-content, with labor lightened and sweetened it may be by artificial devices and educational confectionery, the proposition to get any serious moral training from the studies of these schools might recall Swift's satire on the professor who undertook to extract sunshine from cucumbers. But however great may be the obligation of the school to teach the child the use of the instruments of knowledge, as in reading, spelling, writing and early number work, it has still more important and serious obligations in the way of the development of character. The studies of the curriculum fall naturally into three groups:

(1) The humanistics, such as literature, history, civics, languages, music, art and political geography.

(2) The sciences, such as botany, zoology, physiology and physical geography.

(3) The economic branches, as manual training, industrial drawing and art and commercial geography.

Each of these groups has some function in the moral training of the child. Perhaps the highest duty of the teacher is the imparting of ideals, especially as to the institutional relations into which the child must in future enter. It is inevitable that children in forming these ideals do so largely through the imagination. They must be taught to look ahead, to picture situations, to forecast desirable modes of action, to foresee consequences. They must be led to pass sound moral judgment upon historical or imaginary occurrences; that is, to test important events by a few fundamental moral ideas, such as truthfulness, good will, justice and equity. Literature and history are marvelously rich in their moral content. Every conceivable moral situation, both individual and institutional, is therein repeatedly set forth, and may be put before the child in form so simple that he can easily understand, and in colors so bright that the heart may be warmed and attracted toward the highest ideals. With the noblest literature in the world, applicable to every grade of intelligence, the teacher must indeed be stolid who cannot secure therewith to the young both sound moral insight and moral disposition.

We must, however, be careful to distinguish between the literature that is *childlike* and that which is *childish*. Nothing could be more insipid than the manufactured juvenile literature that crowds the

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modern press. As Rosenkranz says: "The best literature for children from their seventh to their fourteenth year consists of that which is honored by nations and the world at large." This is the literature that has grown out of the experience of the race when in its earlier or more childlike stage. It always appeals to childhood, for it is in the naive form that children can always understand. The enduring early literature of every nation has thus a charm and value that never grow old. We have a living example of this in the stories of the Old Testament up to the separation of Judah and Israel. Rosenkranz remarks: "These patriarchs, with their wives and daughters, these judges and prophets, these kings and priests, are by no means ideals of virtue from the standpoint of our modern lifeless morality, which would smooth out of its model-stories for the dear children everything that is hard and uncouth. For the very reason that the shadow side is not wanting here, and that we find envy, vanity, evil desire, ingratitude, craftiness and deceit among these fathers of the race and leaders of God's chosen people, have these stories so great an educational value." I quote also Dr. Harris, in the same volume: "Every child should read as indispensable the stock of stories which furnish general types of character and situation. 'Robinson Crusoe,' 'Gulliver's Travels,' 'Don Quixote,' the 'Arabian Nights,' Plutarch's 'Lives,' Homer's 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey,' and the dramas of Shakespeare should be read sooner or later; earlier than these the old English stories and fairy tales, and 'Mother Goose's Melodies.' A scale thus ascending from the earth to the fixed stars of genius furnishes pictures of human life of all degrees of concreteness. The meager and abstract outline is given in the nursery tale, and the deep, comprehensive grasp is found in Shakespeare."

From these elementary stages of literature we rise gradually through such authors as Hawthorne, Longfellow and Scott, to Lowell, Emerson, Tennyson, and then to Shakespeare, who mirrors almost every possible phase of modern institutional life. Every play begins with some conflict between the individual and the institution of family, church, state, or business world. King Lear shows us the logical results to family and state when absolute authority is no longer guided by reason, but by caprice. Gloster commits the unpardonable crime against the family. Macbeth passes from the extreme of patriotism to that of treason. In "As You Like It" Duke Ferdinand and Oliver are both usurpers, one wronging the state and both the family.

When these negative deeds have culminated, the world begins to purge itself from the wrong. In the tragedies harmony is restored through the destruction of the offender who has gone so far that his deeds must react upon himself; in the comedies the offender is medi-

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ated through repentance and restitution. Thus both Shylock and Antonio, the one unchristian in the pursuit of revenge, the other in contemptuous treatment of a fellow mortal, are both mediated and saved from the natural consequences of their deeds through the efforts of Portia. Youth must, in short, see life through literature, but interpreted by the teacher, who should be able to see literature through life. In no more effective way can high ideals and right disposition be inculcated.

Our main reliance heretofore for teaching political morals has been United States history. But this is subject to great limitations. The mythological and biographical preliminary work recommended by the Committee of Ten can be made much more effective, for they are simple, concrete and of great interest to children. Not much insight into political duties or much permanent disposition to do them is cultivated by the ordinary school history, which consists of descriptions of conquests, campaigns and battles, together with brief and formal statements of their causes and results. A much more efficient method is to make a detailed study of the nearest and most obvious political forms under which we live. This study should embrace the present facts and how they came to be. Children should be set to a study of the town, its origin, its methods of work, the rights and duties of citizens and officials. They should be led to investigate the subject of taxation, its purpose, its rightfulness, its methods, its justice and injustice, its benefits and necessities; what role it has played in wars and revolutions, and what the rights and duties of citizens are concerning it. In similar ways students should make a detailed study of county, city and state; of written constitutions and of the organizations, rights, duties and privileges of political parties. This is the root out of which history must grow if it is to have any ethical vitality.

Thus far we have dwelt chiefly upon the formation of moral insight and disposition. Even the most formal subjects of the curriculum, like grammatical and mathematical studies, may have a beneficial influence upon character, leading under proper teaching to appreciation of exactness and truthfulness as ideals, and to diligence and persistence in the working out of results. The will of the pupil is daily trained to acquire strength and general efficiency, thus forming habits of decision and uprightness that will be of service in realizing any ideal that the mind may form.

Even natural science, though essentially non-moral in content, may become a powerful instrument for reaching moral ends, being especially effective in developing a love of truth and a kindly disposition. Even a boy prone to cruelty may become so interested in the habits and life-struggle of birds that he will no longer desire to

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stone them or break up their nests. The literature of natural history, as presented by such incomparable writers as John Burroughs, can do much in this direction. Not long ago a Philadelphia young man owning an uncleared lot in our village directed by letter that his land should be cleared at once. Happening to visit the town next day, he wrote again upon reaching home, saying he thought it would be well to wait for a week or two, since he had discovered in the bushes a brown thrush's nest with unfledged young ones in it. It is related of the late Dr. Joseph Leidy, while a professor at Swarthmore College, that he had one day taken a dozen young turtles from a neighboring pond, saying, as he departed, "Little turtles, I'll bring you back." He took them with him that evening to Philadelphia, but receiving a telegram making it necessary for him to leave the next morning for a considerable journey, he returned to the college, a distance of twelve miles, on foot, in order to restore the little reptiles to their home. The love of nature that can be engendered in the hearts of the young is closely akin to the love of men that we strive for in moral training. That this kindly disposition is worth striving for even in the study of nature, we know from the fact that even those who have been deemed religious have not always had it, for nowhere else in history do we find a record of more inhumanity to man than in religious wars and persecutions.

Without stopping to dwell upon the healthful moral influence that may be exercised through the industrial or economic phases of the curriculum, I should like to point out the important function that may be performed by the industrial or commercial phase of geography. Political geography is a declaration of what history has accomplished in the way of political subdivisions of the earth, and, to some, an explanation of how historical forces have produced the results they have. Physical geography lies at the basis of the natural sciences, being in this respect, also, essentially non-moral; but commercial geography, more than any other study, reveals to the child his own present and possible future relation to the business world. Even the barefooted urchin of the country cross-roads may be led to see that his parents, or even himself, cast their mite into the world's commerce, to see it returned to them, not after many days, but at once, enriched and magnified. The car-load of cabbage heads may be transformed into a college education for one of the children. The crop of corn brings back fruits, clothing, books, papers, magazines; it produces educational opportunities; it beautifies the walls and helps to pay the preacher, besides enabling its owner to promote the public good. The narrow horizon which always shuts in the ignorant now becomes as wide as the world. Electricity brings instantaneously news from the remotest countries and strangest peo-

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ples; the railroads, canals and oceans bear the commerce of the world, reinforcing the puny might of the isolated individual a thousandfold when he enters heartily into co-operation with his fellows. The heart of youth is fired as he beholds the possibilities of a life of co-operative harmony with others; he sees the possibilities of his own worth enhanced a thousandfold, his petty selfhood infinitely enlarged, his dignity exalted, through the reinforcement that the race brings him when he learns the supreme lesson of serving himself through service to his fellow man.

There is time for but a single consideration more, yet it is an important one. The moral content pointed out in the common branches has always been there; their potentiality as instruments of moral training is not new. If we have not utilized them for this purpose in the past, the fault is in ourselves, either in not being able to discover their value or in being too bungling to use them aright. We have indeed often been content to exercise the children solely in intellectual gymnastics (more demoralizing far than college foot-ball), or to imagine we were educating them while desiccating their brains through barren forms, or to regard knowledge as more nourishing when sugar coated with hysterical methods or atomized into homeopathic doses. We must look, therefore, not only to the subjects of study, but to ourselves. It is the teacher who must make the moral revelation to the pupil through these studies; who must cultivate through their instrumentality the kindly disposition; who must secure the moral habits. President Eliot says there are two evils in our schools, namely, lack of strong interest on the part of the pupil, and lack of continuous strenuous exertion. Both of these lacks pertain as strongly to moral as to intellectual training, the first one especially. Who can expect the child pampered by exciting methods and play-work to form any growing, abiding interest in the subjects that should give him his moral insight, disposition and habits? Teachers are leaning on a frail reed when they think entertainment a substitute for the interest a pupil can be made to feel in his studies, when they gradually unfold before his eyes the life of the future, when they convey to him even dimly the experience of the race, either in real or ideal forms. To secure this interest the subject matter must be wisely chosen and well articulated. The report of the Committee of Ten makes a noteworthy contribution to the solution of this problem for the secondary schools. It is to be hoped that we may soon have a similar report for elementary schools. More important even than selection and co-ordination of studies is the daily method of the teacher. This should be guided by the apperceptive capacities of the child in the sequence of presentation, in the inductive approach to generalizations, in the application of rules and

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principles to concrete problems; but most of all it should be inspired by a mind sufficiently cultivated to grasp the noble purposes of education, to apprehend the splendid opportunities of the teacher. This daily method should be directed by a heart full of sympathy with the highest ideals of conscience and duty. With such subject-matter, so taught, the public schools can produce a type of moral character, which, if not precisely that to which tradition accustoms us, will yet be in harmony with the social or institutional morality that must exist in our highly complicated society, where men, through co-operation, have such tremendous power for harm as well as for good. If Niagara, through the beneficent use of her heaven-lent strength, may light and warm a million homes, so a labor agitator may likewise have the power to paralyze the industries of a nation. In addition, therefore, to all that the past teaches us respecting the development of character, shall we not utilize this other potent means, which, like an unused element, lies all about us?

CHILD STUDY.

BY DR. G. STANLEY HALL, PRESIDENT OF CLARK UNIVERSITY, WORCESTER, MASS.

[STENOGRAPHIC REPORT.]

This occasion reminds me of another occasion twenty-five years ago, when I pronounced this sentence as the culminating effort of my commencement oration, a sentence so magnificent that I shall never forget it. "To thee, O future historian! we commit the issues of the present hour." The issues of this hour, which I think the future historian will not forget, lie in the single fact, that unto you is born this day a new Department of Child Study. I am not sure, lusty as this infant is, and visible as I believe it to be, that we shall be likely to overestimate the importance of this event, which gives, as I believe, a new scientific character to education and to this section.

The circumstance reminds me of another story, just about as old as my oration, which I will repeat (although every one of you have heard it, I hope) because I have a new application of it. "Mary and John were courting one Sunday night in the kitchen. There was but one chair in the room, and no one was standing. When she had sat in his lap two or three hours, she finally turned to him and said: 'Why, John; you must be getting a little kind of tired,' to which John replied gallantly: 'Not a mite tired, Mary. You just keep on sittin' where you be. I was dreadfully tired about an hour ago, but now

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I am numb.'" My new application of this old story consists in saying, that this vigorous, stalwart, well-blooded Educational Association is John; the kind of philosophy of education that has generally played the chief role in the past history of this Association is Mary. Now, Mr. Chairman, will you kindly permit Mary to arise from where she has sat until the Association is a little numb, and let me present this new baby, which has been adopted but not born to this Association, for John to dandle half an hour, to get over his numbness, if it has not already passed into atrophy.

Child study represents four or five lines of work which are quite distinct the one from the other. In the first place there is anthropology, this study of the human species from infancy to old age, and which now, within perhaps three or four years, has begun with great zest to study the civilized child in several countries, so that we have a large body of literature which a friend of mine is to take six lectures to describe.

We have also the pathological side. A distinguished German has looked over the writings of thirty of the chief writers upon education, and noted down in the dictionary every word designating faults of childhood. How many fault words do you think he has found in this pedagogic library of thirty writers? He has found 927 words which designate a distinct fault.

Third, in every civilized country, children are tested by the scores and hundreds, with reference to sight, and they find that it decreases in acuteness as we go up in the school grades, until in some countries it reaches forty to fifty, or sixty-three per cent in the high school senior class. The ear has been tested, and the sensibility of the muscles, etc., and a large body of literature seems to suggest that the modern school may be making the child a little sickly and arresting its development. At any rate, the percentage and number of school-bred diseases was never so large; nor is it strange when we reflect that the child in nature plays freely, and uses all its muscles, and lives in the free air, while the school shuts him up in an artificial atmosphere, sets the child down on a seat, and at a desk, perhaps, which does not fit him. Physiologically it throws the whole strain of school work upon the tiny muscles of fingers and tongue and leaves about ninety per cent of the muscles idle, not in use in the exercise of the school-room. That fact may bring home to us the importance of what we have called pedagogical pathology, which now constitutes an important study in education, and is now claiming our attention in perhaps half a dozen shapes.

Then we have another great department which is devoted to the study of the child's mind; and a very strange and anomalous thing is

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the great amount of ignorance that has been discovered. The number of things which children ought to know, and do not know, would make a vast body of literature. The direction in which most of these defects of ignorance lie is known to us, and we must go forward and direct the forces of enlightenment toward the real enemies of our civilization.

Thus we have from many sources a great body of truths, that have come, as it were, to the rescue of the child. It seems as though science were dealing with life and history, and that everything must be understood through right conceptions of the right side of man's soul. This is the fact which lies behind and out of sight of the movement which has caused the creation of this new section, and which I ask you to guard as the very apple of your eye. It is this department alone that can make education a science, if it ever can be made a science.

This philosophy is almost new, for the adult psychology is quite a different thing, as different as is the child from the adult. Some have even gone so far as to say that those of us who have spent our lives in teaching the old philosophy could never enter into this new kingdom of child psychology.

It certainly will require an educated insight to enable us so to do, but enough has already been done to prove to my mind a satisfactory augury of the future. The little child now standing in our midst is, I believe, again to be the regeneration of education, to moralize it, to make it religious, to bring the child (because it brings the school) home to the hearts of the men and women, where children should always find a warm place. (Applause.)

I propose to speak briefly of three chief points in this course of study, where they seem to me to have their practical focus.

If I was to address you from the standpoint that I hope to be the motto of this section, it would be, child study is first and foremost for the benefit of the teacher. It educates and stimulates, and keeps the teacher young as nothing else does. By contact with children in their years of growth anybody ought to keep on growing to the very end of life. I believe that by contact with the child, in sympathy and interest, there is a growth for the teacher that no device in all education, no kind of extension movement, can equal in efficiency. So I say that the first chief good to be sought and expected is stimulating an interest, a renewed professional spirit, a scientific spirit, for the best science. The most progressive science of the day is behind the teacher in this movement and it does refresh and invigorate the teacher.

Child study is, secondly, for the sake of the child. To enable us to adapt our methods to the child, so the young teacher shall not

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merely run the school machinery and keep order, but shall give out an influence which shall go straight from his heart to the heart of every child in the room. Teachers should know that every child they touch has somewhere a secret spring, and it unfolds wonders, while not reducing the general efficiency for the room.

Thirdly and lastly, the value of this study is its advantage for science. Teachers can do great things for science here, and they have done so. Part of this is technical and part scientific; but part of it any teacher can do perhaps better than scientific men. It involves a new contact between the best science of the day and the best teaching of the time, and that is the standpoint for which I appeal for it.

The three practical advantages, which I desire to refer to, are, first, that of health. It does much for health, because the beginning of child study ought to be a great interest for the health of the child, and in that way you can interest the parent. This movement has resulted in Paris in the appointment of about thirty young doctors, before they have established their practice, who about twice a year fill out a little "health book" for each and every child in the schools where this system has been adopted.

If a child on examination has bad eyes, *e. g.*, they write in this book to "send him home at 3 o'clock." The child goes home, and they see that he has excellent medical care. That pleases the parents. This has been one of the best results of child study advocated by the government there.

The fact is we are coming to realize what health means. The sign of health is exuberance. He rejoices in play, the superfluous euphoria, the joy of being alive, and it is a greater joy than any other. The form of greeting among all civilized people, as they shake hands with each other is, "How do you feel"—how is your heart, your euphoria,—have you any extra life in you, over and above that necessary to keep your heart beating and lungs going and just to keep alive? This superfluity of life, over and above sufficient to support the more vital processes, is the raw material of culture. Every discovery, every great work that man has done, has been made out of this spontaneous material. Every great original creative work of man has been done out of this euphoria. Some men have done something when they were sick perhaps, but it is because the dear Lord has not quite denied euphoria even to the sick room. I think, then, it was not without considerable wisdom that the English physician, who lately died, said, that if he could only have the selection of the future queens of Great Britain, or Germany, or the other countries of Europe, he would ask two questions: "First, has she a good normal appetite for wholesome well-cooked food? and, second, does she sleep well? and being satisfied on these two points, for all the rest," he said,

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"I would trust God." I do not think it is irreverent, therefore, to ask, with all seriousness: "What shall it profit a child or a teacher, if they gain the whole world of knowledge and lose their own health, or what shall we give in exchange for health?" It is not without significance that, in the last three years, hygiene has come to take a prominent part in our education.

My second point is as old as health, and yet new, for the feature of child study is that, like the Gospel, it makes old things new. The first requisite of the good teacher for young children might perhaps be said to be: "Does that teacher succeed in opening the senses of the child?" Many children, it is said, are color blind. A great many people have no ear for music, but experts agree that it is absolutely unnecessary—that everybody might have a good musical ear. The object of the teacher should be to get the child in a condition of responsive sensitiveness to every aspect of nature. It all makes life larger, this contact with nature. There is a school of literature now devoted to the discovery of new sensations, that they may experience a new thrill; and all education should be directed to the unfolding of the senses and the widest possible development of the mind. So what we want to-day is to get as many sensations and as many different views of life as possible. As a boy I was brought up on the farm, or my father very wisely let me spend summer vacations on my grandfather's farm, where old fashioned industries were seen, and I count the time spent there as the most educative of my life, because I had a natural ambition to do everything. Let me tell you some of the things I learned how to do and can do to-day, and am proud of it, although you may think me egotistical. I can mow; I can milk a cow, and know the right side, which many an artist does not; I can whet my own scythe; I know how to make a garden; I have woven a piece of cloth, or helped to do it, all myself; I have made palmleaf hats as a boy, from the very straw, finished them, and got five cents apiece for them; I can plant, chop, butcher, team it, cut ice, etc.; make cider, maple sugar, fences and stone walls, and all these things have stood me in useful stead in the laboratory, where a man must know and do a little of everything. My laboratory discipline is helped out by the farm work more than anything else. It is the impulse I got there that made it necessary afterwards for me in Germany to go and take a dozen lessons of a bookbinder, and another half dozen of a glass blower; and finally, when two or three years ago, I went into Boston I found a goldbeater, who gave me some lessons in the fine points of gold beating. In this way you open up to the eye of the soul the avenues of impression and expression; you get the soul in harmony with the life without, and there is an exchange between the soul

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within and the external life without. You thus multiply life, and you increase it two, or three, or four fold.

See what our psychologists are doing—spending their vacations in asylums, among the idiots and insane, and in prisons. We have to visit all kinds of institutions, because it is indispensable that we may know human nature; know it as it is. If you wish to study and understand life in any adequate way, you must look at it through these many different sources. Look at the microscope, and see what new worlds come before you. The man who has studied the microscope, knows many times as much of the world as he who looks at nature with the natural unaided eye, because he sees so many other things. It increases two or three times his capacity to enjoy the world and understand its problems; to know nature and know life. It helps to follow that principle which we have heard stated: "Necessity of taking the whole child into school." That is the second point.

Now the third and last is this: If you were to stop here it would be a very strange kind of a being you would develop. It would lack the very root of personality; namely, unity. Therefore we must have unity, and we must have all these various elements of our nature so compact and incorporated that they will not be easily broken up. You have all read, no doubt, stories of hypnotism and dual personality; but the essential quality in child training and in all education is unity of all the faculties. The eye and the ear, and all the senses, must not only be opened up and developed, but must be brought into their relative relations one with the other, and they grow together by association, and so unity, so far as we can study it, is growth. The pieces of the child's mind are made separately, and then they are put together. It is very important that their combination should be thorough, so that the personality will not be decomposable. One phase of this is seen at adolescence, when many natures almost break up as they pass through adolescent years with such great difficulty. I plead for this unity. I believe it is a question of the greatest seriousness which we have discovered here in the study of adolescence. We must get at the personalities of the child. That unity which accompanies old age, and which is fundamental for moral and ethical training, should be the cardinal aim and end of our endeavor. Therefore I say, children will be selfish before adolescence. It is nature to be selfish. Let them be selfish. Do not impose upon them any artificial conformity to your standard. Do not watch them always while they play, imposing limitations of adult standards upon them. A little child is a bundle of sentiment. It has all the tender feelings of the adult, almost; it can sympathize with your soul, your heart, and it can sympathize with your individuality. Not the intellect, but

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the heart of the adult and child are almost alike; therefore appeal to the heart, which is the strength and source of life. The mind is hardly able to think in childhood along other than selfish lines, but it should be developed, and the child sent out of the school-room, not selfish at the end, but altruistic and devoted to others, and if the school does not do that I believe it does very little for moral civilization.

What do we need in this country to-day, and what do these men who are rioting in Chicago, and what, alas! do many of my own colleagues, I fear, who teach political economy, to-day need? Why, they need to take the altruistic standpoint, and show that the center of life is not self but others. When the struggle for the survival of the individual has given way to the higher struggle for the survival of others, inspired by Christian sentiment, then will come a better civilization. Life is for service; it is not for self, and this idea should be implanted deeply in the heart of every child.

Let us remember, then, that while selfishness has its own place in childhood, that religion and civilization show that fundamentally all morality is the instinct or discipline of service and doing good for others, and that view alone, I believe, will elevate education to the plane which it ought to occupy. It has already saved us in the past, and is to do much in the future for this country if it survives from the standpoint of the new enlarging educational philosophy—larger far than any philosophy we have had—the first glimpses of which appear in the study of the child; a philosophy so large that all science and evolution shall have its place in teaching, in order that the very best in the child may be inspired and roused and developed, and thus give to teaching a new consecration.

DISCUSSION.

WM L. BRYAN, Indiana State University.—I wish to ask a single question, which I am not able to answer. Can we co-operate in child study? For one thing, can we persuade the people to allow experiments upon their children; that is, experiments by those who are competent? For, as Colonel Parker suggests, the public already everywhere yields the children to the mortally perilous experiment of incompetent teaching. It is already clear that the most skillful and devoted friends of the children, those who wish to study the children for the children's sake, must seek warily for a chance to do so. The wreckers have the freedom of the coast. Can the life saving crew get a chance to put out boats?

For another thing: Can men with money be made aware of the claims of child study upon the wealth they hold in trust? They put a telescope upon the Andes.

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They send an endless line of ships to the north pole. They send out costly expeditions to collect the bones of prehistoric men. All of which is good. But nobody yet has fitted out an expedition to hunt for the child, although many are eager to go and although the child bears the whole hope of our race.

For the third thing, will those interested in child study consent to work together? Quite upon another plane are doubts and fears which deserve from all sides respectful consideration. It is undeniable that the teacher and the specialist have points of view that do not coincide. The teacher is confronted not with nicely defined questions in muscle physiology, but with so many beings each of whom is a whole child. The immediate demands of the school cannot be satisfied by an outlay of scientific scraps. It may be useful, so the teacher contends, to know how fast a boy can wag his finger and what part of his brain he does it with, but this knowledge gets hazy when one is facing the boy. For this reason,—which always comes against new science from men whose work it offers to direct,—for this not trivial reason the teacher refuses to surrender at discretion to the specialist, and demands place as a real co-operator in the work of child study.

On the other hand, the scientist is predisposed to distrust all amateur investigation. He knows from his own experience, after what severe initiation, on what hard conditions, he is willing to trust himself; in how many different ways it is possible for research to end in fiasco. He knows how hard it is to find a good method of research. A good method is like a good machine or a good proverb. It has risen to that which is essential through innumerable sagacious rejections. To devise a method that will go to the heart of some matter is precisely as easy as to write a poem that will do so. No good intentions, no patience, nor zeal, nor work, will make a way for one whose plan has not in it the secret of nature.

For these and such reasons the specialist sometimes justifies himself all too easily in ignoring amateur interest in child study. These reasons should rather urge both to come together. Teacher and scientist need each other. All the ways in which they differ in point of view, in knowledge, and in ability are ways in which they can supplement each other. It takes variety to make a co-operative organism.

I do not know whether we can have co-operation in this matter on a great and effective scale or not. If not, if the forces we have cannot be mobilized, if we can have only scattered bands of militia and free-lances, but no regular army, then, still, at the worst, something will be done. Here and there, as at present, a schoolman will lead teachers to observe and to work in the psychological spirit. Here and there, as in the past, a good piece of research will be carried through by individuals. If, as many of us devoutly believe, we bear a message from the Holy Ghost for the saving of the children, then the divisions, the delays, and the blunders may be what they will; but when we have devoutly blundered on for ten years the situation in America will be changed,—just as to-day the situation is vastly changed from what it was ten years ago, when President Hall read to astonished and unbelieving ears his epoch-beginning "Contents of Children's Minds."

But if by some happy means we can be brought together for child study, as we were brought together for the making of the World's Fair, then it seems to me we shall stand in reach of these three things:

1. Teachers everywhere may be wisely directed in observing the children in their charge. In the cities and normal schools, where this is now done, the effects first upon the teachers and then upon the school are sometimes almost incredibly beneficent. I am assured that one Western city owes its far-known spiritual growth more to the inculcation of this habit among its teachers than to any other cause. If we believe in the principle of self-activity, how can we doubt that the teacher

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who has come to hunger and thirst after personal knowledge of child life is on the way to save both the child and herself.

2. We could have, from experts in all the sciences touching child life,—anthropology, physiology, neurology, psychology, etc.,—authoritative advice on school hygiene. This alone is reason enough for organization. Let us never forget this state of facts: that these sciences have help to give, and that the children far and wide languish in body and mind and fall short of the fullness of life which is possible for them.

3. We could have high-class research on a greater scale than has ever before been attempted. There is no reason why, within the next few years, hundreds of thousands of children should not be tested by experts in all the lines I have mentioned; why the problems and methods and personal skill developed in all these lines should not be brought into action: why the normal and abnormal human body and mind should not be studied more thoroughly than has ever yet been possible. To be discreet, I must not prophesy the outcomes of such research. To many it seems impossible that it should not bring a great illumination for the reading of all history and for the direction of all affairs.

THOS. P. BAILEY, JR., Ph. D., Superintendent of Schools, Marion, S. C.—In the biological professions there are naturalists, specialists and co-ordinators. The practicing teacher (naturalist), like the practicing physician, reports cases by means of a minute record of symptoms. Statistical and other mass-experiments are of little value to the study of character and to the effort to develop it, unless the child is studied, also, by means of authentic facts (doings and sayings) recorded of children whose life-history is known. So-called character-studies ("sizing-up" of the child as to temperament, disposition, mental growth, etc.) have all the faults of a subjective and unscientific method; their results are useless to the profession at large; they lead to misplaced confidence in the mystical "intuition" of the "sizer-up." Ticketed collections of sayings and doings are valuable, but are to psychology what dried and stuffed specimens are to the biologist. Vital phenomena must be studied in the functioning organism. Mass-studies are to be supplemented by unit-studies. The records of physical facts, and of doings and sayings of individual children who have been sympathetically and scientifically observed, are of far greater immediate importance to the practitioner than are the results of the specialist and the generalizations of the scientific philosopher. On the other hand, the specialist and the philosopher are continually crying out for the facts. We must study children before we make bold statements about the child. We cannot educate children until we know them; in order to know them we must study their doings and sayings. The ordinary observer can best study these by seeing and hearing them and setting them down in writing just as they occur and just when they occur.

It is with the hope that naturalist work may be stimulated that the following authentic account is given of a seven-and-a-half year old South Carolina girl. Her ancestry is a blending of English, German, French and Scotch. The physical data about the child and her parents and grandparents are tolerably full, but there is not time to record them in this brief sketch. The following admitted character-facts about the child's parents are given:

Mother: Cheerfulness, skill in mimicry, sociability, love of order, self-sacrifice, religion of doing. Father: Teacher, college-bred, strong believer in material reward and punishment, strongly and dominantly emotional. The mother died when the child was a babe a month old. The father is living. There is nothing abnormal about her physique. She is being brought up by her aunt, who is unmarried. The aunt is strongly ideal in character, reflectively religious, very impulsive in conduct.

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The following sayings and doings are classified only according to the child's age. They were carefully though spontaneously recorded, and have been corroborated and verified:

DOINGS AND SAYINGS OF H.

1. (Two years.) Remembers and repeats, after several days, her aunt's statement that H.'s mother is "with God," "She's with God."

2. Several hours after, while aunt is recounting it to the family, as soon as the words "with God" are reached, H. looks into aunt's face, and says, "Papa told me."

3. Told to call father "Papá." Nurse says, "Pápa." Child cries, "Say Papá."

4. (Two and a half years.) Father: "Whose baby are you?" H.: "Papa's"—then, noticing her aunt's presence, "Auntie's baby."

5. (Four years.) H. doesn't want to be an angel, because it's too much like a "wooster" (rooster).

6. Doesn't want to go to heaven, because she will "butt" her head.

7. (Between four and five years.) H.'s song (founded on "Jesus, Lover of My Soul" and "The Little Lord Jesus Laid Down His Sweet Head":

Want to go to bosom fly;
Want to go to heaven;
Want to hug God;
Want to see my mamma.

8. Puts a present in her stocking for Santa Claus: "I know he has plenty of things, but I just want to show him I love him." (This was said very earnestly.)

9. (Five and a half years.) On seeing lightning through the window at night: "What is that making the dark jump back?"

10. (Six years.) While walking with aunt on outskirts of town, sees a cow, lets go aunt's hand, crosses silently to the cow-side. Aunt: "H., do you want to go on the cow-side?" H. (demurely): "Yes."

11. (Seven years.) Recites with great earnestness "Charge of the Light Brigade." Afterwards: "Where is the place?" "In far-away Russia." "Oh! I want to go there and see their foot-prints!"

12. (All that follow occurred during seventh year.) "Why does God punish the Jews for not believing in Christ? Didn't he make our souls and bodies? Didn't he make us just what we are?"

13. "Would like to be like God, so I just couldn't do anything wrong or think anything wrong."

14. "I would like to be a person like God! Just like a person that's hypnotized and can't knock over an arm, but only under it. When he makes us suffer pain it's to do us good; just like when pa switches L., and it does him good."

15. "Did God marry the Virgin Mary?"

16. She wishes to say her prayers whenever she changes her dress in the forenoon.

17. If she gets out of bed to drink water or to get her doll to go to sleep with her, the good-night kiss and the formula, "God keep you all the night," must be repeated each time.

18. She sets great store by being in time to go to school with the other children. When she first began school, her first question in the morning, before her eyes were well open, was, "Is it late?"

19. After drilling her in spelling, her father told her to spell "soldiers" (a word she had repeatedly missed) for her aunt first thing in the morning; and so she did.

20. If aunt omits saying, before sending her to school, "Be a good girl," H. says: "'Good-bye. Be a good girl.' 'I'll try.'"

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21. Returned, after starting to school: "I want you to put my ring on my finger so I'll remember to tell Cousin T. (her teacher) I said 'Present,' when I ought to have said something else (tardy)."

22. "I looked at Sadie's pad because I just couldn't help looking, but I didn't copy it. Sadie's was wrong. Cousin T. thought I was looking to copy, and said, 'You mustn't look at Sadie's book, H.' "

23. "Copying is just as bad as cheating."

24. During her first school-days, she was much confused by the answering in concert. "I just don't try to answer."

25. It lay upon her conscience that sometimes she waited for the others and called out what they said.

26. Reading: Learns lesson by heart and quickly catches expression.

27. Spelling: Ear not drilled. Delights in words of similar sound. In a word like "glossy" she is apt to begin with an "s." Sometimes puts the final letter first.

28. Q: "Can you?" A: "I might can."

29. "I oughtn't to have driven out pussy. Granny is never sick, and he didn't know what to make of it. So he just went in the room and said, 'Me-ah! What is the matter?' "

30. She is told that pussy must wait. "If you were a cat, how would you like to wait?"

31. She pets domestic animals. She was bitterly grieved when a dog she had petted snapped at her.

32. H.'s little cousin said: "H. is gooder'n she used to be." When H. heard this she said: "It's because there are no rabbits now. When he used to squeeze my rabbit I slapped him. Would you let anybody squeeze your rabbit?"

33. H.'s aunt takes care of her. H. thinks aunts take care of children, and that the person sitting at the head of the table is a "grandma" or "granny."

34. She thought she grew a great deal in the night before her birthday. Thinks her fourteen-year-old cousin must be older than her aunt because he is larger.

SPONTANEOUS ACCOUNT OF THE CHILD'S CHARACTER BY HER AUNT.

She habitually confesses all her little foibles and scrapes to her aunt.

Easily obeys everybody but her aunt, but during separation obeys her aunt's wishes generally, and confesses when she fails to do so.

Strenuously tries to have her way with a weaker will; easily yields to high authority or to a stronger will that makes just demands.

When aunt is feeling "blue," H. looks up and says, "What is the matter with your eyes?" She catches the "tone" of those nearest and dearest to her.

Has a talent for friendship. Of one of her playmates she says: "She is the best friend I have in the world."

Not ordinarily inclined to self-consciousness, but sensitive to ridicule. If they tell her that her ears are large, she wants her hair to flow loosely, so as to hide her ears. Objects to her aunt wearing anything that "looks funny." Wouldn't recite with an older child (eight) that said "wead" for "read." Broke down and wept when given a piece to recite in public. She was excused.

Shy with strangers at first, but soon friendly and hospitable; fond of company. Likes to run errands.

Passionately fond of music and poetical rhythm (even when the words are unintelligible). Loves stories; doesn't want words left out; prefers telling to reading, but at the age of seven is satisfied with having stories read to her. Likes pictures, and picturesqueness in narration, but cares not for "style."

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Enjoys a simile when it is explained to her. Has become tired of Old Testament stories; prefers folk-tales, etc.; never wearies of the "Old, Old Story" of the New Testament. Is inclined, but not allowed, to dive into the doctrine of the Trinity, etc. (The fear-feature has been kept out of her life as far as possible. Her nurse was an exceptionally refined young colored woman.)

Going to church tires her; she likes Sunday-school; prefers Episcopal service. (Methodist family.)

Can't bear to miss school; has continuously been on roll of honor. Fond of number, writing and drawing. From babyhood she has been fond of books, whether with or without pictures.

Has a passion for collecting: Stones, pieces of "china," pictures, trimmings, books, old letters, leaflets—anything. Stores away her rubbish in boxes that are carefully put away.

Great idea of meum and tuum; her aunt's belongings are meum.

Expostulates with her aunt when there is a difference of opinion.

Particularly dislikes for her aunt to betray little confidences; on the other hand, she sometimes seems anxious, yet reluctant, for her aunt to tell something H. has said or done which has amused the aunt—but it is a risk; sometimes she is offended at the telling of the most innocent thing. When they spoke of her crying at school she wept bitterly at the dinner table.

If she says anything about her aunt that sounds uncomplimentary, and her aunt laughingly alludes to it, she "weeps and is greatly hurt." When she wishes to compare her aunt to some one, she begins by saying: "Mrs. So-and-So is a very pretty woman." Her loyalty is exceedingly strong; she cherishes what is told her of her mother; preserves little objects belonging to her mother.

She loves beautiful objects, beautiful dressing, surroundings, etc.; loves to "settle things," but needs a companion, as in play. Easily amused; very happy when alone if sympathy is in reach and she has any little congenial thing to do.

Loves to make up "songs" and "accompaniments" on her toy piano.

She is quite a tomboy (the house is full of boys); yet one of her favorite amusements is "playing lady" in her aunt's clothes.

Ordinarily cheerful and sunny, but influenced by the tone of others. Can give "railing for railing" when the boys worry her. She is a considerable tease when she sets out. Plays harmoniously all day unless her companions are cranky; if they are, she becomes cranky, too.

Keen sense of justice; believes in the "eye-for-an-eye" doctrine. Persuasion induces generosity, but unless she sees with your eyes she is obdurate, or else obeys sullenly.

She is quite a mimic.

Her little tempests are generally brought on by undue friction, and are soon over.

All at home join in saying: "She is her mother over again."

MISS ADELAIDE E. WYKOFF, Brooklyn, N. Y.—There is one phase in this discussion of child study which has interested me very much, and that is the making of good citizens. The Chicago anarchists have been referred to. I wonder if we all know that in Chicago the anarchists have Sunday-schools where they train members to defy the laws of the country? The class-room is a place where the teacher stands before her children as the embodiment of law and the guardian of liberty. Responsibility for these children and respect of the child for the teacher will encourage respect for justice and love of order. A teacher may do a great deal to send children into life to become part of the lawless. There was a boy ten years

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old who belonged to a missionary society, and the leader of the missionary society did not understand the boy and they clashed, and this boy withdrew from the missionary society and went out and organized an infidel club and managed and ran his infidel club in opposition to the missionary society. There was a class of grown students who showed a leaning towards anarchy, and there was an investigation in this case made, and the symptoms were traced back in their beginning through nine years to the time when they were misled by a teacher. Did any one of us ever feel the crushing force of humiliation? There are children who have been known to die from grief and mortification at the loss of promotion at examination times. But we teachers take our turn in examining these children, and we urge them on to the highest standing, and strain the powers of the child for success or failure. What does failure mean to them? It means not only the loss of principle, but it means a disturbing influence in the very soul of the child.

Dr. Hall spoke of the little child that was sitting in our midst. It has taken us a long time, many centuries, to begin to realize what was in the mind of Jesus Christ when he said that the little child should lead them. At last the meaning of childhood begins to dawn upon us, and there is one word that he spoke that seems to be written in fire,—"Whoso shall cause one of these little ones to offend, it were better for him that a millstone were hanged about his neck and that he were cast into the depths of the sea."

REMARKS ON THE EDUCATION OF COLORED PEOPLE IN THE SOUTH.

BY PRESIDENT RICHARD R. WRIGHT, OF THE GEORGIA STATE INDUSTRIAL COLLEGE.

[STENOGRAPHIC REPORT.]

Fellow Teachers and Fellow Workers in the Great Cause of Education:

All of us, whatever may be our complexion, are engaged in that grand work of attempting to elevate mankind, in the work of making men better and purer and nobler. There should be and there can be no higher calling. We in the South are striving to lift up our people so that they may go with you of the North in the grand march of progress. We come and look into your faces and catch inspiration from you as we listen to your words of wisdom.

Thirty years ago we would not have been met by a representative of this great band of teachers. Thirty years ago noble men and women of your ranks came down into the southland to open our eyes and to show us what we should do to make ourselves worthy citizens and people, worthy of the opportunities which had been given to us. We have, in the State of Georgia, 3,500 teachers—3,500 colored men and women striving in their humble way to teach the children the rudiments of an education. We have had a hard time to get hold of education. I have heard the statements made which caused me to feel proud—not proud of the fact that the statements were made, but encouraged by the fact that I saw that you, too, in the North have had to come along almost the very same way we are now struggling to come. We have had the difficulty of bringing our people to the place where they could understand that education was worth having. I am president of the

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State Teachers' Association of our own State, and I was selected to come here to get such methods and such principles and such ideas as I might, to carry back to the teachers in Georgia over whom I have had the honor to preside for some years. The colored teachers of the South are anxious to join hands with the educators of the North, and do whatever they can for the development and betterment of the country. We need your help to make these people all they can be.

The colored people of the South are an industrious, law-abiding race. You never hear of labor troubles or strikes or riots. No people of the country, pardon me, I believe, would do the work which the black man is doing in the South, year after year, without grumbling, without strikes, as cheerfully and as well as has been done by the people of my own race in the South ever since the war, and, for that matter, long before. (Applause). And we shall continue to do that.

After all of these years, through benevolent means and by the State and other aid, we have been able to give the rudiments of education to seventy-three out of every hundred colored children throughout the State of Georgia, so that to-day only twenty-seven per cent of the colored children in that State cannot read and write. I want to say to this audience I believe in education. I believe in religion. I believe in those grand principles that shall develop the soul of man, and I believe that the time will come, and is coming, and I sometimes think it is almost here, when we can grasp hands and say, that we shall unite for the uplifting of mankind regardless of race, color or previous condition of servitude. (Applause.) I sometimes think that the teacher's greatest power does not lie in the accumulation of knowledge, but it is sympathy and zeal that helps build up character in children and students. I have sometimes thought, fellow teachers, that it was the heart that was most important in the child; that if we could help develop that, that child will be bound to become a good citizen in this free land.

I thank you, in the name of the teachers whom I have the honor to represent, for the honor that you have given me in permitting me to stand upon this platform and speak to this great audience in behalf of colored education in the State of Georgia.

PROFESSIONAL OBLIGATIONS AND DUTIES OF THE TEACHER.

BY DR. EDWARD BROOKS, SUPERINTENDENT PUBLIC SCHOOLS, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

The professional obligations and duties of the teacher are manifold. To enumerate them in distinct propositions would occupy the time assigned to this discussion; to treat of any one of them, seems like the repetition of thoughts that have become platitudes through the discussions of the last thirty or forty years. I shall be pardoned, I trust, if I vary slightly from the original intent of the question in presenting two considerations which are at present uppermost in my thought.

My first thought is, that the paramount duty of the teacher is to elevate the standard of professional qualifications. One of the

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best means of accomplishing this is, to develop in the consciousness of the young teacher that teaching is to be conceived and studied as a science and an art. That there is a science of teaching is now generally admitted. When Mr. Page wrote his book, which has become an educational classic, he called it "The Theory and Practice of Teaching." Were he living to-day and preparing a work for teachers, I believe he would entitle it "The Science and Art of Teaching." Since he laid the foundations of normal education at Albany, the theory of teaching has been lifted up into the certainty of a science and the practice into the excellence of an art. Teaching should therefore be conceived and studied as a science of great underlying principles, and as an art based upon and growing out of these principles.

Young teachers are studying the different phases of educational doctrine with an earnestness and enthusiasm never before witnessed; but much of the knowledge which they obtain is fragmentary and useless, because of the lack of a unifying and co-ordinating principle which is to be found in the scientific conception of a subject. The age is characterized for its novelties in educational thought and exposition; the public journal and the lecture platform fairly bristle with claims of new educational ideas. As valuable as these may be, they will stand in the mind of the young teacher a chaotic mass, without form and void, until the spirit of scientific thought shall move upon them, reducing to orderly relations and giving them their proper place and significance in the system. A clear conception of the great leading ideas and classifications of pedagogical science will give a meaning and virility to these ideas which they could not otherwise possess.

Science has been defined as organized knowledge. On its inductive side, as in natural history, it consists of facts, generalizations and classifications. On its deductive side, as in mathematics, it consists of general truths, demonstrations and classifications. Teaching embraces both of these two phases of science. It collects facts by patient observation, and derives principles and laws of culture and instruction from these facts. It takes the general truths of psychology, and of the natural and formal sciences, and unfolds by deductive inference the great laws of human growth and development. It is its glory and power that it can work in both of these directions, uniting induction and deduction in its investigations and conclusions, and thus rounding out its completed sphere of truth by the union of these two hemispheres of human thought.

It is not claimed, of course, that the science of teaching has attained that completeness and perfection that belongs to geometry or logic, but that there are great classes of definite conceptions and universally admitted principles that can be co-ordinated into an or-

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ganized body of truth which is the characteristic of science. There is a great body of doctrine which a lawyer must acquire before he enters his profession; and there is a body of doctrine no less exact and difficult and comprehensive and dignified which a teacher should study and master to fit him for his vocation. The science of pedagogy is as broad and deep and high and comprehensive as the science of law or of medicine; and teachers should so conceive it and master it if they would be masters in their profession.

The foundation of the science of teaching is a knowledge of the nature of man—a knowledge of his capacities and potentialities, and the laws and methods by which they are to be awakened and developed. Thus the sciences of physiology, psychology and anthropology lie at the basis of a teacher's qualifications, giving a magnificent field for study and investigation worthy of the best minds and the highest talent of the age. Correlating with this knowledge of mind stands the great world of knowledge, consisting of science. literature and art, all of which are to be used to awaken and develop the spiritual activities. These branches of knowledge, originating in and coming forth from the mind, bear certain relations to its powers and activities, and are thus adapted to its growth and development; and it is the teacher's privilege to trace their origin, to see their relation to the faculties which produced them, to estimate their educational values, and to determine the principles and methods by which they can be employed in the work of education. Here, also, is a problem of the deepest interest, and worthy of the profoundest study and investigation. Then comes the consideration of the school where the educational work is to be carried on, embracing school buildings, school furniture and apparatus, school organization, school government, school systems, and all those practical and economic arrangements necessary to supply the conditions under which the work of education is to be carried on. Supplementing these is the history of education, in which may be traced the rise of educational ideas and doctrines, the gradual development of our present systems of educational thought and practice, and the organization of educational systems and institutions. Around and above these four divisions, as the crowning feature of the system, comes the consideration of those universal and comprehensive principles of education which unite the parts of the science into an organic unity of power and virility.

To grasp the subject of teaching thus in its great outlines and thoroughly digest its leading principles, is a necessity for the highest and most inteiligent work as a teacher. It gives him an independence in weighing and estimating the value of educational doctrines, and enables him to preserve his mental balance amid the whims and

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vagaries of educational thought which so often confront his attention. Standing firm amidst the verities of established truth, his mind can be open with confidence and liberality to the reception of that which is, or seems, new in education, and he is enabled to co-ordinate the new with the old in a deeper insight and a larger vision. If Herbartianism comes with a seemingly new revelation of pedagogical truth, he can form an intelligent estimate of its claims, see its relation to the teachings of standard psychology, and give it its proper place in the general system of educational thought. If he hears assertions that the so-called "faculty psychology" is an absurdity of a defunct philosophy, and finds himself, through mental idiosyncracy or infirmity, unable to grasp the meaning of the terms perception, memory, judgment, etc., without thinking of them as naming parts of the mind as the blade, springs and handle are parts of the knife, he can tentatively use the indefinite circumlocutionary expressions, hoping in time to be able to rise to those more definite psychological distinctions expressed by the terms made significant by the great thinkers of ancient and modern times.

With a catholic spirit he will give cordial welcome to the interesting investigations of child study, seeing how the inferences from the facts of child life harmonize with the conceptions of standard psychology, and often vivify and give enlarged meanings and new applications to these standard conceptions, and in a word, he will have in his mind solid foundations upon which he can build, year by year, higher and loftier, the grand temple of pedagogical truth.

I can conceive of no higher professional duty than to endeavor to inculcate and make universal some such conception of the dignity and scientific character of the teacher's vocation. It has been customary to claim that teaching is a profession; but this claim means but little unless by our higher qualifications and artistic work we demonstrate its professional character. We lower our calling by our low standard of requirements in the education of teachers. The mass of teachers still look up to medicine, law, and divinity as the three learned professions; and the mass of mankind still look down upon teaching as merely a means of gaining a livelihood. The time should come—is it not rapidly coming?—when the vocation of teaching, by the culture and skill of its members, shall be placed alongside of these other vocations as a fourth profession, fully equal in dignity and value to the other three. To hasten such a consummation is a professional duty of teachers, than which I can hardly conceive one more important or inspiring.

My second thought is, that co-ordinate with the duty of actually elevating the teacher's vocation is the correlative one of elevating it in public estimation. This is partly accomplished by the professional

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improvement of teachers and the elevation of professional standards; but something even more than this is needed. The sentiment of the "blushing flower unseen," and "gem of purest ray serene," applies with special force to the vocation of teaching. The teacher's work, done in the quiet seclusion of the school-room, is withdrawn from public gaze; the spirit of devotion so common in our public schools is unknown to the public; and the teacher is thus largely lacking in public appreciation. And even more than this: there is a general depreciation of teachers among the cultivated and influential classes of society. At the public meeting of the city, no teachers are on the committee or sit upon the platform along with the representative men of other occupations; and even at the dedication of school buildings, the speakers on the program are usually lawyers, ministers and politicians. Our literary circles in the larger cities are not only not conducted by teachers, but teachers are often ignored by them. Says a lady to another at a cultivated literary gathering: "Who is that fine-looking woman coming into the hall?" "Oh, that is Miss Blank; she is only a public school teacher," was the reply. Such a fact, unfortunately, is a typical one. Public sentiment among the cultured people of our cities is too truly indicated by the expression, "She is only a teacher."

My thought is, that it is the duty of teachers to labor to change this public sentiment. To do this, we must rise to higher planes of scholarship and culture. As mortifying as is the admission, the fault is largely in ourselves that we are or have been underlings in those accomplishments which command public approval. If the men teachers of our cities were all men of high scholarship, refined literary culture, and accomplished talkers, the public platform would gladly welcome them. If our women teachers all possessed those graces of culture afforded by the continued study of literature and art, they would soon become the leaders of the literary societies which are an inspiration to the intellectual and social life of the city. What we need is a higher culture among ourselves, more study and scholarship, and the development of those graces of mind and character which are the outcome of an intellectual and scholarly life.

Towards this end the influence of our profession should be earnestly directed. Higher standards of scholarship, as well as of professional training, should be the teacher's watchword. One cannot but admire the high thought, the cultured manner, and the grace of expression of many of our representatives who took part in the discussions of the Council during the early part of this week. Such attainments, the result of a life of study and reflection, should be the ideal towards which the young men teachers of the country should aim. In my official position as superintendent, a prominent object has

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been to hold out inducements and provide the means for the higher scholastic training of the young men teaching in our public schools. Many of these men, though excellent teachers and supervisors, were denied the early advantages of a collegiate education. One of my earliest acts was to arrange with the University of Pennsylvania a special course of study for such young men, which when completed would entitle them to the degree of doctor of philosophy. My thought is, that one of the best ways to lift up the profession in public estimation is to elevate the teachers who constitute the profession.

The signs of the times are most hopeful in this direction. The teachers themselves are showing a deep interest in this higher culture. The teachers' institute of our city arranges for classes in literature, French, German, etc., and many of the women teachers of the city are availing themselves of these privileges. With still higher aspirations, they are now soliciting me to make arrangements by which they, also, can pursue a university course of instruction and secure that breadth of scholarship that will entitle them to the doctorate degree. With such a spirit on the part of teachers, stimulated and directed by those in positions of influence and authority, we shall be able to have, in our large towns and cities at least, a cultured class of men and women who will command a fuller share of public appreciation and admiration. Then will come increased compensation, provisions for pensioning teachers of long continued service, and a thousand things that will, in some measure, be a reward for the spirit of devotion that characterizes the great body of men and women who are laboring in our public schools and making of them fountains of influences that are to purify and perpetuate the life of society and the nation. Higher scholarship and higher professional qualifications should be the watchword of the hour.

LABORATORY METHODS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

BY CHARLES B. SCOTT, ST. PAUL, MINN.

As we watch the kicking, creeping, toddling, little child, and note from day to day his life and actions, his growth and development, two characteristics which impress us above all others are his almost incessant activity and his marvelously rapid development. From morning till night, during every waking moment, he is *doing, doing, doing*, and *learning, learning, learning*. With every sense alert, he drinks in from the outer world with which he is in the closest contact, and develops his inner self as he never will or can again. He himself

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sees and hears and feels and thinks for himself. He grows and develops as and because he uses his own powers. At the close of his first five years of life, he has absorbed more and learned more and developed more than he probably will in any other ten years of his existence. His life has been a life of learning by doing, of education by self-activity.

This method of education, which nature, the wisest and best of all teachers, thus points out as the natural method of training, is too often abandoned when the child enters his school career. Here his environment of nature is too often replaced by the four walls of the school-room with nature rigidly excluded. Instead of activity comes restraint. Inaction takes the place of doing. Instead of stimulating and directing his senses in their investigation of his world, these God-given gates through which all genuine knowledge of his surroundings must come are almost completely ignored, and he is too often put to work conning and committing to memory what are to him purely arbitrary symbols, with, at best, a very, very hazy relation to the world in which he has lived.

I come before you to-day to plead for the return to nature in the education of our boys and girls, to the materials which nature provides so abundantly, and to the methods which nature indicates so unmistakably. In speaking of laboratory methods in the elementary schools, the laboratory which I wish to advocate is the great workshop of nature; the methods are the methods of nature.

By laboratory methods we mean *personal investigation and demonstration by each individual pupil*, instead of merely accepting or appropriating the results of the investigations of others or memorizing what has been obtained from book or teacher. It is education by self-activity; learning by doing, following the method of nature in early life and of the great school of experience in which all our life is spent. While the term may be applied to any line of study, it is best illustrated and finds its earliest, simplest and best application in the study of the natural sciences or "nature study." We may follow the laboratory method in the study of history or geometry, or even language. At best, however, this is usually but an approximation, a step or two toward the personal study by the pupils of the sources of the statements or ideas or principles which we commonly accept without question. In nature study every child has at his door-step the originals, the sources, the objects for genuine personal individual investigation. They are a part of his every-day life. Hence, in the elementary schools, the best possible basis for laboratory work, and the best possible application or use of laboratory methods is nature study or elementary science. While *nature study* furnishes the simplest and best basis for laboratory methods, these should not and

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will not stop with nature study. Experience has shown that the teacher who has studied nature—has really observed and investigated nature—with her pupils, will better understand their nature and needs, and will make all her school work approximate more and more closely the natural methods of education.

Already the laboratory method of teaching is gaining a firm hold in our educational system. We are beginning to appreciate the truth preached by leaders of educational thought for centuries, that education is a process of *self-development*, of natural growth resulting from the use of our *powers*, rather than a mere acquisition of knowledge, of facts and principles. Froebel and his earnest successors are convincing parents and teachers, that in the education of the child, whose waking life from birth has been an almost incessant activity, we should follow the leadings of nature, and continue, in school as well as out, the process of learning by doing. Thanks to the kindergarten and the dissemination of the kindergarten spirit, our primary teachers are learning that the children entrusted to them must be developed by self-activity, not by self-repression; must learn by doing, not merely by listening. The teachers themselves are learning at the same time another lesson, no less important; that the school is a laboratory for *them* as well as for their pupils; that only as they study the children can they hope for the best success in teaching. The demand from our colleges and universities for laboratory work and laboratory methods, for students with the power which comes from doing and the knowledge which is based on personal investigation, is leavening our high schools; and, through them, very slightly influencing the upper grades of the grammar schools.

But these two influences, the kindergarten from below, the university and college and high school from above, have as yet scarcely affected the spirit or method of the intermediate grades, in which a large majority of our American children end their school days, and which most need improvement. In the primary grades in many schools, the first year or two of the child's life in school may be under conditions favorable to self-development—development by self-activity. If he survives the succeeding period of four or five years, and powers of doing have not been too much atrophied by neglect, he may again have the opportunity to continue this part of his education.

My plea to-day is for the laboratory method of study, and for the study of the great laboratory of nature in which we all live and move and have our being, not merely in kindergarten and high school and college, but in all grades of our educational system and in all stages of our children's development.

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Instead of postponing this part of the child's education—this learning by doing—to high school or college, when the power of personal investigation and confidence in his own power of doing have been greatly weakened, and when the habit of going to book or teacher and depending on authority has become strengthened and fixed, how much better to train the power of doing from the *very beginning*, and, throughout the whole school course, aim to form the habit of personal investigation, expression and reasoning. Scores of times principals and teachers have told me, that in beginning the work in nature study the children in the lower grades of the schools do so much better work than those in the upper grades. They are more interested; they see more, and tell more. Why? As one of the principals said: "The children in the upper grades have had the power of seeing and doing educated out of them." At first the older pupils think it is childish and foolish to spend so much time studying a plant or an animal, when they can learn all about it in a few moments from a book. The little children will try to do anything; much that their older brothers and sisters are afraid to attempt. It was this lack of *power* in pupils in the high schools, of power to see, and tell, and think, which first convinced me, as a high school teacher, of the need of laboratory work in the elementary schools. After three or four years of such work, much of it very desultory, the pupils come to the high school with much greater confidence in themselves, in their power to do, and with very marked improvement in the power of observation, investigation and expression. This is shown not merely in their science work, but in many other studies. The teachers of English in particular recognize a very great improvement.

The necessity for laboratory work throughout the whole course of study in the elementary schools becomes more evident when we remember that from thirty to forty per cent of the children in our schools leave at or before the close of the fourth year, and that probably sixty per cent never go beyond the sixth year in school. Do not they need the education of power, as well as the education of knowledge? What class of our population stands more in need of those sympathies and tastes, that interest in and love for higher and better things, which come from the loving, sympathetic, right study of nature? Their acquaintance with the sordid, mercenary side of life begins very early. What better means of counteracting the narrowing and lowering tendencies of such a life than the cultivation of the love for nature, and familiarity with the story of care and forethought and plan which the book of nature reveals? I would that I could speak more of this higher side of nature study, and tell not merely what I believe it can do in lifting up our pupils, but also

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what it has done in brightening the atmosphere of our schools, in interesting our boys and girls in better and higher things, in drawing pupils and teachers together in much closer relation and making them fellow-workers in the investigation of truth. But this side of the work Miss Cropsey is to present to you.

We have considered what we mean by laboratory methods in the elementary schools. We have glanced at a few of the reason why we should have such work. I wish I had the power to emphasize more strongly the "why." Why should our boys and girls in *our* land with *our* institutions, learn to *do* and *see* and *tell* and *think* for themselves? Why should they substitute for the mere authority of books and teacher the knowledge and power which comes from personal investigation? *Should* they form habits of independence and self-reliance? *Do* they in most of our schools with our prevailing methods?

Some years ago, as a high school teacher, in a position to know the mental habitudes of those who had passed through our elementary schools, I asked myself this question. I have since been endeavoring to cultivate individuality and self-reliance, to develop the powers of careful observation, clear truthful expression, and accurate inference and reasoning by introducing laboratory methods in our schools, by interesting teachers and pupils in nature study—the actual, personal, individual study by teachers and pupils of plants, animals and rocks, and of the forces controlling or influencing them. Nearly every one of the 15,000 to 18,000 children in the system of schools with which I have been connected has been studying this spring the plants; not studying about plants, but studying the plants themselves, the buds and their development, the seeds and their germination, and the formation of root, stem, leaf, flower and fruit, the function and structure of leaves and flowers. With this has been more or less study of the common birds, robins, bluebirds and woodpecker, and their habits. Last fall they investigated the life history and life of insects, the habits and structure of spiders, crayfish and snails, of fish and turtle. When living nature was deep in its winter sleep, rocks and minerals and soil, or earth materials, water, air and heat, or earth forces, and their changes and work, claimed their interest and attention. What the children have seen with their own eyes, they have told in the way most natural to them, by modeling or molding in clay, by stitching, drawing or painting, by oral and written language. They have looked at nature through the eyes of the poet, and learned to better appreciate and love nature and literature. Thus the nature study has been correlated with and made the basis of much of the other work of the school, particularly in the lower grades.

I wish I could show you some of the results of the laboratory work in nature study. Many of you have seen these results in other schools;

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the intense interest in the work; the love for nature and sympathy with plant and animal; the appreciation of higher things which comes from the right study of nature, and of the writings of those who have best understood and appreciated nature; the clearer vision and more certain knowledge, which come to those who walk by sight and not merely by faith; the power, crystallizing into habit, of careful exact observation; the corresponding power of clear and truthful expression in language or drawing, which must come when the impression is clear and exact, because based on interest and on actual observation; the habit of asking and seeking the why and how of the world around them; the clearer knowledge of plant, animal and stone, of water, air and wind, of the physical environment, which determines so largely success or failure in life; and, perhaps best of all, the very marked improvement in individuality and self-reliance.

I do not for a moment mean to say that these results are due to nature study alone. Rather, they are the result of the introduction into the schools of natural methods, of the laboratory method of study, for which genuine nature study is the simplest and most interesting preparation, and of which it is the best illustration.

Nature is a great field. We have but a moment to consider the question as to the form and phases of nature which will best repay study. Nature study must be, above all else, a study of our own environment, of that which is nearest to us and a part of the every-day experience of our pupils. What the child most needs is a sympathetic familiarity and clear, exact knowledge, gained by personal investigation, of that with which he lives in daily contact and in which he is most interested. As the environment changes with the season, the work in nature study must change. Study life in spring and fall, when life is abundant, and minerals and water and air and elementary physics, when living nature is asleep.

A second consideration which must determine the selection of material is the interest and tastes and preparation of the teacher. The teacher as well as the pupil will do the best work with that in which she is most interested and with which she is most familiar, and in the graded schools should be allowed much latitude, at least for a year or two, in the selection of material. My own experience with teachers leads me to believe that plants will furnish the best material for a beginning in nature study. They are simple and easily understood; they are interesting, attractive and clean, not distasteful to the most fastidious, and the average teacher knows more about plants than about animals or minerals. Buds and their development, seeds and their germination, root and stem, leaf and flower and their uses, in the spring; in the fall, the autumn flowers, the formation and dissemination of seeds, the production and uses of fruits, the

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falling of leaves and the preparation of the plant world for winter; at any or all times, the trees.

In a year or two animal life can be studied; insects and spiders, crayfish and snails, in the fall; birds, in the spring.

In the end we come back to that with which we started: the child, and his nature and needs. In the ultimate analysis the work in nature study, the selection of material for study, and particularly the arrangement and treatment of the material, must depend on the child. Before all else, the child must be interested. Only through an awakened interest can he be best developed. The material and treatment must interest the child and must keep him interested.

The child, and not the teacher, must see and tell and think for himself, and to do this each pupil must, if possible, have the material for study in his hand. Plant study has an advantage in this respect because of the abundance and accessibility of material.

Children, and particularly younger children, are most interested in life and action, development and function. In the lower grades nature study should be a study of nature in action, of life and of nature at work, physiology and dynamics. In all grades nature should be approached from this side. Gradually life and development and function and work can lead to structure and plan, and finally to classification. First, the swelling and development and function of the bud or leaf or flower; then its structure and plan and relation to environment; lastly, its modifications and forms and classification. First, the life-history and habits of butterfly or ant or snail; then its structure; and last, its relatives.

To the child, with his seeing eye and hearing ear and understanding heart, nature is more than power or force or matter. It is a protecting, guiding, far-seeing personality. To the child the book of nature is a book of revelation. With the true teacher the child will read in bud and leaf and flower, in insect and bird, even in the story of rock and soil and in the changes and work of water and air, a lesson of protection and care, of purpose and plan, which must lift him up to a Protector and Planner.

The more carefully we study the child, the more we adapt our work to the child, the better we will understand nature and the more natural and effective will our methods be. The more we study nature and get in harmony with the spirit of nature, the better will we understand the child and adapt our work to his needs. The more intimate the connection of child and teacher with nature, the closer will be the bonds of sympathy between teacher and child and the more will child and teacher be uplifted and developed.

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DISCUSSION.

R. E. DENFELD, Superintendent of Schools, Duluth, Minn.—I am in hearty sympathy with the excellent thoughts expressed in the papers which I have been appointed to discuss, and desire to emphasize, if possible, the laboratory method for the elementary schools. It is hoped by a due attention to this method that education will fully complement experience and intercourse. In the past, the graded school has been charged with too much routine work; many, therefore, have looked upon the old district system as more ideal than the graded school of to-day. This notion, to my mind, nature study, if intelligently approached, will dispel, in a great measure.

It is true that the lamented martyred President called the ideal school "a log. with Mark Hopkins at one end and a student at the other," possibly because this noted educator possessed those qualities that led the student into lines of original investigation, thus fostering the laboratory method. Wherever such teaching predominates, it "rings the rising bell in the dormitory of the soul," awakening it to the beauties that lie scattered about.

This is, indeed, the province of the laboratory method. Its aim and scope must first be felt by the teacher of science, or nature study in our schools will never be fully appreciated.

The work cannot be done by placing in the hands of the teacher a text-book. I am sorry to say, that in two-thirds of the nature work, when teachers are called upon to begin this work, there seems to be a tendency to look to some text-book for outlines in teaching. Consequently, a great deal of the so-called "nature study" is mechanical and of little benefit. To say to a teacher, "Here is a book; teach the hyacinth, or cray-fish," and, as a result, a list of names, and perhaps many unnecessary or non-essential points, are dwelt upon, committed to memory or recited, without the object itself being present. The educational element is thus entirely lost sight of, a cut and dried study of text-book, or text-book at second-hand, is presented, and all the animated, soul-stirring work is taken away. The child gets no insight into life, and cannot be led by such lessons to an appreciation of the world around him or the beauties of nature.

Unless our instructors perceive that it is necessary to make a careful selection of material, and suit that material to the mental strength of the child at the time of presentation, it may be far better to get back to the text-book, teaching the facts as they are presented, without attempting more.

Yet this very kind of teaching has done much damage in the past and is still doing damage, inasmuch as it makes teaching mechanical, and unduly stimulates memory.

We also fail to keep in mind the kindergarten spirit. We do not allow the child to observe, but rather ask him to see as we see, and compare and judge and give expression to the thoughts that are prompted from our advanced point of view. But if we leave the child to himself with proper direction, we may at last reach the right principles underlying science work. The confused, and often unintelligent, work is well illustrated in this story:

One day, a little boy came home from school and said to his mother:

"I don't want to go to school any more; I want to stay at home."

"Why, what is the matter?" said she.

"I can't do my number work," the boy replied.

"Well, I am sorry; but I guess you had better go to school."

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The little fellow, thinking he had found a solution of the difficulty, said:

"I wish I were a rabbit!"

"Why do you wish you were a rabbit?"

"Why, the teacher says they multiply rapidly."

Ridiculous as this story may seem, it nevertheless is to the point, and illustrates the kind of nature study, or science-work, that is too often done, and proves conclusively that teachers, in cases of this kind, do not fully grasp the subject, attempting too much.

It has often occurred to me that there should be the most careful grading in this subject, and that the simplest facts, or those most easily observed by the pupil, should be taken up first, and then and there understood. These facts should be made the basis for other facts suited to the mental grasp of the child in the succeeding grades, so that there may be always something fresh and new, and not a constant review in each grade from the very beginning, except so far as they may be needed as a preparation for the new facts presented. In this way, it is possible to rouse the little life and bring it into harmony with its environment, so that, in acting upon that environment, it will in turn be acted upon by it, and constantly come closer to Nature, and, through her, to Nature's God.

That the laboratory method may have its complete work, we must have those who fully appreciate its scope, so beautifully set forth in the excellent papers to which you have listened.

THE HIGHER USE OF NATURE STUDIES.

BY MISS N. CROPSEY, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

Nature awakens in the child other activities than those of the senses and the understanding. Hints of a deeper significance to the spirit are found in the child's sympathy with nature, in his love of harmony and beauty, and in his vague knowledge or intuition of the correspondence between his own life and the life of nature.

Froebel has given us the great revelation of childhood. He says that children should study Nature, not so much with reference to the details and outer forms as with reference to the spirit of God that lives in her and rules over her. "This external view of nature based on particular natural phenomena, seen in their separation, is like the external view of a large tree, in which each leaf seems to be strictly separate from the others." The boy, he says, should see the objects of nature in their actual relations, and original combinations. He should climb the highest summit, so that he may understand the entire region in its unity.

We ask the child to observe the river or the brook, its course from source to mouth, its breadth and depth at different points, the current, the channel. He finds the immediate causes of the brook, its relation

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to the land through which it flows, its effect upon the soil, its relation to vegetation, direct and indirect relation to man's physical life. And, so far, the brook has rendered service to his senses and his understanding. It has a higher use as a symbol of human life. It becomes a type of what is universal, what is permanent in man's life.

The child is like the "little river sparkling on its way, o'er the yellow pebbles dancing."

In the full strength of life, Thoreau bids us accept the struggle: "Let us pray, that if we are not flowing through some Mississippi valley which we fertilize (and it is not likely we are), we may know ourselves shut in between grim and mighty mountain walls amid the clouds, falling a thousand feet in a mile, through dwarfed fir and spruce, over the rocky instep of slides, being exercised in our minds and so developed."

And at last, "Thou leadest me beside the still waters," reflects the inner calm which must follow the long, heroic struggle.

There is a relation between man and nature through the whole scale of man's physical and spiritual life.

> All things unto our flesh are kind
> In their descent and being; to our mind
> In their ascent and cause.

A tree has value to the lumberman or the builder as he sees in it a shelter from sun and rain. It has a higher value to the poet, who uses it to explain to us man's ideal nature. "He shall be like a tree planted by the rivers of waters; his leaf shall not wither, and whatsoever he doeth shall prosper."

Under this symbolic form, the whole problem of man's life is stated and solved. Obey the law of your higher nature and you shall have life, perfect and harmonious. You do not now see the result of this struggle; you cannot behold it in yourself. You cannot use the methods of psychology and introspection. But consider the perfect unfolding of life in the tree. How sane and fair it is. Under right conditions your life shall be as perfect.

Here in nature is the same method working upon a lower plane, but so far as it goes, the life and development of nature is a fit type of human nature. This conclusion is reached, not by building fact upon fact; it cometh not by observation of external things, but by the power to see the movement of the whole, by the intuition of the reason. This may be a very vague and general view; it must be so in early stages of development.

We are constantly trying to find the meaning of things, to feel and know the spirit which animates these appearances, to understand

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the law which underlies our own lives. We find an answer in nature and in art long before we are able to question science and philosophy. As the child's theory of the world is vague, it must be vaguely expressed; not by clear, direct statements, but by symbols—some sensuous form used to express spiritual truth.

The first purpose of nature study should be to foster the child's sympathy with the life around him, and in this unity with nature he feels the unity in himself and with the all. He feels a spiritual order in the world; a deep, underlying harmony; and the study of nature should be a deep, religious influence in his life.

In ascribing to inanimate things his own mode of thinking and acting, we find in the child hints of the necessity for the myth. In man's early development the outer world seemed much more real to him than the inner spiritual world; or rather, he would understand his own life by giving to it some visible form. What ages of growth have been necessary to bring us all the way from the "Hymn to the Nile" to our modern view of "Natural Law in the Spiritual World" and spiritual law in the natural world. What the child finds as suggestion in stone and tree and brook; the myth or the story reveals to him. "The power that has scarcely germinated in the boy's mind," says Froebel, "is seen in the legend or the tale a perfect plant."

The poet "sees nature with a supernatural eye." Recognizing the spirit of things, he creates, by the imagination, a world in harmony with it, using the facts of the outer world to reveal its inner harmony of life and purpose. The man of science begins with the fact and patiently works toward the general theory. These two views are always closely related in the development of the individual and the advancement of the world. Our creeds are enlarged by our view of nature's method; our science is questioned in the light of our view of man's nature and destiny.

The careful observation of facts, the conscious, persistent, severe training of the judgment in discovering the relations of things (the discipline nature gives to the understanding), must be part of the process by which we are prepared to appreciate higher values.

Perhaps the intuitions of the poet prepare the way for the more definite investigations of science, and in turn science must influence the view of the poet. A revolution of human thought from a scientific point of view seemed to be necessary before modern poetry could be written. The music of the brook, the rustling of the leaves, the resistless might of the sea, were, to the ancients, not expressions of nature's spirit, but of the divinities who dwelt in nature. As science began to discover one law in all the contradictions of the external world, poets began to write of nature as a harmony in itself, which again finds response in the harmony of the soul. We find in our

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poets of the present century a friendliness, a communion with the spirit of nature—"a pleasure in the pathless woods, a rapture on the lonely shore—society where none intrudes."

If early education is based entirely upon the sharpening of the senses and the training of the judgment in a narrow, exact manner, the creative powers must be dwarfed; and while the understanding must have full exercise, the whole nature should be held in poise through the training of the emotions and the will.

We can teach to reason from cause to effect where premises are given without teaching reasonableness. The whole nature should come under the influence of sanity and law, and this sanity of life and purpose nature study should help to give, directly through sympath or intuition and indirectly through art. The purpose of art is, not to afford a momentary delight to the senses, but to enlarge our lives and make us reasonable by showing us the truth of things—their unity and proportion.

Matthew Arnold says of Wordsworth, that the cause of his greatness is simple and may be simply told: "It is because of the extraordinary power with which he feels the joy offered to us in nature and in the simple elementary duties and affections, and because of the power with which he shows us this joy and makes us share it. This is the truest and most unfailing source of joy accessible to man, and it is universally accessible."

The poet's verses would be of little worth were they not a revelation of the truth in man and in nature. All men are poets in a degree and under favorable conditions. Read Charles Reade's story of "The Lark in the Gold Fields"—how the miners for gold in far Australia traveled long weary miles, after a week of toil, just to listen to the song of a lark; how the hearts of the men rose in aspiration and love as the lark sang, though they could not express their emotions in the verse of the poet:

Wild is thy lay and loud,
Far in the downy cloud.
Love gives it energy,
Love gives it birth.
* * * * * *
Thy lay is in heaven,
Thy love is on earth.

Thus, this beautiful interpreter of love, aspiration and freedom is brought into our lives by sympathy with nature and by the divine art of the poet.

The study of nature should be, for the child, first of all, ethical. Children should learn, from sympathy with bird and insect, to appreciate their efforts for self-preservation, their toil in home-making and in providing food, noticing the structure later as adapted to the life.

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Do children feel the influence of the spirit of nature? Do they feel that delight in its beauty and that companionship which great poets seem to have experienced even in childhood?

The mind of the child is yet an undiscovered country. We know something of it from the literature of the great masters, something from personal reminiscence, much from modern psychology, and something, very little, from our own observation of children. For our interests and emotions are so bound up with the life of the child that we do not discover that he has an independent activity.

We believe that children delight in the mere external beauty of form and color. It speaks very powerfully to them. They feel the correspondence between their own lives and the life of nature, and in a degree, the influence of the spirit of nature. That this is felt in a very vague way, and in a very low degree, compared to the pleasure felt by the disciplined mind of the man, we must believe.

One test of the attitude of children towards nature we find in their appreciation of poetry. The didactic verses which are a mere recital of events or mere external descriptions, we can scarcely consider. There is only one element of poetry in them, rhythm; and that is perhaps not the essential element. Poetry must reveal something which a mere didactic description cannot give. It undertakes to explain the spirit of things by an appeal to the imagination, and through the form of the metaphor, or some kind of symbolic language. Nature is explained by the qualities of man; man, by the method of nature. Poetry should touch the imagination of the child and lead him to aspire and rejoice with nature. All poetry for children should be sacred poetry, in the sense that it appeals to the ideal nature and leads beyond the mere external contemplation of things to their internal movement and significance.

Children get from a poem or story a general meaning rather than a critical understanding of each phrase. In Hans Andersen's story of the pea vine, the children understand in a general way the correspondence between the life of the growing plant, which blossomed into beauty as the life of the sick child blossomed into health; that as the plant was imprisoned and by patient growing at last rejoiced in its perfect expression of beauty, so the life of the child, which was imprisoned by sickness, slowly returned to power and joy. All of this story might be reduced to a few didactic statements, or to a few clear, significant similes. The child could not fill these condensed statements with life or explain them by his experience.

We cannot set the style and measure of our lives by the electric railway and the fashion plate, though these are great factors in our civilization. In our great cities, nature should bring to the children,

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to the toiler, that wealth of life, that repose of spirit, which "a host of golden daffodils" could bring to the poet.

I little thought
What wealth the show to me had brought.

For, in moments of weariness or loneliness,

They flash upon that inward eye
Which is the bliss of solitude,
* * * * * * * *
And then my heart with pleasure fills,
And dances with the daffodils.

HORACE MANN'S COUNTRY SCHOOL.

BY HON. HENRY SABIN, SUPERINTENDENT PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, DES MOINES, IOWA.

The country school as it existed in the thought of Horace Mann had nothing in common with the college or the university. In his mind the education of the child of the humblest laborer in the commonwealth was of as much consequence as that of the child born to an inheritance of millions. The act defining his duties, after enumerating certain methods of work, declares the end to be, "that the children depending on the common schools for instruction may have the best education which those schools can be made to impart." In his times, when people talked of the common schools they had in mind the country school, the little red schoolhouse of which Whittier wrote:

Still sits the schoolhouse by the road,
A ragged beggar sunning;
Around it still the sumachs grow,
And blackberry-vines are running.

The entire school nomenclature of the present day is a new invention, which would have been senseless jargon in the ears of those who lived in the times of Horace Mann. Of state universities, of agricultural colleges, of secondary schools, of manual training, of university extension, of the Committee of Ten, he had no occasion to learn, and so he was left free to concentrate the powers of his mind upon his work in behalf of the common district school. He recognized the apathy, the absolute indifference, of the people as a great evil. In order to remedy this, he scattered circulars and letters everywhere; he enlisted the prominent men of the commonwealth, gathered information from every possible source and spread it broadcast among the people.

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But the most powerful means which he used was his personal presence and his addresses. He went from village to village, and from hamlet to hamlet, preaching everywhere to the common people the saving gospel of education; and the common people heard him gladly. His words came to them like water to the thirsty soul, and like bread to the hungry. Secondary schools, high schools, city supervision, manual training, have usurped nearly the entire educational field, while the schools in which the children of the farm laborer, the miner, the rural community, must receive at best a limited education, sit in the valley of the shadow of ignorance waiting for their redemption. The country schools in every state need an educational regeneration, a fresh baptism into the spirit of Horace Mann.

It is to be noted here that the subjects of his lectures were such as were calculated to enlist the sympathies of his audience. They appealed to the common heart of the populace. There is danger that as a profession we may yet become too professional. Psychology, pedagogy, philosophy, scientific teaching, are well enough when we are debating among ourselves; but if we expect to interest and instruct the people we must talk common sense. When he said, "The mobs, the riots, the burnings, the lynchings, perpetrated by the men of the present day are perpetrated because of their vicious or defective education when children;" and again when he said, "If we permit the vulture's eggs to be incubated and hatched, it will then be too late to take care of the lambs," he was lecturing upon "Means and Objects of Common School Education."

He once used these words: "If republican institutions give greater scope and impulse to the lower order of faculties belonging to the human mind, then they must, also, give more authoritative control and more skillful guidance to the higher ones. If they multiply temptations, they must fortify against them. If they quicken the activity and enlarge the sphere of the appetites and passions, they must at least in an equal ratio establish the authority and extend the jurisdiction of reason and conscience." He was talking to the people concerning the "Necessity of Education in a Republican Government."

In his lecture, "What God does and what He leaves for man to do in the Work of Education," he combines more pure pedagogy than is sometimes contained in an entire volume which is put into the teacher's hand to study. The work of the creature must follow and supplement the work of the Creator.

"Surely," he says, speaking of the training of children, "in no other department of life is knowledge so indispensable; surely in no other is it so little sought for. In no other navigation is there such danger of wreck; in no other is there such blind pilotage." He was speaking to a promiscuous audience, not to one composed of teachers alone.

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I have dwelt at some little length upon this point, because I know, that if we expect to rescue the common district school from its present low estate, we must catch the spirit of Horace Mann and talk to the people in plain unmistakable language, concerning the duty as well as the necessity of providing for every child in the State the best education possible, at the public expense. Ministers have lately discovered that if they wish to convert sinners they must go where sinners are. If we ever reach the people, to convert them to our way of thinking, educationally, we must go where the people can hear us. If we would bring common truths home to the conscience of the people, we must render them luminous with the light of common things.

We have no need of a Moses to lead us a tedious journey of forty years through the wilderness; but we do need a Joshua who can stand by the river, even when it fills all its banks, and bid the priests who bear the ark of popular education, go forward, and stand in the midst of the stream, that the people may pass over dry-shod.

It is a most serious question which confronts us in many localities: What can we do more than we are doing to arouse an intelligent enthusiasm in behalf of better schools? We are having fair success in many cities, although even there many ignorant and unworthy men are elected to the board of education, often through party politics. But in many country districts in those States where population is scarce and schoolhouses far apart, apathy, ignorance and indifference brood like a thick cloud over the entire community. When National and State Associations are busy with the mint, the anise and the cumin, who is there left to attend to the weightier matters of the law? There are two questions which claim the attention of the public just now. The one is, how to obtain better results from the work done in the elementary schools in our towns and villages; the other is, how to raise the character of the instruction given in the common country school. The Committee of Ten which can solve these questions will build for itself a monument more enduring than brass. These are far above all questions concerning secondary or collegiate education, because they are nearer the common people.

It is interesting to note the importance which Horace Mann attached to the rudimental branches. He says of the normal school, then just started at Barre: "There are fifty students in attendance, which number might have been doubled if the instructors would have consented to carry them forward into algebra and chemistry and astronomy and geometry, instead of subjecting them to a thorough review of common school studies." He evidently preferred for the district school that a teacher should be thoroughly prepared in a few important branches, rather than have a superficial omniscience gained by a cursory study of every known branch of knowledge. Thor-

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oughness in preparation induces thoroughness in work; a superficial preparation renders thoroughness in instruction impossible.

Horace Mann's teacher for the district school must possess aptness to teach, as well as knowledge, which he says embraces a knowledge of methods and processes. He adds: "He who is apt to teach is acquainted not only with common methods for common minds, but with peculiar methods for pupils of peculiar dispositions and temperaments." The best normal schools are not always those with the finest buildings, or the most extended curriculum, but those in which the students study and apply "the principles of all methods," so that they may vary their modes of instruction to suit the individual wants of the child.

The era of individuality is at our doors, and the teacher of the future will be compelled to deal with his pupils as the wants of each one may require. Rules, regulations and systems must give way, and the individual child must be enthroned as the one supreme object for whose welfare the school was established. This was Horace Mann's idea. It can best be carried out in the country school, but it can nowhere be successfully done unless the teacher possesses, and is governed by, the teaching spirit. The teacher in the country school, isolated in her work, with but little advice or supervision, finds here her only solace; her only refuge from the dull monotony of hearing lessons and keeping order.

But Horace Mann's teacher must also possess the power to govern and control her school; not necessarily through fear, for love is far better and more enduring. Yet when love fails, force must be called in, for disobedience is the open gate to all evil influences. He, however, expresses a pungent truth when he says: "Children coming from homes where they have always been accustomed to love and sympathy, should expect to find love and sympathy in the school; and those coming from homes in which there is no love and no sympathy, above all others ought find these in their teachers."

As Horace Mann desired that teachers for the district schools should be prepared in the common branches, he did not hesitate to deprecate the tendency, even in his day, to increase the number of branches in the common schools. What would he have said, could he have inspected the courses of study in some of our high schools. Said an earnest teacher the other day: "We have so many things to do, so much instruction to give in different branches, that we have no time to build character." And yet character endures, when knowledge fails. "If there be tongues they shall cease; if there be knowledge it shall vanish away. Now abideth these three, faith, hope, love."

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Horace Mann's idea was very far from confining instruction in the country schools to the three R's. Whatever has a tendency to make the boy more useful on the farm, or to make the life of the farm more attractive to him; whatever will make the daughter more useful in the home, or make the home a place of supreme pleasure to her, may legitimately be taught in the district school. The subjects taught in the country school ought to bear a close relation to country life. The great storehouse of nature opens her doors and displays her treasures to the rural school. Seedtime and harvest, bud and flower, blossom and fruit, the care of animals, singing birds and running streams can be made the source of lessons useful as well as pleasant to the children. The country school is shorn of half its usefulness because the teacher is not able to rise to the height of her opportunities. And what wonderful opportunity she has to teach the pupil to "translate forms of beauty into thought, and thought into words!"

To make a system of education effective it must be in accord with its environments. The country school should be thoroughly countrified; it should never put on metropolitan airs. It is not desirable that the country school should keep equal pace with city systems in the character and kind of studies introduced in it. But especially in nature studies, and in elementary science as bearing upon agriculture and rural life, the curriculum of the country school should be greatly enlarged. What the city school ought to do in fitting boys for the office or for professions, the country school must do in fitting boys and girls for the farm. Just as soon as the farmers in the agricultural sections of the land find that the school is making the boys and girls more useful on the farm, more intelligent, and more contented to remain at home, they will value it for its usefulness and rally to its support.

In an article in the "Common School Journal," then (in 1840) edited by Horace Mann, the writer, after enumerating a long list of eminent men, says of them: "All common school men; some scarcely that; but yet all educated men, because they were made alive." The school, whether it be in city or country, which does not do this for the pupils, is failing of its purpose. We have lost sight to some extent of the purpose of common school education, and possibly we may have to go back to the country school of Horace Mann in order to get our bearings again.

I do not say we do not, but I do say we ought, to turn out of our common schools reasonable, thinking, live men and women, anxious to be of service to mankind, eager for knowledge, with a quickened conscience, with the seeds of growth planted so deep that neither drouth nor frost can reach them; growing year by year like the young sapling of the forest which does not reach its maturity until it has

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been nourished by the sunshine of a hundred summers and has breasted the storms and winds of a hundred winters. He is educated, then, "who thinks most, feels the noblest, acts the best."

But where are we to get our teachers fitted for this work? This is true, that no State in the Union is so thoroughly equipped with normal schools as to be able to give all her teachers a professional training. This is also true, that the normal school takes apparently highest rank which approaches nearest to being a well-equipped college. I do not object to this, and yet but few of the graduates of these schools will find their work permanently in the country. The State must bring its normal training close to the farmer's door.

O the pitiless, merciless, barbarous experimenting which is being practiced upon thousands of American children in the school-room! The blind teaching them to see; the dumb teaching them to talk; the lame and the halt teaching them the grace of motion; it is a sin which cries to Heaven. Horace Mann tells this story: A bystander, after witnessing a wonderful operation upon the eyes, performed by the most skillful oculist in London, asked him, "How in the world did you learn to do it?" He replied, "By practice; but I spoilt a bushel basketful of eyes in learning how."

The State should inaugurate a series of normal schools, one in each county, or at least each congressional district, with a curriculum confined almost exclusively to elementary branches, and having special reference to country schools; the course to be completed in two years, and in charge of the best instructors whom money can get. Then we may look for the dawn of the educational millennium; the day when the door of the public school will be locked against every candidate who has not had some special preparation for her work. Then the seedtime shall not fail, and thousands of happy children shall yearly celebrate the harvest home of knowledge.

There are but two other points to be touched upon. Long and earnestly did Horace Mann labor to reform the architecture of the country schoolhouse. From his day to this there have been spurts, spasms of reform, but nothing lasting; there will never be suitable buildings, built with due regard to health, comfort and convenience, in accordance with the laws of sanitary science and of civilized decency, until the State exerts its authority and compels it, as a prerequisite of obtaining a share of the public funds. It will take years to reach this conclusion, but the agitation should begin now, and bear with it the active influence and co-operation of this National Educational Association.

Finally, the district schoolhouse must be the rallying point for every influence which tends to elevate or benefit mankind. Within

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its walls should be kept the district library; the museum of specimens gathered and labeled by the children; the herbarium of flowers and leaves which the children have gathered on the prairies or the hills. Here may be held the country lyceum; the debating society; the singing school. No matter if religious meetings and Sunday-schools are held here, provided the religious conscience can be so elevated that the worshipers will not desecrate the room by tobacco nor purloin the books of the pupils. Here may be held historical or scientific lectures for the benefit of both parents and pupils. The surroundings should be sightly and attractive. Trees and flowers and shrubs should adorn the grounds, which should be scrupulously cared for.

In short, the district schoolhouse and the grounds should have such a hold upon the community that they would be the last places which they would permit to be desecrated by the vandal or the tramp. This would be the district school as Horace Mann would have it.

THE STUDY OF LITERATURE.

BY RICHARD G. MOULTON OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

[STENOGRAPHIC REPORT.]

I consider it a very high honor to be allowed to speak, myself a teacher, to this magnificent gathering of teachers, and also to be allowed to speak to you on a topic which is the most interesting of my life, and that is, "The Study of Literature." My particular thesis may sound to you a paradox, but I can assure you it is a paradox I heartily believe; and it is this: That the study of literature has yet to begin. I mean, of course, the study of literature in any adequate sense. Who is there that cares for literature that will say that we have at the present time, in any organized form, a study of literature that will compare in dignity, in equipment, in method, with the other great studies of the times; with the study of language, the study of history, and above all, with the study of physical science?

Look around at the universities. My own University of Cambridge in England makes no pretense of teaching literature; search its calendar from beginning to end and you will not find the name of this study. For a Cambridge Master of Arts the whole of English literature is represented by Paley's "Evidences of Christianity," which he has been required to read for its religious, not for its literary effect.

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The other great English University of Oxford, has, within the last few months, set up a school of English literature after existing comfortably for five or six centuries without one. When you come to the universities and schools of America, I grant you things are much better; your universities, most of them, have classes of English literature. But I am informed that this is a matter of comparatively recent date; that it is still looked upon in many quarters as a concession to external pressure, and not an integral part of educational machinery. Moreover, with some honorable exceptions, the universities have in this matter no method or plan of their own, but treat the whole subject simply as a hanger-on to the province of philology.

Someone will say, "look outside." I do look outside, and I see plenty of time spent on the subject of literature, but very little study. I find a number of people who are buying books, piling up libraries; but there is all the difference in the world between books and literature. Some of the world's greatest literature, like Homer, was produced when there were no books in the world. The greater part of this book buying is due to nothing more than a spirit of collection. When a man has a certain amount of money and a certain amount of leisure, he must collect something. One man will collect butterflies; another man will collect beetles; and a third will collect books; and he soon gets to know all the outward marks of books, and the things that make the trade price, or rather, the "value" of books. But, if I may trust my own experience, there are comparatively few bibliophiles who have any real grasp of literature. Then, again, I am aware that outside the universities literature becomes a staple subject of conversation amongst educated people. But that fact tells in two different directions. People do not talk about music or mathematics unless they have given some attention to them; but the idea is that anybody may talk about literature. And what is the talk? It merely consists in catching some opinion of somebody about some piece of literature, and passing it on without any thought or examination. It consists in reading reviews, to find what people are saying about books; people are anxious to know about books, not to know books. It consists in reading reviews, in order to find what is being done in the literary world, just as people read the fashionable papers to find out what is going on in the world of fashionable society. That is not the study of literature, but simply literary gossip. Then again there is another class of people, who are sincerely anxious to read, and to get the reigning book, whatever that may be. But when you come to look below the surface, you find that this means no literary study; some people in their dress, in the character of their houses, must be

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up to date; and so with regard to books, they are "up to date." People of this kind will at the present moment be exceedingly uncomfortable if they are not able to say that they have read "Marcella;" but they are not at all uncomfortable over the fact that they have not read Dante.

It seems to me, then, the result is very much the same whether you look within the university or without. Universities give the cold shoulder to literature, either altogether ignoring it or making it a mere branch of philology; and outside of universities you see not much literary study, but simply a great deal of spurious imitation of it, in book buying, book gossip, and book fashions.

We can see not only this fact as to literary study, but we can see also the causes that have brought it about. I should like to put to you two causes as mainly responsible for this low status of literary study. The first cause is the study known as classics. There is a difference between practice and theory. In theory many a man supposes that a study of classics is giving him literary culture; as an actual fact, the study of classics—by which is meant always Roman and Greek classics—is proving the most formidable obstacle in the way of literary culture. A moment's consideration will explain how this has come about. The study we call classics took its rise at the Renaissance, and it then was synonymous with the whole of liberal education. And a magnificent education it was. The difficult dead languages gave the gymnastic element of education; and for the other element of education—that which stimulates taste and imagination, which sets the mind to thinking about life—what could give that better than the literatures of Greece and Rome? So it was, as long as these classics constituted the sole education of the world. But in process of time, necessarily and unavoidably, other subjects forced their way into the educational program, such subjects as science and the like, and thereby diminished the time allowed for the study of the classics. As the day still consisted of twenty-four hours, all that diminution in the time allowed to the study of classics had to be taken from the literary side of classical studies, since the study of the literatures cannot be commenced until the languages have been mastered. Thus you get this extraordinary fact, that all the while that education as a whole has been becoming fuller and more rich, all that time, in just the same proportion, the study of classics has been becoming less and less of a training in literature; so much so that at the present moment its defenders put it forward simply as a training in gymnastic and mental discipline. For the vast number of classical students the literary element has gone out of it altogether. I know you find a few bright students who get some literary training

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out of their classical studies. But these bright persons are of slight importance in educational matters. It is the average man you have got to provide for. If you consider the great masses of our boys and girls who study classics at school, our young men and young women who study classics at the universities, do they get any proper training in literature out of their classical study? They get something, but is that something a training in literature? They talk about the number of pages of Latin or Greek they can read. Pages! Why, in the study of literature, the very unit is a book; to estimate your progress in literature by the number of pages you read, is like estimating your study of elocution by the number of words you learn how to pronounce. Thus it seems to me, that in actual fact as distinguished from theory, the study of classics, whatever other value it may have, must be reckoned an obstacle in the way of the study of literature.

I proceed to the second of the great influences which appear to me to be prejudicial to the study of literature. Here, again, we have a thing which is good in itself, but which is an obstacle to what we are considering to-night—the study of literature. I refer to the great modern institution of journalism. Journalism, I know, is one of the most magnificent institutions of modern life. It is the automatic record of our civilization. Just as the telegraphic message not only makes itself known to the operator, but automatically records itself upon a tape for reference afterwards, so by the aid of the newspapers, this civilization of ours, is recorded for future ages to be able to follow. I think there are few agencies in modern life which are doing their work so well as the newspaper. To go further, I believe that journalism has, to a certain extent, an educational influence. But we are speaking to-night about the study of literature. If you look at journalism from this point of view, you cannot resist the conclusion that it is an obstacle in the path of literary study. For what is the very law of existence to journalism? Is it not this, that the currency of thought shall vary inversely with its maturity. Look at the facts. Here is the enterprise that goes to make up the newspaper: News is being brought in with the rapidity of lightning; shorthand reporters are taking down speech literally with the speed of thought; the matter is put into literary form almost as rapidly, and almost as rapidly it is printed and multiplied. This haste is necessary because the newspaper is only to have an ephemeral existence of a single day: and this ephemeral literature is sold for two cents and circulates by the hundred thousand. Here is another kind of thought that is manufactured a little more slowly; there is time to see if news is contradicted before it is printed; there is more

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leisure for arrangement and criticism, more care can be taken in the composition; for what is produced is to last on your tables for a whole week; and this weekly paper is sold for ten cents and circulates by the ten thousand. Now there is another kind of matter being put together in which there is ample time for choice of subject. It is written by the best writers, with all possible elegance; all that art can do in the way of illustration is done; it is clothed in the most beautifully tinted covers: and all this can be done because the production is to have an immortality of a whole month; and this monthly magazine sells for twenty-five or fifty cents and circulates by the thousand. Thus the law is apparent: the ephemeral matter, only made to last a day, circulates by the hundred thousand; the more carefully prepared matter, made to last for the whole month, circulates only by the thousand. In other words, the currency of thought in journalism varies inversely with its maturity. Now, is that a pleasant reflection, when you look at it from the point of view of literature? Literature is the immortality of thought; is it then a pleasant consideration to the lover of literature that the foremost institution, perhaps, of our day, is an institution of which the very law is that the currency of its thought shall vary inversely as to its maturity?

There are degrees of danger to literary study in this institution of journalism. Of its various forms the least harmful is the newspaper; the most harmful is the magazine. I call these literary magazines the organ of literary spoon-meat. They are the weeds in the literary garden, choking up the mental soil and preventing it from finding time for literary reading. I look upon them as the saloons of the cultured. Men in society would never go near a saloon, but they will waste their time and mental energy in lingering over magazines.

We can see with absolute precision what the harmful effect is that this kind of journalism exerts upon the study of literature. It is this, that it is rapidly destroying the power to read. Don't imagine I am conjuring up imaginary difficulties. I speak as a teacher of literature of twenty years' standing, and I have had as my students for the most part adults, not children, and people having for the most part a certain amount of education and refinement. Now, the fault I find with my students is, not that they are deficient in taste or in judgment, but simply that they have not the power to read. When one puts to them the conception of an author they are touched by it as much as one can desire. But they come to us and say, "We do not see these things when we read by ourselves." Why, of course they do not, because they have lost the power to read; they have dissipated the power by skimming these newspapers and magazines. Who ever

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reads a newspaper or magazine? They are not meant to be read. The editor would be the person most surprised if he found that you did read the newspaper; I mean, if you took it at the left hand top corner and went through, column after column, carefully, to the bottom of the right hand corner on the last page. The thing would be absurd; the way you deal with a newspaper is to skim it and get through it, cast your eye down and leave out all you possibly can. He reads the newspaper best who reads it fastest. And that is why I think the American press is so much ahead of the rest of the press of the world—it gives you so much help through the headlines. Every successive headline means so much less in the paper to be read. The newspapers of the millennium will consist of nothing but headlines. (Applause.) I put it to you as a matter of common sense—how is it possible that you should day after day, some of you many hours of the day, exercise yourselves in this skimming, in this rapidly casting your eye over the columns, leaving out all but just the most prominent things, without developing the power of overlooking? And then, with that power of missing things fully developed, you come to an author like Milton, in whom every word is a picture, in whom every collection of sentences and the very framework of the clauses may be an echo from the literatures of the past. How is it possible that you should read with that attention which such literature requires?

A friend told me something which I think puts the whole matter in a nutshell. He said he had been seated next to what he described as a girl of the period. It was the period when "Daniel Deronda" was the reigning book, and so he put to her the inevitable question, "Have you read 'Daniel Deronda'?" And what do you think was the answer? "No, but I have been told it." Think; she had been told "Daniel Deronda"! You who have read "Daniel Deronda"—that compendium of a whole philosophy of life, combined with a story as intricate as Shakespeare's plots—fancy a young lady being told the whole! It was as if someone had been asked, "Have you read Herbert Spencer's 'Psychology?'" and he should answer, "Well, no; but I heard it across the dinner table." "Have you heard Mendelssohn's 'Elijah'?" And the reply would be, "Yes; that is to say, a friend hummed it over to me." I tell you, ladies and gentlemen,—more especially the cultured ladies and gentlemen of America,—you are losing the power to read by spending so much time over magazines and newspapers. You are rapidly sinking into a mental state which can only be likened to what men of science call parasitism. You are so accustomed to live upon the brains of others who do the thinking for you that you are losing the power to give attention to the subject yourselves. (Applause.) Therefore, journalism as an institution I am forced

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to-night to reckon as a second great influence hostile to literary study.

Thus, when we survey the study of literature we find that in the universities it is ignored, and thereby educated people are turned out without any training of the literary sense; and when they have left the period of their school days and ventured into life we find their daily habits are undermining their power of attention. But I presume we are in an assembly of teachers. If so, perhaps we ought to rejoice in the state of things I describe; I mean, rejoice in the way that a gathering of medical men rejoice in some new epidemic that will test their powers. In my opinion, fellow-teachers, we are face to face with a gigantic problem. I have not the least doubt that, so far as higher education is concerned—I say nothing about elementary education—but so far as the higher education is concerned, the great problem of this coming generation is the development of the study of literature; the bringing of literature up to the position that in theory everybody thinks it ought to have.

I should like to be allowed to turn now from retrospection to prospect, and suggest to you what steps it appears to me must be taken to bring the study of literature up to its proper rank.

I see before me three great revolutions that must take place in the study before it is worthy to hold its proper place. The first of these three revolutions is the recognition of the unity of literature. Natural science was not a great study when one man spent all his life on plants and knew nothing else, and another man studied animals and knew nothing about plants. Natural science began to be great when people recognized that there was a great deal in common between the life of the plant and the life of the animal, and the two sciences of botany and zoology dissolved into the wider biology. And the reason that natural science is the foremost study in so many schools at the present day is, that in that study more than any other has been recognized the unity of all nature; the naturalist knows that he is dealing with one and the same system, whether he is chemically analyzing a fragment of dust he had picked up in the street or turning his spectroscope upon the light that has come from suns millions of miles away. It is the same with philology. Not long ago one man would give his time to the study of Greek, another to the study of Latin, and a third to Persian or Sanskrit; others confined themselves to German. And when that was the case, language was not a science, but an "accomplishment." It began to be a science when people perceived that there was a great deal in common between one language and another. It became more of a science when the comparative method came in, and "comparative philology" occupied

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men's thoughts. It has become a foremost science now, because we recognize that underneath all the separate language-studies there is one common study of language. Now, apply all this to literature. For the most part we are satisfied to read with one set of people English literature, with another set possibly Latin literature, with another Greek literature, with another set Hebrew literature; and as long as you do that your literary study will be provincial. To make it catholic you must recognize the unity of literature; that beneath the separate literature-studies there is one great study of literature.

The question is, how is this practical problem to be accomplished? Now, it is to me very interesting to watch the different approaches made in practical education to this recognition of the unity of literature. Many mere approaches have taken place within my own memory. A great English educator has said that the Roman and Greek writers are our literary ancestors. When you come to consider it, that dictum runs counter to the old-fashioned mode of studying literature. It was supposed that to study English literature thoroughly you must begin with Anglo-Saxon. But it is a most misleading idea to think that our great classical English literature is developed from the early Anglo-Saxon literature. Thring was right when he said, "You must look to the writers of Greece and Rome for your literary ancestors." They were the ancestors of our classical writers. Through these have come every page of Spenser and Milton, if not Shakespeare. But this principle implies another; all that has been said of Greek and Roman classics is equally true of the Bible. It also is our literary ancestor. Thus a recognition of the classics of Greece and Rome, and of the literature of the Bible, as our literary ancestors, makes one approach to the recognition of the unity of literature. Another approach I should like to dwell on if I had the time—that is, the formal recognition of comparative literature. But the third of these stages of advance is associated with America. It is an interesting movement that has been set in motion outside of the universities, by such men as Mr. Denton T. Snider, Dr. Harris (the United States Commissioner of Education), Mr. Hamilton W. Mabie and others. They speak of themselves as students of the four great "world-bibles," Homer, Dante, Shakespeare and Goethe. That is, these four are to the literary world what the Bible is to our religious life; and an organization is formed for studying, year by year, one of these great world-bibles. Of course, you may object to the choice as arbitrary, but we are dealing with problems of practical education, and I venture to say that one who has thoroughly trained himself in these four world-bibles will be far more of a literary scholar than a classicist

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who has given his life to the study of Greek and nothing but Greek. I regard, then, the recognition of these four world-bibles as a great approach to the recognition in education of a unity in literature. But I think one step has been taken in advance even of this. The University of Chicago, like other universities, has chairs of English literature, but it has one chair which I believe cannot be paralleled anywhere else, and that is a chair of "Literature in English." (Applause.) The difference between English literature and literature in English, is the difference I desire to point out, with regard to a recognition of the unity of literature. The holder of that chair has power to treat all literature,—what Thring regarded as our literary ancestors, the literature of the Bible, the four world-bibles of Mr. Snider; he has the right to treat these or any other literature, and upon him is thrown the problem of combining all these so far as is practicable for his students. There is only one limitation upon him, and that is the best part of the whole arrangement,—that whatever literature he presents must be presented in the vernacular English, and not in the original. This is the only way of dealing with this field of universal literature; you must not only make your selections from the literatures of the world, but you must present them to the students in their own tongue. Of course a specialist may say, you lose everything when you study literature out of its original tongue. But this simply shows that the specialist has never emancipated himself from the old confusion between language and literature. People said just the same thing centuries ago about the Bible; they said, it will be the death of our religion if the Bible shall be given to the people in the vernacular. But we have got along for several centuries with our English Bible, and the record of religious thought since Biblical literature has been entrusted to the people in their native tongues will be some indication of the success that will follow when the great literature of the world comes to be studied by the English people in the English tongue. This recognition of the unity of literature, then, is the first of my three revolutions.

The second of the revolutions I will only just mention: It is the study of literary evolution. Evolution, which has made our physical science so great, must be applied to the study of literature. In doing so we must get rid of the talk about authors. How authors come to write their great works, and all such personal matter is literary gossip. If we are to have a great scientific study of literature we must fasten attention upon the literature itself, and the stages through which it has been evolved.

Then, briefly, the third and last of the revolutions is, that the whole spirit of criticism must change. There are two ideas which

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have made other sciences great. Evolution is one of them, and the other is inductive observation. Criticism must become inductive; and that is third of our revolutions. There is no mystery about this word induction; it simply means that criticism must be based upon observation. People study nature, not by sitting in their chairs and making up their minds what nature ought to be, but by careful observation of what nature really is. We must do the same with regard to literature. At present the criticism of the reviewer and of the dinner table is based upon a totally different principle: it deals with what literature ought to be and not what literature is. The critic examines literature to pick out the faults, to say that this is better than the other; not like a man of science does he examine literature to know its different qualities and compare them. The reviewer tells us how very inferior Ben Jonson is to Shakespeare; everything that in Ben Jonson is different from Shakespeare's style this reviewer describes as so many faults. He should examine the respective works in order to discover the varying qualities of them. It is very difficult to persuade people to give up this idea that the office of the critic is to pass judgment as to right and wrong, as to better and worse. The answer to all that is in history: the whole history of criticism is a triumph of authors over critics. So long as criticism passes judgment upon authors, so long each generation of critics has had to reverse the verdict of the generation before it. Voltaire said that Shakespeare's poetry was the fruit of the imagination of an intoxicated savage. Dryden sighs to think that Spenser should take so bad a model of verse, and said that blank verse never could be used for poetry except possibly in drama; but Spenser's stanzas and Milton's blank verse take rank among the classics, while Dryden's criticism is forgotten. Jeffrey tried to put down Wordsworth, but now Wordsworth is a classic and Jeffrey is a curiosity. Now, I have been referring in these instances to some of the greatest names among critics; meanwhile plain men and women have read their Shakespeare, their Spenser and their Wordsworth and gathered inspiration from them. These great critics were blinded, though they thought they were fair. Their difficulty was that they attempted to pass judgment, and judgment is the restraint of sympathy, and sympathy is the great interpreter. Is not the figure of justice always modeled with a bandage over the eyes? Perhaps it never occurred to you that this was meant to symbolize the blindness of reviewers, attempting to judge with closed eyes. It is only by sympathy that you can get at the meaning of the author.

Now, this is the third of the three revolutions which are to make the study of literature great. Criticism must come down from its throne of judgment, and like all other science must sit at the feet of that which it studies; not attempting to give laws to literature, but

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simply taking laws from literature. It is only through humility and sympathy with the author that the critic can make literature known to others. There is a certain legend which tells us how some Jewish rabbis, followed by their disciples, were walking along the shore of the Lake of Galilee, discussing high matters of the law. They stumbled by chance upon the carcass of a dead dog. One started back in disgust, another cried out upon the stinking object, and the third cursed the thing in the name of his God. Then there was a stir in the ranks of their followers, for they had just seen approaching the sympathetic rabbi of Nazareth. They wondered what he would have to say to this object; for there was no denying it was all the rabbis had said of it. The lowly rabbi of Nazareth with his followers came up; his eye fell upon the object; for a moment his face seemed to darken with sorrow, and then it lit up again; "See," he cried, "See; its teeth are white as pearls." There you have the true spirit of criticism. The man who judges, who pronounces judgment, who finds fault, leaves art where he found it. The man who discovers a beauty that has never before been noticed, has added to the intellectual wealth of the world.

With these three revolutions—the recognition of the unity of literature, the recognition of evolution as the true method of the study of literature, and a change in the spirit of criticism to the scientific spirit of observation—the study of literature will have begun and will be in a fair way to attain its proper rank.

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Memorial Addresses

CONSTITUTING THE

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON NECROLOGY

FOR 1894,

Including Several Addresses Read in the Departments of the Association.

George Howland, Chicago, Ill.
By ALBERT G. LANE; by J. L. PICKARD; by JOHN W. COOK.

Elizabeth Palmer Peabody, Massachusetts.
By WM. E. SHELDON.

M. Alexander Newell, Maryland.
By MISS S. E. RICHMOND.

Leland Stanford, California.
By WILL S. MONROE.

Emily Marwedel, California.
By MISS ELIZABETH HARRISON.

John S. Crombie, New York.
By JOHN E. BRADLEY; by RAY GREENE HULING.

Robert Allyn, Illinois.
By EDWIN C. HEWETT.

Robert Wallace Stevenson, Ohio.
By EMERSON E. WHITE.

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GEORGE HOWLAND.

BY ALBERT G. LANE.

[READ BEFORE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE, FEB. 21, 1893.]

George Howland was born in Conway, Mass., July 30, 1824. He died in Chicago, Oct. 22, 1892. He received his preparatory training in the country and village schools, and taught at times to pay the expenses of a college course. He entered Amherst when twenty-five years old, and graduated with honors in 1850. He spent three years as a tutor and three years as an instructor of languages in his alma mater. In January, 1858, he went to Chicago to accept a position as an assistant in the high school, and in 1860 was elected its principal, which position he held until 1880, when he was elected superintendent of the schools of Chicago. He resigned Sept. 1, 1891.

He was unmarried. He had few intimate friends. He lived and died alone. His own words seem to bear to us the spirit that often filled his heart:

> And when this fitful dream is o'er,
> And friend or foe can do no more,
> All earthly comfort flown;
> When brightest mortal glories pale,
> And heart and flesh together fail,
> The parting spirit lifts the veil
> And passes through alone.

For more than forty years he was a teacher. He loved to teach. He won his pupils. Thousands of the prominent active business men and influential women of Chicago honored George Howland because he gave them an inspiration for study and culture during the twenty-three years he was teacher and principal in the high school. He taught them to love books and to find companionships in the writings of thinkers. Books were his friends, and he wrote:

> Thus in union strong but tender,
> Sweetly live my books and I;
> Kindly offices they render,
> While the evening hours go by,
> Till soft slumber o'er us creepeth,
> And we rest, while nature keepeth
> Sacred silence, till the day
> Gently drives the shades away.

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Mr. Howland loved children, and he loved to see them happy. There were great gentleness and tenderness manifested in all his dealings with them. His ideas of the government of children in a school were so radically different from those usually entertained by teachers that his plans for the discipline and conduct of a school were frequently deemed impracticable. He entered upon the superintendency of the Chicago schools when it was trying the experiment of governing them without corporal punishment. Mr. Howland so fully believed in moral suasion that his strong positive influence enlisted the teachers, many of whom had been his pupils, in support of the principle of developing the good in every life and watching for the angel side of every character.

Quoting his own words, he endeavored "to rid the schools of the old dull, dead routine, and make them living fountains of health, happiness and growth, to which we no more shall see the school boy 'creeping like a snail unwilling,' but with earnest thoughtful face hastening to a new discovery. The one great thing needed in our schools, public and private, is the spirit of humanity and culture which shall make their life healthful, happy and progressive, the well-spring of an upright, true, cultured manhood and womanhood, and a willing, working, watchful and faithful citizenship."

Mr. Howland's administration of the perplexing duties of the superintendency were characterized by wisdom, firmness and definiteness. His knowledge of all phases of the educational work made him a trusted and competent adviser.

Mr. Howland was a man of marked literary ability. His secluded habits gave him time for meditation and study. His translation of Virgil's "Æneid" in two volumes, the "Odes" of Horace, his book of poems entitled "Little Voices" and his "Practical Hints for Teachers" have made his name familiar to educators throughout the country. He was prominent in State and National educational conventions. He was a member of the Illinois State Board of Education and a trustee of Amherst College. He was for many years an honored member of this Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association. He strove to elevate the profession of teaching; he encouraged a fuller study of the principles of education; he sought to break up the monotony of the text-book drills; he opened the beautiful field of literature and history to the children of the common schools.

Friends and associates in Chicago have inscribed upon the marble that marks his resting place the simple words: "A TEACHER."

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GEORGE HOWLAND.

BY JOSIAH L. PICKARD.

[READ BEFORE THE NATIONAL COUNCIL, JULY 7, 1894.]

JULY 30, 1824—OCT. 22, 1892.

The dates above written are the limits of the earthly life of one who enriched all the stations he was called to fill. As plow-boy upon his father's farm in Conway, Mass.; as student at Amherst College, from which he graduated in 1850; as tutor in Latin at his alma mater; as assistant teacher in the Chicago High School from January, 1858, to June, 1860; as principal of the same school from 1860 to 1880; as superintendent of the schools of Chicago from 1880 to 1891, George Howland proved himself a worthy scion of the Puritan stock. He was of the eighth generation descending from John Howland, and Elizabeth Carver, daughter of Governor Carver, who came to Plymouth in the Mayflower. It is certain that ancient blood lost no strength in the keeping of his veins. Close application to the work in hand, honest performance of every duty, careful attention to the perfecting of minute details, intense hatred of superficial work, abhorrence of shams, modest shrinking from public observation, and unselfish devotion to the interests of others, were his marked characteristics.

Born to command, he loved to obey. No one associated with him failed to find in him a loyal friend. Born to command, he secured loving obedience not from display of authority, but from conscious possession of a power recognized by all under his direction. The thought of disobedience never entered the mind of a pupil. However severe his reproof, it was felt to be deserved and it left no sting.

Sympathy with those struggling against obstacles was constant. A friend once said of him: "George Howland will go as far as any man to do a kind act, and then go a little farther that he may conceal it." He would blush like a girl and turn away in apparent disgust from one who sought to acknowledge a favor bestowed. His left hand was not suffered to know what his right hand was constantly doing.

To say that Mr. Howland was a teacher expresses only a half truth. He was more than a teacher; he was an instructor. He inspired his pupils with a love for truth, and so taught them that they were at every step building character. Mr. Howland was a thorough student, and his literary ventures prove the depth of his

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studies. His literal rendering of the "Æneid" in English hexameter is a work of extraordinary merit. His translation of the "Odes" of Horace, and of portions of the "Iliad" and the "Odyssey," attest his familiarity with Greek and Roman classics. These are changed into English classics, and are used in the schools which he served for thirty-three years.

He was not confined to setting in English verse the product of other minds, but in simple beauty he set forth, in "Little Voices," the thoughts that teemed in his own brain.

His extreme modesty kept him for many years from appearing upon the lecture platform. Well do I remember the difficulty encountered in securing from him an address before the Educational Association of Illinois. His success was gratifying to him.

After entering upon the city superintendency of Chicago his annual addresses were looked forward to with the greatest interest. Ten of these addresses have appeared in the "International Education Series," edited by W. T. Harris and published by D. Appleton & Co. These addresses are models of clear presentation of the teacher's opportunity for building character and of the teacher's responsibility for the results of her influence. They are helpful and inspiring. Thirteen years of intimate association with George Howland awakened in my heart a love for the man which as many years of separation have not suffered to grow weaker, and which his sudden death has made sacred. Chicago cannot fail to recognize in the life work of George Howland a prominent factor in her greatness.

GEORGE HOWLAND.

BY JOHN W. COOK.

[READ BEFORE THE NATIONAL COUNCIL, JULY 7, 1894.]

George Howland has not lacked biographers. I am informed that an intimate and faithful friend will speak of his character and public services at the general meeting of this Association. Upon the invitation of our President, I have ventured to speak of him in an informal manner, trusting to the impressions made upon me by a somewhat intimate acquaintance which extended over many years.

I saw him first in December, 1865, at the meeting of the State Teachers' Association of Illinois. It was my first glimpse of the educational notables of my adopted State, and the impressions made upon me were very vivid. Many of them have lost none of their

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freshness. I was a young teacher, having barely finished my first term, and looked with all of the quick interest of a novice upon the men and women who had already established themselves as leaders among the school people of the young and vigorous West. Should I call the roll you would hear the names of several who have filled conspicuous places in this organization and have won merited recognition in the larger circle outside the limits of the State which then claimed them as peculiarly her own.

But no other person then present made so marked an impression upon my youthful imagination as George Howland, the principal of the Chicago High School. He was then in the early forties. His genial face and abounding good humor singularly attracted me, and I became, at first sight, what I never ceased to be, a devoted admirer.

The president of the association was the late Samuel G. Etter, whose life reached its end under circumstances peculiarly pathetic. He was not a graceful speaker, and wisely selected the accomplished academician from the metropolis to respond to the welcoming address of a local celebrity. Mr. Howland was in his quaintest vein, and made the occasion memorable by an impromptu speech that at once took an abiding place in the traditions of the organization. Some of his eccentric conceits were annually repeated, and are still current among the older generation of schoolmasters in the Prairie State.

So my first insight into the nature of this peculiarly interesting man was from the humorous side. When, a few years later, he admitted me to a prized intimacy, I found that the playful instinct was most easily excited, and that the phase which he quite habitually presented to the world was lighted with a gentle merriment that was at once an invitation and a foil.

His humor was never broad; it was delicate and silky. It suggested depths of good will and tender regard in a shy sort of way that seemed trying to disguise the esteem in which he held his friends. It constantly lurked in the background of his public addresses, giving them a suggestion of smiles that rarely reached the borders of laughter, although they were sometimes unequivocally mirthful.

I have alluded to his shyness, which, for a man of his breeding and experience, always surprised me. That it was one of his characteristics no one will deny who knew him well. I have seen him tremulous with timidity before an audience of students and singularly diffident in addresses before assemblies where custom denies the privilege of the manuscript. It explains, also, a certain inoffensive irony quite habitual with him, and that sentineled the approaches to a sensitive and somewhat shrinking nature. It was usually difficult to engage him in controversy, and his opinions were often hidden by a mask of pleasantry. I have reason to think that this peculiarity was some-

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what trying to a few of his friends, more especially to those whose thought was turned with great seriousness toward the fundamental presuppositions of method. It seemed to class Mr. Howland among those who deny the possibility of formulating much of anything in the way of a positive philosophy of education. That the superintendent of a great city system should occupy an equivocal attitude respecting matters of such momentous concern appeared especially unfortunate and paradoxical. While I believe him to have been in sympathy with all movements looking toward the improvement of educational conditions, I have not been able to resist the conviction that to the close of his life he entertained no small degree of doubt respecting the utility of anything like elaborate systems of methodology. As you know, it was not unusual for him to discuss apperception and concentration with that ambiguous and quizzical manner of his, that left him free to enter into either of two hostile camps without any charge of apostasy. Indeed, I may go further, and say that he appeared to be something of a loiterer about the porches of the normal school, not quite sure whether it was his duty to advise the young people to go in or stay out.

It is not difficult, I think, to explain his position. While I should be the last person to declare his administration of the Chicago schools as in any sense a failure, yet I must be permitted to remark that, in my opinion, his old function of high school principal was far more congenial than the supervision of the work of elementary schools. He was a true son of the Renaissance in his scholarly sympathies, and, measured by its standard, he was indeed equipped in no ordinary way. His long service as a teacher of the classics had endeared them to his fine artistic nature in a rare way. He was fond of the solitudes of the study and the companionship of books. His style as a writer quickly betrays his love of the beautiful. His fancies freely flowed into verse, and many an exquisite bit of song indicates the shady covert where his hours of rest were spent. His long contact with pupils who had reached that self-directive period, in which method is of smaller significance, had perhaps diminished the sense of its importance. He had dealt with fruitful knowledges rather than with the beginnings of the forms of things, and the habit of a quarter of a century did not, I think, suffer any very radical change. He had great faith in scholarship, and believed that the scholarly man or woman would find a way that would suffice.

His transfer from his old and much-loved work to the arduous position of superintendent must have broken into his life in many ways. He was not a young man when the change came, nor was he old. He would never have been old, I think. He made the transition in a way that surprised those who knew him best. He took

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upon himself the myriad details of his position with good-natured patience. He retained or won the affectionate support of the large body of principals under his supervision. His annual addresses to his teachers, suggesting certain reforms in elementary instruction, elicited generous praise, but more, I think, from the surprise which their utterance occasioned than from anything essentially radical or advanced which they contained.

I may be entirely wrong, of course. I am not speaking as an authority. Others will do that. I am giving only personal impressions. But my conviction is that his influence upon his schools was moral rather than professional. It was the infusion of a spirit of good will, of generous culture, of personal regard. There was not much shop talk, but there was much dignifying of the beautiful in childhood, much softening of the severer side of life. Out of the humanities that were his passion numberless concrete humanities found their way into the lives of little children. His life had always stood for culture and now it stood for kindness, that finest culture of the emotions. I do not forget his occasional brusqueness, nor even his rudeness at times; but they were superficial and did not stand for fundamental traits.

I well remember once sitting with him at his desk after a busy day, during which his office had been thronged with visitors, most of whom had made some call upon his patience. All had at last gone. The door opened and a shy, plainly-dressed young woman entered. She was painfully embarrassed and approached the desk of the sometimes gruff superintendent with extreme diffidence. The kindness of her reception apparently surprised her, and she retired with her eyes filled with grateful tears. I expressed my pleasure at his thoughtfulness, and remarked that one might well be envied whose opportunities for conferring happiness were so abundant. But a crusty "Humph! You are growing sentimental!" was the only reply. It was frequently said of him that his ingenuity often was painfully taxed in trying to disabuse his right hand of the notion that his left hand had been indulging in some graceful benefaction.

His relations to the political and self-seeking interests that seem inseparable from the administration of a great city system were unique. If he was what is called "a manager," I have misunderstood him, and yet he got on better than most managers. It excited no small amount of surprise that a man of his tastes and experiences could hold his own so successfully in a community where politics is a trade and where so many enter it for what there is in it. Without professing to have any inside view, I desire to suggest that it is worth remembering that a large, reputable and influential portion of the Chicago public received its secondary education from the old high

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school on the "west side" when Mr. Howland was its principal. They were his loyal friends. The leading professional men of the city, notably Professor Swing and some others of his kind, recognized the value of a scholar at the head of affairs and had a strong personal attachment to him, and the influence of such men as Professor Swing, even in the wicked city of Chicago, is in no danger of being overestimated. And even the simon-pure politicians, the city hall office-dispensing fellows, seem to have had a regard for him which is one of those seeming contradictions occasionally encountered. He was discreet, doubtless, and did not needlessly offend them, but he did not cater to them, and I am misinformed if they ever attempted to use him.

The State at large knew Mr. Howland chiefly through his public addresses. While not greatly in demand, he made frequent pilgrimages to a goodly number of counties, especially in the institute season. He was for many years a regular attendant at the State Teachers' Association, and often appeared upon its programs. Yet his influence there was largely personal. The gracious tributes to his memory uttered at the meeting succeeding his death illustrated this fact in an interesting way. While he was delightfully acceptable on the platform, his influence was no less strong in the social meeting and the hotel lobby; and yet, as I have intimated, he was in no sense on exhibition.

The volume published by the Appletons and edited by the distinguished commissioner of education contains a number of the addresses alluded to. No one can read them with any care without getting a just appreciation of his tastes and dominating sympathies. As I have intimated, you would not expect elaborate treatises on the history of education, criticism and reforms, or the theory and science of education. If you knew the writer from the point of view from which I knew him, you would make no mistake in predicting the topics toward which he would instinctively turn. The speculative was not his habit of thought. To him the teacher was by far the largest element in the educational problem. Upon him his view would be focused. As he has so well expressed it, he believed that "the one great thing needed in our schools, public or private, is that spirit of humanity and culture which shall make their life healthy, happy and progressive, the well-spring of an upright, true, cultured manhood and womanhood, and a willing, working, watchful and faithful citizenship."

I have alluded to his faith in the widely humanizing influence of scholarship. He looked for gentleness and sincerity as its necessary outcome. The first paper, "Moral Training in City Schools," has little to say of that systematic effort at moral culture by the use of the

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ethical elements in classic literature in the lower grades—an agency so highly prized by the Herbartians. He looked toward the concrete embodiment of the ethical idea, the teacher, quite to the exclusion of any methodically organized system of moral training. And in him he had the profoundest faith.

Was it because he lived and died a bachelor that his views on the subject of punishment were so one-sided? He could not endure the thought of severity with the young. He loved to idealize childhood. He saw its beautiful side in the cultured homes where he was always a welcome and honored guest. His life as a teacher was spent in secondary schools almost exclusively. I often thought that he had small appreciation of the years of patient discipline through which the child emerges from his natural selfishness and becomes altruistic and human.

But who shall say that this very fact did not the better fit him for the duties of his later life? City systems have tremendous tendencies toward machine methods. Where there are so many children the individual cannot count for very much unless the teacher is peculiarly sympathetic. Into that hurried, formal, and, shall I say it, commercial life, this poet-superintendent was forever throwing his delicate fancies about the beauty and dignity of child life.

It is related of him that he once rebuked a teacher in the presence of her school for sending a pupil from the room for some misdemeanor. As he left her smarting under the sense of humiliation, he failed to see the mischievous lad with his extended foot just outside the door, and rumor has it that he tripped and fell. It is admitted that, in the presence of the insistent actual, he forgot some of his gentler theories and attended to a matter of discipline. If the story be true, and it is as well authenticated as such stories ever are, it shows how he might have been spoiled for a superintendent if the fates had made him responsible for the conduct of children. What he called the "barbarism of corporal punishment" always encountered his indignant protest, and it was well that he should feel as he did about it, although the rod is sometimes an unmixed blessing. He believed in the irresistible potency of moral suasion, and he never surrendered his belief.

A passage from the paper already alluded to illustrates his faith in the refreshing influence of culture, and is quoted to suggest a certain stimulating influence which Mr. Howland exerted in his quiet and indirect way. He advises a hobby, "though it be nothing rarer or more costly than moth hunting, the jingle or jangle of rhymes, or even reformed spelling—they are, some of them, as I well know, of boundless possibilities. But at your daily mount of your hobby-horse, take not your way down the crowded street, nor over the choice

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flower-beds and fragrant exotics of your friends; but rather turn aside into the quiet lane, or the unfrequented country road, or still better, off for a free stretch over the wide, open prairie, where, with tossing arms and expanding chest you can shout forth your happiness, till, with loud-answering echo, the solitary places shall be made glad with your presence."

It is in such topics as "The Character of the Teacher," "The Elements of Growth in School Life," "The Scholarship Aimed at in the School," "The Teacher in the School Room" and "How the School Develops Character," that he is most at home. And with what charming graces of style he deals even with the common-place! It is quite as much the literary flavor as the theme that charmed him in Horace Mann, while to the author of "Tom Brown at Rugby" he gave his whole heart. This volume of the Appletons is a fine memento of our friend, and will be read as a frequent recreation, rather than as a study, in our lounging half-hours of restful peace after a weary day. We shall pencil-mark its pages where we find this poetic fancy leaping up with a fine illumination, and we shall perpetually see in the book, what is rarely present in treatises of this character, the warm personality of the author. To read a chapter is to re-live a quiet hour with him, in his office at the close of the day, or by the genial grate of his favorite club, or in my own home to which he was not entirely a stranger. No episode of his life can dim my affectionate regard for him. He died in the solitude that was so dear to him, and I think that he would not have had it otherwise.

MISS ELIZABETH PALMER PEABODY.

BY WILLIAM E. SHELDON.

Miss Elizabeth Palmer Peabody died at her home in Jamaica Plain, Mass., Jan. 5, 1894. She was born at Billerica, Mass., in 1804, and at her decease was in her ninetieth year. Her early childhood was passed in Salem, Mass., where she received her elementary education, mainly in a private school, established by her gifted mother. She enjoyed the companionship of her sisters, widely known as Mrs. Horace Mann and Mrs. Nathaniel Hawthorne. Her mother was a very remarkable woman and developed her strong character amid the trying days of the American Revolution. She never had any school privileges, yet her thirst for knowledge and culture was so intense that she overcame all obstacles and became a lady of rare literary culture. She estab-

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lished the school in Salem where her daughters were educated. "In this school," says one who knew the family intimately, "English composition was largely the basis of knowledge. Girls of ten and twelve read Blair's 'Rhetoric' and Kaimes' 'Elements of Criticism,' and consequently practiced what they learned. They studied no foreign languages, and no mathamatics beyond arithmetic, but gave an immense deal of time to history, geography, physics (studied in text-books), and, above all, to English literature. Mrs. Peabody read to them from the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey,' from Tasso, from the 'Spectator,' and from the 'Edinburgh Review,' and translated much of Chaucer and Spenser into modern English for them; some of these versions being afterwards printed. This was about 1815. Pupils who wished had teachers for languages; and Miss Elizabeth Peabody studied Latin with her father, who was a dentist. Her mother, she says, led her daughter to read the lives of learned women, such as Madame Dacier, Elizabeth Carter and Mrs. Somerville, and the history of New England, by Miss Hannah Adams." This fragment of family history explains the secret of Miss Peabody's remarkable intellectual moral power. Her culture was the result of careful individual training, like that of Margaret Fuller and some other noble women who lived prior to the dawn of a collegiate period of training for women.

In 1822, at the age of eighteen, Miss Peabody became a teacher in Boston, and was eminently successful in her work. She began early to use her pen in the interest of education, and continued to write during her entire life, beginning with contributions to educational papers, the "Dial," "Christian Examiner," and the "Democratic Review," all prominent periodicals of their day. She translated De Gerando's "Moral Self-Education," edited "Æsthetic Papers" (1894); "Crimes of the Home of Austria against Mankind" (1850). She also published R. G. Hagard's "Essay on Language" and other papers (1857). Her "Records of a School," "First Steps to History," and her "Chronological History of United States" and others, were well known by educators of the time.

She was probably best known as an enthusiastic and devoted promoter of the kindergarten in this country. In 1863, in connection with Mrs. Mary Mann, her sister, she published "Moral Culture of Infancy and the Kindergarten Guide," and has been the recognized pioneer leader in the movements to introduce "object teaching" and "oral instruction" into the primary schools. In the kindergarten she was the authority on methods for years, and advocated the Froebelian philosophy, pure and simple, with great ability. She claimed that the two cardinal principles of the kindergarten system are: First—"The child is a spiritual being made in the image and likeness of his Creator, and, therefore, must be given room to create like God."

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Second—"That education should lead the child to unity with God, with nature, and himself."

Through her influence the first public kindergarten in America was established. This was opened in Boston in 1870. It was carried on with increasing numbers and growing interest for several years, but to meet the call for kindergartens in other parts of the city a larger expenditure of money must be made than the appropriation warranted, so the one successful public kindergarten was given up.

But private benevolence did, in succeeding years, what Boston thought she was too poor to do, and the efforts Miss Peabody had so heroically made were not lost. The free kindergartens took hundreds of children from the street into an atmosphere of love and happy work, until the city should be ready to invest money in this best of beginnings for its future citizens.

In England, Miss Peabody had a large share in establishing a Froebel Society, and the American Froebel Union owed its existence to her. For three years she carried on the "Kindergarten Messenger," as an independent publication, and kept the public alive to the new educational thought by frequent newspaper and magazine articles.

She literally gave herself to the cause, for she received, if anything, the most meager compensation for what she did; if her traveling expenses were paid she was more than satisfied, thinking nothing of her own great personal sacrifices; and as she saw the gradual triumph of the better way, and others making easier conquests, she rejoiced simply and fervently.

For a number of years Miss Peabody has been withdrawn from active service, and obliged by failing health to lay down even her pen, which had been mighty in its strokes for truth.

We ought never to forget, at the full harvest time, those who toilsomely made the ground ready and sowed the seed. Without their springtime labor, where would the harvest be?

She was the last of a remarkable group of educational reformers, among whom were Horace Mann, Geo. B. Emerson, Gideon F. Thayer, Thomas Sherwin, David P. Page, John D. Philbrick, and many others worthy of special remembrance, who have gone to their rest. Miss Peabody was the companion of Emerson, Hawthorne, Thoreau, A. Bronson Alcott, and a large and noted circle of Concord and Boston men and women who will live in the history of American literature and philanthrophy. While her own life was devoid of any specially conspicuous or sensational incidents or events, we should assign to her a place in educational history among those who richly deserve to be honored pemanently for eminent services and for an example of self-denying devotion to the highest welfare of the children.

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M. ALEXANDER NEWELL.

BY MISS SARAH E. RICHMOND.

M. Alexander Newell, Ph. D., was born in Belfast, Ireland, Sept. 7, 1824, and he died in Havre de Grace, Md., on the 14th day of August, 1893.

Mr. Newell's early education was in the private school of his father in Belfast. Later on he attended Queen's College in Belfast and afterwards entered Trinity College, Dublin, where he graduated when twenty-one years of age. After teaching two years in the Mechanics' Institute of Liverpool he came to America and located in Baltimore, Md.

Mr. Newell's first important position in Baltimore was that of professor of natural sciences in the City College, which he resigned to accept a professorship in the Madison College at Uniontown, Pa. He returned to Baltimore in a few years, and with his brother-in-law, established a business college, patronized by many of Baltimore's most influential citizens. The Southern army so diminished the sources of revenue to his school that Mr. Newell applied for and obtained the principalship of one of the largest male grammar schools of Baltimore. He remained here but one year, when he went to Pittsburgh, Pa., to assist his cousins, John and James Newell, in the management of Newell Institute, a large and flourishing private school.

In 1865 Mr. Newell was elected principal of the Maryland State Normal School, just established by an act of the legislature. His life-work may then be said to have begun. Three years later he was appointed secretary of the State board of education, and superintendent of public instruction of Maryland, retaining at the same time his position as principal of the State Normal School.

Mr. Newell's attainments were many and varied. He was a scholarly man. Though Princeton conferred on him the degree of doctor of philosophy, yet his special aptness was for mathematics. Abstruse and difficult problems were solved by him through short and simple processes that were a revelation to those who had plodded through them. At six years of age he had mastered the First Book of Euclid, for which he received a prize. He had one of the most retentive memories, remembering readily that which he had read but once. Many an hour has been delightfully spent listening to Mr. Newell, as he quoted from his favorite authors, lines fitted to every occasion and circumstance. He was master of any situation in which he was placed. His knowledge of men and events, combined with his keen insight and cautious judgment made him an able

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debater, and the wit which never deserted him disarmed his opponent and left nothing for him but unconditional surrender. Maryland has had no abler defender of her interests, public education no stauncher advocate than our late friend, Dr. Newell. He kept his finger upon the public pulse, and by its throbbings knew its needs, and, knowing them, fearlessly proclaimed them. He was a progressive man, being one of the first and most ardent claimants for the introduction of manual training into the public schools and a change in the school curriculum.

Mr. Newell has left but a spare record of his work upon the printed page. He was a teacher, and though his executive ability was great, yet he was at his best in the class-room. In that room there was no law save the law of love and self-respect, and that which was right for one was right for all. His pupils were treated with the same courtesy that he extended to his peers. To them he was an inspiration, and the road to learning was more than royal in its pleasantness. Though the teacher has crossed over and is resting under the shadow of the trees, the charm of his voice and wisdom of his words yet linger in the ear and heart of those he taught and will help to make the story of their life.

Much might be said and many facts cited to show his keen appreciation of the services rendered by those associated with him in his daily labors. His consideration of their feelings was most delicate, and he had special regard for whatever might uphold their power or extend their influence among the students.

Nor did our friend ignore the social side of life. He loved men, children and nature. Often in the evenings did he gather the little ones to romp with them, or to tell them some choice bit of history or literature which the childish mind could appreciate. And often, too, did he gather around his board those whom he admired, respected and loved. They who have enjoyed his hospitality remember him as a most charming host whose affability, intelligence and wit lent a grace that was far more tempting than even the dainty fare spread before them.

Mr. Newell was a generous man. Open-hearted, frank, helpful, straight-forward himself, he could not tolerate meanness, selfishness or subterfuge in others. He helped those who sought his aid freely with his advice and his means. He was quick to forgive, but he never forgot a kindness done him.

His simple manners won many towards him. Called to the head of the educational department in Maryland at a time when its government was passing through great political changes, he not only won the admiration and esteem of those whom he found there, but by his ready help, wise counsels, scholarship and earnestness secured

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their hearty co-operation in perfecting a system of public schools just begun, which system stands to-day as a monument to Dr. Newell's ability as an administrator and organizer. No higher tribute can be paid Mr. Newell than the following article, embodied in a series of resolutions passed by the Maryland state school commissioners at their last meeting: "Recognizing his absolute fitness for educational work, his intelligence and his culture, his admirable executive and administrative ability, he was for twenty-five years the head of the educational system of Maryland, with the approbation of those who controlled and directed that system."

With this we close our tribute to Dr. Newell, a former president of this Association, as well as of the Department of Superintendence; also, a laborer in the educational fields of Pennsylvania, Virginia, West Virginia, North and South Carolina, as well as in his own State, a self-sacrificing friend, a teacher devoted to his calling, a true man and a scholar.

THE FOUNDER OF STANFORD UNIVERSITY.

BY WILL S. MONROE.

The National Educational Association has lost an honored member in the death of Leland Stanford, one of its life directors. Born near Albany, N. Y., March 9, 1824, he passed his early years on the farm, where he combined the varied industrial activities common to country life with the meager intellectual opportunities of the country school of fifty and sixty years ago. In later life it was his custom to attribute much of his own success to the character of this early rural farm and country schooling. He taught school a couple of terms before he was twenty, when he entered a law office in Albany, and during the next four years fitted himself for the legal profession.

But the West—always the land of promise to the young and hopeful—had most attractions for the young lawyer, and he began his legal practice at Port Washington, Wis., in 1848. His law career was attended with no brilliant results; and, although pursued studiously for four years, it was at the end of that time given up and never afterwards resumed.

In 1852 Leland Stanford came to California to try his fortunes; not at the mines, as was the epidemic of the time, but as the keeper of a country store. First, at Michigan Bluffs, Placer Co., and subsequently at Sacramento, he was engaged in general merchandise, with a success and insight that gave him front rank as a man of business affairs. By

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1861 he had amassed a fortune of between two and three hundred thousand dollars; and although but thirty-seven years old he returned to Albany with the thought of making this his permanent home and living principally in retirement. But shortly after his departure he was nominated as the Republican candidate for governor; and, anxious to save his State to the Union, he returned, made the canvass, was elected, and discharged the gubernatorial duties with great credit to himself and the State. During the time that he was Governor of California, John Sweet was State Superintendent of Public Instruction, a date usually agreed upon as the beginning of the educational renaissance of the Pacific coast. Both Governor Stanford and Superintendent Sweet were members of the State Board of Education, and together they labored earnestly and harmoniously in the common cause of giving to California the best possible system of free common schools.

At the close of the gubernatorial term, Mr. Stanford, associated with Huntington, Hopkins and Crocker, conceived and realized the first transcontinental railroad. Mr. Stanford was its moving spirit, and to his wise management its final success was largely due. This is neither the time nor place to enter into the details incident to the accomplishment of this great enterprise, but it is only right to say in passing that the success of this gigantic scheme, amid difficulties innumerable, entitles him to large consideration as a man of brains and energy.

Mr. Stanford was chosen to represent California in the United States Senate in 1885, remaining in continuous service up to the time of his death, June 21, 1893. Here, as was his custom, he rarely made speeches, but when he did he spoke for movements likely to improve the condition of the race. He frequently urged the abolition of the army, and recommended that the funds now used for its support be used for the erection and maintenance of public schools.

But the crowning work of Mr. Stanford's life is the great educational foundation which bears his name. In the first flush of the sorrow incident to the death of his only child, Leland Stanford, Jr., in 1884, he said: "The children of California shall be my children;" and this determination had its first public expression March 9, 1885, in an act, which passed the California legislature, "to advance learning, the arts and sciences, and to promote the public welfare by providing for the conveyance, holding and protection of property, and the creation of trusts for the founding, indorsement, erection and maintenance, within the State, of universities, colleges, schools, seminaries of learning, mechanical institutions and galleries of art."

On the 14th of November that year the grant of endowment was made public and a board of trustees appointed. The cornerstone was

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laid May 14, 1887, and the institution formally opened with 465 students Oct. 1, 1891. At the present time (June 1, 1894) the end of the third scholastic year, the university has an attendance of 975 students, and a teaching force of eighty professors and instructors. The object of the Stanford University, as stated by its founder, is "to qualify students for personal success and direct usefulness in life," and its purpose "to provide for the public welfare by exercising an influence in behalf of humanity and civilization, teaching the blessings of liberty regulated by law, and inculcating love and reverence for the great principles of government as derived from inalienable rights of man to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness." And its creed, as provided by Mr. Stanford, shall be "the teaching of the immortality of the soul, the existence of an all-wise and benevolent Creator, and that obedience to his laws is the highest duty of man."

Upon this broad foundation the new university was planted; and Mr. Stanford lived to see it organized and well started. One who knew him intimately for years has appropriately said: "Though his fame will ultimately rest on the work of his age, yet the laurels of his youth were such as few earn in a full lifetime and his maturer years were a succession of successes. At thirty he had fought his way from poverty to affluence; at thirty-seven he was governor. For twenty years thereafter he directed the forces that created 5,000 miles of iron highway; and in his declining years, with eye slightly dimmed and vigor somewhat sapped, but with mind as clear as ever, and with faith in the future and its possibilities as firm as in his youth, he crowned his own career with his greatest work,—he unlocked the doors of the Leland Stanford, Junior, University."

MISS EMILY MARWEDEL.

BY MISS ELIZABETH HARRISON.

"Men and women who set us palpitating with the thrill of something loftier than we yet have dreamed are God's sublimest poems."

In 1817 to an obscure home, in the kingdom of Hanover, there came a girl baby, soon christened "Emily." On Nov. 17, 1893, there passed away from the German hospital in San Francisco, an old woman. This is the brief record of a noble soul's entrance into and exit from our world. It tells of a life which transmuted obscurity, poverty, ill-health and all its other limitations and obstacles into

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courage and strength and culture for mankind. Lessing has said: "The best thing a hero can do is to be a hero." No one who has ever come into close contact with Emily Marwedel will deny that she was an heroic character in this truest sense of the word. Surely her utter forgetfulness of self, ease and comfort, her courage under the most disheartening failures, her complete disregard of popularity and pecuniary profit, should give her entrance into the Valhalla of the educational world. Her life was also full of energy and rich in deeds.

From 1865 until a short time before her death she was actively engaged in educational work. In 1871 she came to America at the request of Miss Elizabeth Peabody, having previously been connected with the Art Industrial School for Women in Hamburg. In 1872 she established her first kindergarten in America at Washington, D. C. In 1875 her first training class was organized in this same city. In 1876, by the advice of Miss Peabody and other warm friends, she went to California, hoping there to establish kindergartens with the much needed out-of-door gardens, as a regular part of the child education. She first settled in Los Angeles; afterward she was induced to establish herself in San Francisco, and later in Oakland, as the latter place offered better opportunities for the free open air life which she so earnestly insisted upon.

During her California period she set out nine "school-gardens" with her own hands, oftentimes at great personal sacrifice. She believed most heartily that "nature is the foster-mother of the soul." To use her own words: "She calls the child without frightening him; she teaches him without repelling him; she speaks a language which he understands better than words, and it is in proportion as he does not forget this grand, simple dialect that he remains long a child, that is, a poet."

Her high standard for the training needed by the teacher of the young child is shown by the fact that in 1882 in the outline of study set forth by her curriculum, she announced that not only would she lecture on ancient, medieval and modern history of education, comparing the various systems leading up to Froebel, thereby showing the psychological advance he had made on all previous educators, but she had succeeded in getting Prof. Josiah Royce (now of Harvard fame) to assist her in the study of the child's mind. In one of her books she says: "Until the education of the inner man ceases to be subordinated to the need of the outer, physical man, we shall never evolve the highest perfection possible to the race." This was no mere theory with her. Her whole life was a vivid illustration of what she meant by subordinating the outer to the inner.

In 1882, when the Kindergarten Department was for the first time added to the National Educational Convention, she was filled with a

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desire to be present. Her finances, always limited, were at ebb-tide, but, nothing daunted, she undertook, during the heat of July, the long journey from San Francisco to Detroit in a common caboose, attached, if I remember aright, to an emigrant train. She reached Chicago weary and worn, travel-stained and physically exhausted. The inconveniences and discomforts of the trip were such minor matters to her, that within five minutes after she reached the friendly home of a Chicago co-worker, she was eagerly and joyfully talking of the coming convention, and what it signified for the kindergarten cause. How many of us would undergo a like discomfort for the cause of education, and not complain of the heat, or the dust, or the food!

The deep comprehension which she had of the cause for which she labored so indefatigably, is shown by a quotation taken from her "Conscious Motherhood;" a remarkable book, by the way, which, notwithstanding the many defects which mar its style, ought to be in the hands of every educator. When comparing Wilhelm Preyer with Froebel, she says: "It is a great error to suppose that Froebel's system is only applicable to very early life. He bases the fundamental principles of education on the universal laws of nature. * * * He therefore demands a methodical unification in education, in order to reach the divine, through a unification of action." She thus foreshadows the "Report of the Committee of Ten."

Twenty-four years before the college alumnæ of America took up the important work of keeping a systematic registration of the psychic phenomena of child infancy and childhood, she publicly and privately urged that mothers should keep a record of the unfolding of their children's characters and actions with "as much religious consecration as the Egyptians used in keeping their diaries."

To philanthropists and reformers she always replied, that to "save man" we must first "study man," eloquently urging that "if the human being is destined to enjoy at least equal privileges with the now scientifically reared fowls, fish, cattle, and even pigs, the mother of our age can be no longer excused for ignorance in her special sphere, ordained to her by the Creator." "We are very far from wanting to limit woman's culture and a broad contact with the past or the present social problems," said she, "but, considering the education of a human being, it seems as if woman would be hardly able to accomplish half the tasks which devolve upon her at present. It would seem that attending lectures illustrated by able physicians, visiting hospitals, asylums and kindergartens, thereby learning to compare normal with abnormal conditions of the child, and by discussing these topics with experienced mothers and nurses, would open to women a field of further study in the science of man, history

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of education, the study of Froebel, the study of temperance, of crime, of insanity, of idiocy, suicide and kindred topics."

Her realization of the sacredness of childhood is shown in many significant passages throughout her writings. In one place she says: "We wrap our little ones' bodies in furs against the winter's cold, we temper for them the summer heat, and, meanwhile, we assault their souls with the spectacle of our anger or our cynicism, and we do not hide from their innocence our self-excusing for lack of duty, our moral debility and cowardice."

Much of her life was spent with children, watching and wisely directing the unfolding of their powers. She was full of that fine comprehensive sympathy which comes only when life flows deeply and continuously through us. Her poetic nature is made manifest in the following passage: "Without riches, without honor, without merit, without science or art, childhood finds the world full of priceless treasures and of ineffable wonders. Given a few broken pieces of glass, a flower, a fruit, a colored string, a doll, and out of them baby constructs an unmeasurable happiness. A few anointed ones of our race have kept this power of creation—of symbolizing alike the mysteries and the realities of life; we call them our ordained poets and artists, and receive with reverence the gifts they bring us from their childhood."

She worked patiently and persistently for many years to elaborate a system of hand-work, including her much discussed "circular drawing" for children who had outgrown the kindergarten "schools of work." However much we may be compelled to differ from the results of her labor, artistically and psychologically, we must admire the self-sacrificing devotion with which she clung to her ideals.

In speaking of death, she once said: "We do not sufficiently realize the value of leading children to an affirmative conception of life before we fill them with negations. From the beginning, instead of putting life and death in sharp antithesis, we should direct them to the idea of life, rather than lives; and of death, as not so much the extinction of life, as its change of form."

It is lives such as hers, lived upon exalted, spiritual planes, which lead us to comprehend this meaning of the word "Death."

JOHN S. CROMBIE, Ph. D.

BY JOHN E. BRADLEY.

John S. Crombie was a man of marked personal traits. No one could meet him casually without recognizing his strength of character. Those who came into intimate relation with him could

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scarcely fail to receive lasting impressions. Over his pupils he exerted a powerful and highly stimulating influence. He was in turn greatly beloved and admired.

The brief time afforded for the preparation of this sketch will preclude any attempt at biographical narration or analysis of personal character. It is only permitted to offer a word of tribute to a well-tried friend and fellow-worker and hastily sketch a few of the traits which endeared him to those who knew him best.

The writer first became acquainted with Dr. Crombie in the autumn of 1886. He had recently become the principal of the Minneapolis Central High School. He brought to the position culture, experience and enthusiasm, and the school, weak in its work and failing in numbers, at once sprang to a new life. Its attendance was quickly doubled, its scholarship became genuine and thorough and its graduating classes increased in five years from fifteen to upwards of one hundred. Still more important was the change in the spirit pervading the school. Boys and girls, who had been lacking in ambition and unable to appreciate worthy motives, discovered a new significance in life and became eager to make the most of the opportunities to prepare for it. The master's office was often thronged with such students seeking advice with reference to their work and plans for the future. Personal difficulties and problems were confidently brought for the beloved principal's solution, and many a youth departed from these interviews with a smiling face and a new light in his heart. Obstacles were removed, ambition was stimulated, and not infrequently tangible assistance was given, so that during the last year Mr. Crombie was in Minneapolis, fifty or more of each graduating class entered college from the Central High School.

As a teacher, Mr. Crombie was most inspiring. Every mind was constantly on the alert. Although the principal of a school of nearly 1,000 pupils, he was never willing to give up all class instruction, wisely concluding that he thus gained an influence over his pupils not to be reached in any other way. His favorite subject was Latin, which he invariably taught without referring to the text-book. So familiar was he with all the text that he could without it correct every error and ask every variety of question upon the etymology, syntax and incidental allusions. If this had been a mere feat of memory it would have no doubt elicited the admiration of his pupils. But it was much more, and it is safe to say that the moral element in literature, the training of the imagination, the æsthetic tastes and the will, have seldom been more effectually brought out than when Professor Crombie led his class in the study of Virgil or Cicero.

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As a principal his work was done quietly and with no apparent effort. Absolutely fearless in all relations, able to assert himself to any extent which his circumstances might demand, he was nevertheless a constant illustration of the superiority of influence to authority. The recognition by his pupils of his fairness and generosity and their boundless confidence in his good will forestalled every difficulty and made his word law to teacher and pupil alike.

In the summer of 1892 he was called to the principalship of the Adelphi Academy, Brooklyn. While he shrank from the change, he entered upon his new field with enthusiasm and with the highest promise. But his health quickly gave way under unfavorable climatic conditions, and his work was ended in March of the first year. He had already won hosts of friends in the great city and large circles were deeply stirred at his death at the early age of thirty-nine.

At the time of his death he was president of the Department of Secondary Education of this Association and a valued member of one of the conferences appointed by the Committee of Ten.

His scholarly attainments were the result of prolonged and enthusiastic study. At the time of his death he had just completed a course of study in history under the direction of the University of Minnesota, and at the commencement following the degree of doctor of philosophy, to which he had become entitled, was posthumously conferred by the university.

Both in Minneapolis and in Brooklyn he identified himself with the social and religious life of the community, and was always a leader in philanthropic work. He was an elder in the Presbyterian church in both cities, active in Sunday-school, Young Men's Christian Association and other enterprises. In these various branches of service, he reached out a helping hand, and many whom he has thus aided unite with his former pupils, and those who enjoyed his closer friendship, to honor his memory and to rejoice in the uplift they have received from association with so true and noble a man.

JOHN S. CROMBIE, Ph. D.

JUNE 19, 1854— PRIL 16, 1893.

BY RAY GREENE HULING.

[READ IN THE SECONDARY SECTION, THURSDAY, JULY 12, 1894.]

In obedience to the call of the acting president of this section, I rise to speak of him whose absence has been to some of us a most impressive feature of our reunion. When we last assembled as the Secondary Section at Saratoga, we elected as our presiding officer

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for the present meeting a brilliant young teacher who was just leaving the West, where he had earned the good will and esteem of large communities, to assume the direction of an important academy in the East. His tall manly form had for the eye no hint of weakness, no prophecy of dissolution. Strength and vigor, hope and promise, usefulness and helpfulness were the suggestions that beamed from his presence. Yet within a single year his name had become a simple memory. It is well that we cease from our discussion for a while to-day, to consider his history and contemplate his character; for, short as was his career from a human point of view, incomplete and all too early ended, it has earnest lessons for us—lessons of a kind that as teachers we should heed.

John S. Crombie was born at Pontiac, Mich., June 19, 1854. His father was a native of Vermont and had gone to Michigan in 1842. At the age of nineteen the lad graduated from the local high school, the first branch high school of the University of Michigan, and at once went on to the university. From its halls he graduated in 1877 with marked honor. The following September found him beginning his career as a teacher.

His first position was that of principal of the high school at Coldwater, Mich. There in the following year he became the superintendent of schools, and retained this position three years. From this, his first field, he passed to Big Rapids in the same State, still as superintendent of schools, and remained in this position four years. This early period we may regard as, in a sense, preparatory to his proper work. But in it he had not only stored up power for future use, but indicated the qualities that attach pupils, parents and fellow teachers to a leader in educational work. He already stood high among the teachers of Michigan, and his departure from among them was greatly regretted.

In the summer of 1885 he was invited to the principalship of the Central High School of Minneapolis, and here it was that he did the best work of his life. It had been his good fortune at Big Rapids to bring order out of chaos in educational affairs, and he had found it an enjoyable task. Here at Minneapolis there was a school which presented a similar problem. It was his especial delight to take a school that was somewhat run down and put new life into it. At his coming, the superintendent is said to have predicted that they could never have a large, flourishing high school in that city, because all Western young people are impatient to get into business. At that time, it is said, there were seldom more than six or eight graduates each year. Certainly the school was then not at all above the rank of other high schools. By Mr. Crombie's executive ability,

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his talent for organization, and yet more by the earnestness and nobility of his personal character, it was raised little by little, till, before he left it, it was pronounced by competent authorities one of the best schools in the United States, as it was one of the largest. Its annual graduates exceeded a hundred in number, and many of them pushed on to college.

Some of the elements of his method appear in the testimony of one of his later pupils:

"He governed the school both strongly and kindly. No one ever heard from him a threat or an unkind rebuke. He laid down no iron rules. He governed by reason, by moral influence, by the development of manly boys and womanly girls, who felt a pride in their school and in their work. The courtesy of a thorough gentleman marked all his relations with his pupils. He had the rare and invaluable quality of making every one of us love him and feel that he loved us. He knew every pupil by name, and greeted him cordially wherever they met. We were his friends, never his inferiors; and feeling this, we acted as befitted his equals. We knew that our success made him glad; that our failures, and especially our faults, grieved him; and we worked the better for the knowledge. Of all the men I ever met, I think there was never one who made himself so dear to all who knew him. And few there are who have done more good in the short span of life."

In the summer of 1892, Mr. Crombie left Minneapolis with the affectionate regard of the community, to assume the duties of the principalship of the Adelphi Academy. As in each preceding change, this was a step to higher responsibility and honor and recompense. The position strongly attracted him. The very last week of his life, he said: "If I could only have five years at the Adelphi, we would have the best preparatory school in the country." Naturally enthusiastic, and therefore courageous, industrious and capable of vast exertion, he threw himself into the effort to upbuild the institution he had come to love with a fervor that was unsparing of self. And even in the few months of his service Mr. Crombie had strongly impressed himself upon teachers and pupils alike, and was winning a high place in the esteem of the community in which he lived. Then the hand of disease was laid upon him. For some years a weakness of the heart had been apparent, and when the severity of the winter had combined with a depressed condition of his general system, due perhaps to something of over-work, the weakened organ succumbed, and on April 16, 1893, he died from heart failure. Tenderly his friends carried the loved form back to his native place, where it now lies, beside those of his father and mother, in the beautiful cemetery at Pontiac.

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In the minds of those who knew Mr. Crombie his name stands for certain qualities that every teacher may well desire to possess. Let us linger a moment to consider them.

The first is scholarship. As a student he was faithful, and attained high honors. As a teacher and superintendent he was always busy, but never too busy to continue his studies. Even amid his arduous labors at the Adelphi he was pursuing steadily his work as a candidate for the doctorate of philosophy, and had completed his thesis on the very day when the fatal disease seemed to smite him. The coveted degree was conferred upon him, but only when he lay, insensible to all honors, in the quiet grave. It is pleasant for his friends to think of him as a scholarly man.

He was a successful teacher and organizer of school education. The learning which came to him through his scholarly habits he transmitted to the young spirits that successively passed before him, transmuting it, meanwhile, into graces and energies of mind and heart that should sweeten and uplift common life on every hand. It is pleasant for his friends to remember him as an efficient and inspiring teacher.

He was eminently a man of sincerity; and this, perhaps, was one secret of his great personal influence on youth and adult alike. He had built his whole life on truth. This, too, gives his friends much pleasure in the remembrance.

But the crowning characteristic of all, that which lingers as the dearest memory in the hearts of those who loved him best—was the richness and fullness of his spiritual life. This colored all phases of his activity. "He was most beautiful in his home life," writes his wife. "Never in the twelve years of our married life did I hear an unkind or impatient word pass his lips. He lived very near to God and had not the slightest fear of death. After his death" she adds, "I received scores of letters testifying to the great spiritual help he had given to the writers." This trait constitutes one of the best excellences a teacher can possess. Boys and girls cannot associate many months with one facing Godward without turning their own eyes in the direction of his gaze.

Let us emulate, then, his scholarly ways, his tact and skill as a teacher, his sincerity and enthusiasm as a man among men; but above all and throughout all, let us cultivate the spirituality of his life. For thus shall we most surely catch the afterglow of his setting sun and with it brighten, each recurring day, the horizon of our own busy lives.

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ROBERT ALLYN, D. D., LL. D.

BY E. C. HEWETT.

[READ BEFORE THE NATIONAL COUNCIL, JULY 7, 1894.]

On Sunday morning, Jan. 7, 1894, our brother and friend breathed his last at his home in Carbondale, Ill. He lacked only eighteen days of having completed his seventy-seventh year. He had been in fairly good health until about ten days before his death, when he was seized with la grippe, which soon took the form of pneumonia, and the end came quickly. Two daughters and a son survive him.

Funeral services were held in Carbondale on Tuesday, Jan. 9. In the morning, were the services at the normal university, in which the faculty and students joined. At a later hour the public services were held in the church where he had worshiped for twenty years. Appropriate and discriminating addresses were made by several of his fellow-workers, and a great throng of people were present to show their respect and affection for one who, for so long a time, had held a conspicuous place among them. Among his latest words, he said: "Let the teachers and the preachers bury me." And they did it, tenderly and lovingly. The following is a brief outline of Dr. Allyn's life and activities:

He was born in Ledyard, Eastern Connecticut, Jan. 25, 1817; graduated from the Wesleyan University in 1841; began to teach in Wilbraham Academy the same year; became a pastor in 1843; took the charge of Wilbraham Academy in 1845; was made principal of an academy in East Greenwich, R. I., in 1848; was appointed school commissioner of Rhode Island in 1854, and served till 1857. At this time Dr. Allyn resigned the office, and left New England, to accept a professor's chair in the Ohio University at Athens. After two years' service, he became principal of the Wesleyan Female College in Cincinnati, which position he left in 1863, to become President of McKendree College at Lebanon, Ill., where he remained for eleven years. In July, 1874, the Southern Illinois Normal University was opened at Carbondale. Dr. Allyn was installed as its president, and he remained at its head eighteen years, till he resigned in 1892.

As Dr. Allyn taught country schools several terms before going to college, it will be seen that he gave about sixty full years to the work of education. He was seven years past the "dead line of fifty," when he took hold of his last and greatest work; and when he laid it down, he was past seventy-five. Nor was he ready to give over work even then. During the last two years of his life, he was frequently preaching and lecturing, and at the time of his death he

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was editor of a teachers' paper. So that it might be said, that he literally "died with the harness on."

Those of us who have met him at these meetings and elsewhere, during the last five years, will agree, I think, that he did not impress us as a man who had by considerable passed the Psalmist's limit of man's life. There was a buoyancy and a cheer about him that did not seem to belong to age. And may we not say that his period of activity was prolonged by these traits of disposition? Is there not much of truth in saying that a man cannot become old till he consents to do so?

The outline of Dr. Allyn's labors that we have sketched contains only the way-marks. He served two terms as a member of the legislature of Rhode Island. He was a preacher for fifty years; and although he had charge of a church but a little while, he preached a great deal and on some very important occasions. I am not aware that he ever published any book, but he wrote much for religious and educational periodicals, nor was he silent on political and social topics. As a writer he was clear and discriminating, humorous at times; and as a speaker he always commanded attention. When he edited the "Rhode Island Schoolmaster," nearly forty years ago, it was, I think, the most entertaining and lively teachers' paper that had appeared up to that time.

From his sturdy New England ancestors, Dr. Allyn inherited a vigorous constitution. And not that alone; he inherited moral pith as well as physical fiber. He came of a family that has stamped its name in many ways on places and things in Eastern Connecticut. He had his life-long convictions,—they were not mere opinions,—and they were almost invariably on the side of truth and righteousness. And he had the courage to adhere to them, and to express them on all proper occasions. Of his power as a teacher, we have the testimony of hundreds who have sat under his instruction. His influence upon educational affairs is wide and lasting. Especially in Southern Illinois, where he lived and wrought for the last thirty years of his life, it is probable that no man in his field has been more influential than he.

It is the testimony of all that Dr. Allyn was, always and everywhere, a manly man in the highest and best sense. Of his friendly, genial ways, I do not need to speak in this presence. His tall figure, cordial hand-clasp and cheery words have been familiar to us on occasions like this for many years. We miss them to-day. We shall miss them in the days to come. The man has gone, but he is not dead. He is not dead to us; he is not dead to the thousands whose lives he has touched to higher issues, and in whose hearts and lives words and teacher are living to-day. "To live in hearts we leave behind, is not to die."

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ROBERT WALLACE STEVENSON, Ph. D.

BY EMERSON E. WHITE.

[READ BEFORE THE NATIONAL COUNCIL, JULY 7, 1894.]

Robert Wallace Stevenson was born near Zanesville, Ohio, July 1, 1832, and died in Columbus, Ohio, March 6, 1893, in the sixty-first year of his age. His great grandfathers were both natives of Scotland, and he manifested in life many of the sterling qualities of his Scotch ancestry.

He spent his boyhood on the farm, and received his early education in the common school. He attended Madison College (now extinct), Guernsey Co., Ohio, several years, but in his junior year entered Muskingum College, Ohio, where he graduated in 1854 with a good record as a scholar. He began the study of law, though his parents desired him to enter the ministry; but in a few months, he accepted the principalship of the public schools of Dresden, Ohio, thus entering upon his life work. He taught at Dresden with marked success five years, and in 1860 was elected superintendent of the public schools of Norwalk, Ohio, where he remained eleven years. Here he developed rare qualities as an organizer and supervisor of schools, as well as teacher. Under his efficient management the schools of Norwalk became models in organization and efficiency. The decade ending in 1872 was a period of marked development in the organization of the public schools in the cities of Ohio, and the schools of Norwalk participated in this improvement.

In July, 1871, Mr. Stevenson was elected superintendent of the public schools at Columbus, Ohio, where he remained for eighteen years. His experience at Norwalk had prepared him for the management of the schools in a larger city, and this experience was utilized in a happy manner. He thoroughly reorganized and reclassified the schools, and introduced improved courses and methods of instruction in all grades. Several new branches were added to the elementary course, including drawing, botany and physics, and the course of study in the high school was greatly improved. A normal training school was organized, and later an art school, both attaining high efficiency. Mr. Stevenson was a close student of the science and art of teaching, and auxiliary sciences, and he gave freely and intelligently to the schools the results reached. He was never satisfied with the success attained, and so each succeeding year was one of increasing progress. As a result, the schools attained a high degree of efficiency, being among the best in the country.

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In 1889 Dr. Stevenson failed of re-election, no reason satisfactory to the public being given or known. It was an unexpected and severe blow, unfortunately occurring just when, owing to an unfortunate investment, his financial affairs were somewhat complicated; but he accepted his defeat bravely, and in due time retired with the most gratifying evidence of public esteem and commendation.

In the fall of the same year he was called to the superintendency of the schools at Wichita, Kan., where he remained some three years. His previous experience admirably fitted him for his new position, and the improvement of the schools was marked and rapid. They were reorganized, the course of study revised, and improved methods of teaching introduced. Progress in all directions was wisely inaugurated.

But his promising work in Wichita was cut short by attacks of the grippe, which impaired his general health, making a change of occupation desirable. He resigned the superintendency of the Wichita schools in June, 1892, and retired from the profession to which he had so long been devoted, and in which he had attained unusual success. He returned to Columbus, Ohio, and entered upon business life, but his heart was not in his new work. He missed the bright and happy faces of pupils, and the sympathy and love of teachers and other co-workers. His health did not improve, as he had hoped, and though able to attend to his duties with his accustomed fidelity he was conscious of failing vigor. On the 6th of March, his heart suddenly ceased to beat, and his life work was ended. The news of his death was a great shock to his numerous friends in the city and elsewhere, few of whom had heard of his illness. The event called forth heartfelt expressions of sorrow, and his funeral was an occasion of general mourning in the city which he had so faithfully served.

As a school officer, Dr. Stevenson was affable, genial and generous, but was firm and persistent in the carrying out of his plans. He was open minded, quick to discover mistakes and happy in their correction. He allowed and encouraged originality in his teachers; asking for results, but leaving them comparatively free in method and detail. At the same time, he easily secured their confidence in his plans and their hearty co-operation in their execution. He won in a high degree the confidence and esteem of the successive boards of education under whom he served. He was greatly beloved by the pupils in all grades, and ever manifested a deep interest in their welfare. He was a constant observer of child life, and kept himself in close touch with it.

Dr. Stevenson long held a leading position among the educators of Ohio, enjoying their full confidence and high esteem. He

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took a prominent part in all important measures for the improvement of the schools. He was an active member of the Ohio Teachers' Association, and was its president as early as 1870, his inaugural address being one of the ablest ever given before the association. He joined the National Educational Association in 1877, and was its secretary at the time of his death. He was president of the Department of Superintendence of the Association in 1886. He was elected a member of the National Council of Education in 1883, and attended most of its meetings, showing the deepest interest in the proceedings. He seldom participated in the discussions, but when he did speak, he was heard with interest, for all realized that back of his modest words was an experience attained by few educators. He was most interested in the discussion of practical questions.

Dr. Stevenson was a true man, and in life and speech a model of purity and refinement. He was modest and retiring, even distrusting his fitness for the service to which he was called. He was not a seeker of place or position, rarely assumed leadership; but when duty called, he responded with a courage that knew neither fear nor failure. He loved nobility and manliness, and hated pretension and sham. He was from childhood an active member of the Presbyterian church, and for years a ruling elder. He took an active interest in all movements for moral reform, and nobly gave the influence of his life, as well as his words, to every cause that sought the alleviation of human distress.

He was married in 1856 to Miss Rebecca A. McConnell of McConnellsville, Ohio, who, with a son, Robert J. Stevenson, survives him.

In the death of Dr. Stevenson, this Council lost the fifth of its early Ohio members, the departed being I. W. Andrews, W. D. Henkle, Eli T. Tappan, John Hancock and R. W. Stevenson, all men of blessed memory, worthy representatives of the noble commonwealth that is the first-born of the Ordinance of 1787, the pioneer and for years the leader in educational reform. Andrews, Henkle, Tappan, Hancock and Stevenson, each the soul of honor! They all stood within that inner circle of true and generous friends, and it has been my sad duty to pay successively in this Council a tribute to their memory, and how inadequate have been my poor words!

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DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

BOSTON MEETING.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST DAY.

MORNING SESSION—TUESDAY, FEB. 21, 1893.

The Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association met in Huntington Hall, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston, at 10 o'clock, Tuesday morning, Feb. 21, 1893, and was called to order by the President, Dr. Edward Brooks of Philadelphia.

Professor Runkle of the Institute of Technology, in behalf of the President and Faculty of that institution, extended a cordial greeting to the members of the department, and kindly tendered Huntington Hall for the use of the department during the convention. A fitting response was made by President Brooks.

His Excellency Gov. W. E. Russell of Massachusetts was then introduced and delivered an address of welcome that was highly appreciated by the department.

At the close of Governor Russell's address, President Brooks introduced Mr. S. B. Capen, Chairman of the School Committee of Boston, who extended a cordial welcome to the department in behalf of the city of Boston. President Brooks then, in behalf of the department, responded to the addresses of welcome. At the conclusion of his remarks, President Brooks called upon Supt. Andrew S. Draper of Cleveland, Ohio, to more fully express the thanks of the department.

Immediately after Superintendent Draper's remarks, a recess was taken in order to give the members of the department an opportunity to meet His Excellency Governor Russell of Massachusetts.

After the recess an invitation was extended to the department to attend a reception to be held by the Governor on Wednesday morning, between 11 and 12 o'clock.

The members of the department were then invited by Mr. Francis Bellamy to visit the "Youth's Companion" in its new home, and to receive its courtesies while in the city. After a few business announcements, the President introduced Supt. Virgil G. Curtis of New Haven, Conn., who read a paper on "Wood-work in Grammar Schools." The paper was discussed by Supt. C. E. Meleny of Somerville, Mass.; Prof. George B. Kilbon, Principal Manual Training School, Springfield, Mass.; and Professor Rondinella of Philadelphia.

The President then declared a recess until 2:30 P. M

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The department was called to order at 2:30 P. M., President Brooks in the chair.

Upon motion, Dr. W. E. Sheldon was appointed Treasurer *pro tem.*, until the arrival of Treasurer Greenwood.

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Upon motion, a committee on nominations of officers for the department was then appointed, consisting of Superintendents Draper of Ohio, Lane of Illinois, Seaver of Massachusetts, Gilbert of Minnesota and Cooper of Texas.

The selection of a place for the next meeting of the department was, upon motion, made a special order for Wednesday afternoon.

On motion of Superintendent Draper, it was resolved that the rule limiting participants in discussions to ten minutes each be rigidly enforced.

The regular program was then resumed, and a paper on "The Study of English in Public Schools" was read by Supt. Albert P. Marble of Worcester, Mass.

The paper was discussed by Mr. James H. Blodgett, Census Bureau, Washington, D. C.; Dr. John T. Prince, Agent of Massachusetts State Board of Education, West Newton, Mass.; Mr. Robert C. Metcalf, Supervisor of Schools, Boston, Mass.; Mr. Edgar A. Singer, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Philadelphia, Pa.; Col. F. W. Parker of Chicago; Supt. Henry A. Wise of Baltimore; and Supt. Aaron Gove of Denver, Colo.

The President of the Cambridge School Board then extended a cordial invitation to the department to visit the Cambridge Public Schools. After a brief recess the department listened to an address, "In Memoriam, George Howland," by Mr. Albert G. Lane, Superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools. Assistant Superintendent Nightingale and Col. F. W. Parker of Chicago; Supt. A. S. Draper of Cleveland, Ohio, and others, spoke feelingly and eloquently of the memory of Mr. Howland.

After a few announcements the department adjourned to meet in the Latin school at 7:30 P. M.

EVENING SESSION.

The department was called to order by President Brooks at 7.30 P. M.

The absence of Supt. Oscar H. Cooper of Galveston, Texas, who had been detained at his home by illness in his family, necessitated the omission of his paper on "Examinations and Promotions in Elementary Schools." Supt. W. A. Mowry of Salem, Mass., consented to open the discussion on the topic, and was followed by Superintendents Minor ofxNorth Adams, Mass.; R. K. Buehrle of Lancaster, Pa.; Henry A. Wise of Baltimore, Md.; W. B. Powell of Washington, D. C.; Col. F. W. Parker of Chicago; and Inspector James L. Hughes of Toronto, Canada.

The department then adjourned to meet at Cambridge, at 10 o'clock A. M., Wednesday.

SECOND DAY.

MORNING SESSION—WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 22D.

CAMBRIDGE DAY.

The department was called to order at 10:30 in Boylston Hall, Cambridge, by Supt. N. C. Dougherty of Peoria, Ill., who had been requested to preside on account of the enforced absence of President Brooks.

The Secretary read a letter from Supt. O. H. Cooper of Galveston, Texas, expressing his regret at not being able to be present on account of sickness in his family.

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Supt. A. S. Draper of Cleveland, Ohio, being then introduced, read a paper on "Plans of Organization for School Purposes in Large Cities." The next paper on the program, "The Supervision of City Schools," was read by Supt. W. H. Maxwell of Brooklyn, N. Y.

The discussion of the two papers was participated in by Supt. C. W. Cole of Albany, N. Y.; Supt. J. A. Shawan of Columbus, Ohio; Supt. W. B. Powell of Washington, D. C.; Supt. W. N. Barringer of Newark, N. J.; Supt. F. J. Fitzpatrick of Omaha, Neb., and Supt. Warren Easton of New Orleans, La. After the discussion had been closed by Superintendents Draper and Maxwell, the President introduced President Eliot of Harvard University, who extended the courtesies of Harvard to the members of the department, and invited all to partake of luncheon immediately upon adjournment. The department then took a recess until 2:30, during which the members accepted the hospitality of the President and Fellows of Harvard University.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The department was called to order at 2:30 P. M., Acting President N. C. Dougherty in the chair. Upon motion, the special order of business for this hour,—the selection of the place for the next meeting,—was postponed until after the reading of the first paper on the program for this session.

The following resolutions, submitted by Superintendent Maxwell of Brooklyn, N. Y., were, upon motion, adopted:

Resolved, That a Committee of Ten be appointed by the Committee on Nominations, to investigate the organization of school systems, the co-ordination of studies in primary and grammar schools, and the training of teachers, with power to organize subconferences on such subdivisions of these subjects as may seem appropriate, and to report the results of their investigations and deliberations at the next meeting of the Department of Superintendence.

Resolved, That the officers of the Department of Superintendence be, and hereby are, directed to make application to the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association for an appropriation of $2,500, to defray the expenses of the Committee of Ten and of the conferences which that committee is empowered to appoint.

The selection of a place for the next meeting of the department being then in order, Superintendent Draper placed Cleveland, Ohio, in nomination. New Orleans, La., was placed in nomination by Supt. Warren Easton, and Richmond, Va., was nominated by Dr. John E. Massey, State Superintendent of Education of Virginia.

After voting upon each place separately, it was found that Richmond, Va., had received a majority of the votes cast. On motion, the selection of Richmond was made unanimous.

The program was then resumed by the reading of a paper by Mr. Francis Cogswell, Superintendent of Schools, Cambridge, Mass., on "The Cambridge Experiment."

Superintendent Cogswell's paper was discussed by Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard College; Supt. A. Hardy of La Crosse, Wis.; Supt. W. H. Maxwell of Brooklyn, N. Y.; Supt. W. B. Powell of Washington, D. C.; President Eliot of Harvard, Superintendent Hunt, Professor Walsh and others.

A recess was then taken until 7:30 P. M., during which time the members of the department enjoyed the courtesies of Harvard University.

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EVENING SESSION.

The department was called to order at 7:30 P. M,. at Sanders Hall, President Brooks in the chair.

Dr. W. T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C., read a paper on "What do School Statistics Teach in Respect to the Moral Influence of Education?"

An address on "University Extension" was then delivered by Mr. W. Hudson Shaw, Fellow of Baliol College, Oxford, England.

The discussion was participated in by Prof. G. G. Wilson, Brown University, Providence, R. I.; Supt. F. Truedley of Youngstown, Ohio; Superintendent Greenwood of Kansas City, Mo.; Superintendent Maxwell of Brooklyn, and Superintendent Cole of Albany, N. Y.

The department then adjourned to meet at 10 o'clock Thursday morning, in Huntington Hall, Boston.

THIRD DAY.

MORNING SESSION—THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 23D.

The department was called to order at 10:30 A. M. in Huntington Hall, President Brooks in the chair.

The first paper on the program for the morning session was "The Grading of Country Schools," by Mr. Henry Sabin, editor of "Iowa School Journal," Des Moines, Iowa. The next paper was on "The Graded System of the Rural Schools of New Jersey," by Hon. Addison B. Poland, State Superintendent of Schools, New Jersey.

At this point, Treasurer Greenwood made an announcement relative to the railroad certificates of members.

Dr. Winship and Superintendent Seaver extended invitations to several receptions, especially that to be given, at 12:30 p. m., at the Vendome Theater, by the publishers of Boston, to meet Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes and other authors of note.

The discussion of the papers was then opened by Dr. W. T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education, and was continued by Hon. Henry R. Pattingill, State Superintendent of Schools, Michigan; Hon. Henry Raab, State Superintendent of Schools, Springfield, Ill., and closed by Hon. Henry Sabin of Iowa.

A paper was then read by Hon. D. J. Waller, State Superintendent of Schools, Pennsylvania, on "The Supervision of Country Schools."

Supt. A. S. Draper, Chairman of the Committee on Nominations, then submitted the following report:

President—Dr. D. L. Kiehle of Minnesota.
Vice President—Supt. Warren Easton of Louisiana.
Secretary—Supt. F. Treudley of Ohio.
The Committee of Ten, provided for in Superintendent Maxwell's resolution, to consist of the following:
Chairman Supt. W. H. Maxwell of Brooklyn, N. Y.; Dr. Wm. T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education; Supt. T. M. Balliet of Springfield, Mass.; Supt. N. C. Dougherty of Peoria, Ill.; Supt. W. B. Powell of Washington, D. C.; Supt. H. S. Tarbell of Providence, R. I.; Supt. L. N. Jones of Indianapolis, Ind.; Supt. J. M. Greenwood of Kansas City, Mo.; Supt. A. B. Poland of New Jersey; Supt. Edward Brooks of Philadelphia.

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Superintendent Maxwell moved to amend the report of the committee by adding to the Committee of Ten the four members of the nominating committee.

The motion was carried.

The names thus added to the committee are the following:

Supt. A. S. Draper of Cleveland, Ohio; Supt. E. P. Seaver of Boston, Mass.; Supt. A. G. Lane of Chicago, Ill.; Supt. Chas. B. Gilbert of St. Paul, Minn.

The report of the committee as amended was then unanimously adopted.

A recess was then taken until 2:30 P. M., during which time the department enjoyed the hospitalities of the publishers of Boston.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The department was called to order by the President at 2:30 P. M., and the discussion on the last paper of the morning session, "The Supervision of Country Schools," was opened by Hon. J. W. Dickinson of Massachusetts and continued by Superintendent Draper of Ohio and Mr. John MacDonald, editor of the "Western School Journal," Topeka, Kan.

The topic of the afternoon session, "The Scholastic and Professional Training of Teachers," was then opened by Supt. Aaron Gove of Denver, Colo., who read a paper on "Sources of Supply of Teachers in City Schools."

"What Can Be Done to Increase the Efficiency of Teachers in Actual Service?" the next paper, was presented by Supt. Thomas M. Balliet of Springfield, Mass.

The last paper of the afternoon session was read by Supt. J. M. Greenwood of Kansas City, Mo., on "What Shall be Done with Non-progressive or Retrogressive Teachers?"

The discussion of the several papers was participated in by Principal J. C. Greenough, Normal School, Westfield, Mass.; Col. F. W. Parker of Chicago; Supt. A. B. Blodgett of Syracuse, N. Y.; Principal A. G. Boyden, Normal School, Bridgewater, Mass., and others.

The Committee on the Public School Celebration of Columbus Day, appointed one year ago, then made the following report through its Chairman, Mr. Francis Bellamy of Boston.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON CELEBRATION OF COLUMBUS DAY BY THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Your committee, appointed one year ago to promote the celebration of Columbus Day, Oct. 21, 1893, by the public schools of the United States, and to prepare an official program for universal use on that day, submit the following report:

We first addressed, through the press, two general letters, simultaneously, to the teachers and to the pupils of the American public schools, explaining the plan of the celebration and proposing a demonstration in every school in the country.

We then addressed private letters to all the superintendents of education in towns of 1,000 and over, to the number of 7,000, inclosing needful information, requesting their co-operation, and soliciting correspondence on the subject.

In the meantime we entered into direct correspondence with over 5,000 newspapers, inviting them to champion the celebration in their localities, offering to supply them continually with news and editorial matter relating to the subject. It is gratifying to report that the press of the country almost unanimously supported the celebration of the day by the schools.

Our next step was to invite the alliance of the Grand Army of the Republic. The commander-in-chief and department commanders entered into the project with enthusiasm, and issued general orders that each post encourage the schools to celebrate, send a detail of veterans to assist schools in raising and saluting the flag, and that it act as a guard of honor to the schools in the afternoon review. This movement on the part of the veterans went far to make the celebration general.

We then secured a series of interviews with the most prominent statesmen of the Republic, beginning with the President, upon the idea of the leadership of the Columbus Day Celebration being given to the public schools. These interviews were published through the Associated Press.

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Your committee also gained from Congress a joint resolution authorizing the President to issue a proclamation setting apart Columbus Day as a general holiday to be observed by all the people in the schools and other places of assembly. The influence of this proclamation proved of the first importance in arousing the people to the school celebration. The committee was also able to secure from congress a further act changing the date of the Federal dedicatory exercises of the World's Fair grounds at Chicago from October 12th to October 21st, in order to correspond with the date of the school celebration, and thus to concentrate the interest of all the people upon one day.

The Governors of thirty-four States, influenced largely by the State Superintendents of Education, who, as a general committee, co-operated with your Executive Committee, issued proclamations in accord with that of the President, recommending to the people that the schools be the center of the day's demonstrations.

Finally, the committee prepared the official program, which was published the 1st of September and was generally used throughout America as the nucleus of the local exercises.

It is impossible to give statistical results of this school celebration. The press reports, however, indicated it to be general throughout all the States and Territories of the Republic. The South was not behind the North in doing honor to the schools and to the flag, the Confederate veterans assisting the schools to raise and salute the national flag and marching side by side in the review with the Federal veterans.

The moral results of the observance can be more definitely stated. The leadership of the public schools made Columbus Day a people's day. The consequence was a patriotic and thoughtful uprising of the people such as America has not seen since the Civil War; a celebration less attended with noise and mere display and more marked by seriousness and unanimity than any other day for a quarter of a century.

But most of all, there is reason for gratification at the educational significance of this uprising. America lifted up her public school system as the most characteristic product of the four centuries, and as one of the principal sources of her greatness. She reaffirmed her faith that the common education of the citizen in the common duties of citizenship is the function of the State. She seemed to utter her trust that the distinctive principles of true Americanism will not perish so long as free public education endures; and in token, she placed the nation's flag, not over her forts and battlegrounds, but over her public schools.

The flag over the schoolhouses, also, impressed powerfully upon the youth that we are a nation. As the millions of pupils, with upturned faces and outstretched arms, saluted the nation's emblem in the same words, "I pledge allegiance to my flag, and to the Republic for which it stands; one nation, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all," a lesson of thoughtful patriotism was taught not to be forgotten.

That united salute makes an episode in American history. The marching of an army of eager children, with drilled precision of step and with pride, as the appointed bearers of their country's banner on this greatest of American days, was a prophetic picture of gladness and solemnity to all the people. No triumphal procession of victorious armies was ever so benign and appealing as this review of our nation's pupils, the citizens of the new century, at the opening of that century.

The conspicuous presence and patronage of the veterans of the war, under the nation's flag, seemed like the bequeathing of a sacred trust to those who are to command the future.

That Columbus Day proved a day of such courage and hope, was due in large measure to the wise action of the Department of Superintendence one year ago in assuming that the leadership of the people's observance belonged peculiarly to the public school—the institution closest to the people, most characteristic of the people, and fullest of hope for the people.

Respectfully submitted,

Committee,

FRANCIS BELLAMY, *Chairman*,
Boston, Mass.
JOHN W. DICKINSON,
Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education.
THOMAS B. STOCKWELL,
Commissioner of Rhode Island Public Schools.
W. R. GARRETT,
Superintendent of Public Instruction of Tennessee.
FERRIS S. FITCH,
Superintendent of Public Instruction of Michigan.

The department then took recess, to reconvene at 7:30 P. M., in the Latin School hall.

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EVENING SESSION.

The department was called to order by the President, Dr. Brooks, at 7:30 P. M., and, after some brief announcements, the general topic of the evening, "The Comparative Merits of Literature and History for Moral Culture," was introduced by Dr. Charles De Garmo, President of Swarthmore College, Pennsylvania, who read a paper on the sub-topic, "The Value of Literature for Moral Culture." The second paper was read by Chas. M. Andrews, Professor of History, Bryn Mawr College, Pennsylvania, on the sub-topic, "The Value of History for Moral Culture." The discussion on the papers of the evening was opened by Mr. Francis Bellamy, of the "Youth's Companion," Boston, followed by Supt. J. A. Reinhart of Paterson, N. J.; Prof. James Seth, Brown University, R. I., and Supt. N. C. Dougherty of Peoria, Ill.

The following resolution was then offered by Supt. C. W. Cole of Albany, N. Y., and, on motion, was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the thanks of this department are extended to the Governor of Massachusetts and the city of Boston; to the School Committee, Superintendent Seaver and his associates; to the President and Fellows of Harvard University; t the authors and publishers of Boston, and to Mrs. Hemenway for the cordial welcome and generous hospitality accorded us; to Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes, for granting the rare privilege of meeting and hearing him; to President Dr. Edward Brooks, for the courteous manner in which he has conducted our meetings; to Secretary Phillips and Treasurer Greenwood, for constant and efficient labors in our behalf; to the railroad officials, for facilities and favors furnished, and to the newspaper press for full and accurate reports of our proceedings.

The President, Dr. Brooks, then, in a few words, introduced the newly elected President of the department, Dr. D. L. Kiehle, who briefly accepted the responsibilities of his position and adjourned the department, to meet next year at Richmond, Va.

J. H. PHILLIPS,
Secretary.

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AUTHORS' RECEPTION.

The publishers of Boston, through their Chairman, Mr. Houghton, extended to the superintendents a cordial welcome in a brief but felicitous address. (*Not secured for publication.*)

Dr. Brooks, President of the department, then responded as follows:

RESPONSE OF PRESIDENT BROOKS.

MR. CHAIRMAN: In behalf of the members, I desire to say that we esteem it a privilege to hold the meeting of the Department of Superintendence in the city of Boston, the cradle of popular education and liberal learning in this country. The reception given us by the elements has been rather chilling to our feelings; but the reception given by the friends of education in the city has been so warm and hearty as to make us forget snow and rain and to call forth an expression of our deepest gratitude. These acts of courtesy culminate to-day in this graceful and generous reception of the publishing houses of Boston, and I assure you that the cordial words spoken by your Chairman have awakened chords of feeling in our hearts for which our lips can find no fitting expression.

The publishers of a great city are a source of untold blessings to a country. That their work is a labor of love, a great missionary enterprise, of course goes without saying; but what a splendid work it is in the dissemination of intelligence and learning throughout the land. Among these the publishing houses of Boston have been most conspicuous; and through them has gone forth from this center of learning the light of scientific and literary knowledge with its illuminating and elevating influence. Here in Boston was established the "Atlantic Monthly," the model of high toned literary periodical literature in the country. By means of it many an author's name has become a household word throughout the country. Here appeared the names of Emerson, Lowell, Longfellow and Whittier, names hallowed in the pages of modern literature on both sides of the Atlantic. In it was first introduced to the American public the "Autocrat of the Breakfast Table," an autocrat with as much power as he who presides over the destinies of Russia (applause), an autocrat not of slavery but of freedom of thought.

Here to-day it is our privilege to meet this autocrat, Dr. Holmes, an autocrat of our minds and hearts, and who by the touches of his genius has made us happier and merrier and wiser; for in those articles it was difficult to tell which was the more prominent, the tender sentiment and humor so genial and hearty, or the deep and subtle thought which often taxed our utmost comprehension; and I am sure that I express the sentiment of every member of the department in saying that it is a highly prized honor that we have the privilege of meeting "The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table" this afternoon.

We cherish his memory as the man who in our childhood, even among the oldest of us, touched our hearts with his delicate and genial humor; who made us laugh at some of our "Unmarried Aunts;" who made us almost split our waistcoats as we read "The Height of the Ridiculous," in which the author told us that since that sad catastrophe "I never dared to write as funny as I can;" and who has lifted our hearts to higher planes of feeling by that one poem which will live as

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long as the English language endures, "The Chambered Nautilus," wherein he invokes us to build more stately mansions to our souls.

Oh, to write one poem like that is an honor more highly to be prized than to be President of the United States. (Applause.) And so, twining a wreath of gratitude and love from the blossoming feelings of our hearts to offer to Dr. Holmes. we tender you again an expression of our appreciation of your courtesy and generosity.

Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes was then introduced, and after a few happy remarks, read to the department a few verses prepared for the occasion:

VERSES

BY DR. OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES.

Teachers of teachers! Yours the task
Noblest that noble minds can ask.
High up Æonia's murmurous mount,
To watch, to guard the sacred fount
That feeds the streams below;
To guide the hurrying flood that fills
A thousand silvery rippling rills,
In ever-widening flow.

Rich is the harvest from the fields
That bounteous Nature kindly yields;
But fairer growths enrich the soil
Ploughed deep by thought's unwearied toil,
In Learning's broad domain.
And where the leaves, the flowers, the fruits,
Without your watering at the roots,
To fill each branching vein?

Welcome! the Author's firmest friends,
Your voice the surest godspeed lends.
Of you the growing mind demands
The patient care, the guiding hands
Through all the mists of morn.
You knowing well the future's need,
Your prescient wisdom sows the seed,
To flower in years unborn.

Other brief addresses were made by several notable authors, after which the department was invited to partake of an elegant luncheon.

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PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS.

WOOD-WORK IN GRAMMAR GRADES.

BY VIRGIL G. CURTIS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, NEW HAVEN, CONN.

Within the last decade the value of manual training has been a prolific theme for discussion among educational writers and speakers.

As a protest against the one-sided training so long in vogue in our schools and as a plea for a symmetrical development of the human powers, progressive educators have urged its introduction into the public schools. As a potent moral force, as an aid in securing respect for labor, as an important civilizing agent, and as a possible remedy for some of the evils which menace modern society, philanthropists and reformers have advocated its claims. As a practical and economic measure, as a means of raising the skill of the American workingman with the view of promoting American industries and placing this country in the front rank of the manufacturing nations of the world, utilitarians have eagerly caught up the novel idea of something practical in education, and these various interests have combined to give manual training a veritable boom, which has advanced its interests with wonderful rapidity.

And the utilitarian idea (however much we may deprecate that phase of the question) is really what has captured the people,—the people who furnish the funds,—and they have thus been readily persuaded to furnish us abundant means of experimenting along these lines until definite conclusions have been reached.

Recognizing the supreme need of this industrial element to bridge the chasm between the objective and the subjective and to bring our youth into the true meaning of life and its realities, we have yet to learn how to administer the educational forces at our command so as to assimilate the principle and incorporate it into every grade of our schools.

The baptism of the spirit of the kindergarten upon all our public school work has wrought a wonderful transformation in all who have come under its benign influence.

Pedagogues who have stood aloof and looked upon its pretty theories merely from the standpoint of historic incident, have been drawn

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nearer, and have seen through and beyond the plays and games the true spirit of Froebel's thought. In the new possibilities of child effort and execution they have discerned meanings of a higher, purer and sounder education. In this gradual evolution of the workings of the kindergarten, our primary methods have been regenerated, and we stand to-day in the midst of an educational renaissance, the light of which is illuminating every phase of school work.

We recognize another vital element in education, the creative, and we are keenly alive to the necessity of giving this element its proper place in our school system. The first essential in approaching the problem of a course of study is through comprehension of its purpose. So long as many of the advocates of manual training see nothing in it beyond the development of mechanical skill in the use of tools and the ultimate production of better artisans; so long as many of the patrons of our schools cherish the notion that manual training simply opens a shorter path to the point where their boys may become bread-winners; so long as many people, well informed on other subjects, consider the manual training school a kind of dumping ground for the intellectual refuse of the school system—a place for boys who have no mental ability—the difficulties before us are somewhat perplexing. We have to combat such erroneous notions and hold manual training up to the high plane of pure education. We must insist that intellectual and moral results are far above mere mechanical skill.

While we may not ignore the practical element, while we must admit that this special training of hand and eye cannot fail to stimulate and develop those faculties upon whose activity success in life depends; yet we must tenaciously hold that the supreme purpose of manual training is to quicken and develop the mental powers, to cultivate the moral instincts, to awaken and stimulate the æsthetic tastes, to lead up towards the good, the beautiful and the true.

With these inspiring objects before us, we are prepared to undertake the reconstruction of our school courses, willing to weed out some of the accumulated rubbish and substitute this long-neglected but important part of the new education. The demand is fairly upon us for a consecutive course of manual training from the year where the kindergarten leaves the child to the end of the high school course. This work should go on with unbroken continuity. It is a perfectly feasible plan, and will not involve an excessive outlay. Drawing, the alphabet of all industrial education, is, after a struggle of twenty-three years, permanently established in our system, and ample provision for its inclusion is now made in the curriculum of every well-ordered school in the land. Clay-modeling, paper cutting and folding, have, in some instances, been carried on through the grades up to the third or fourth year. Sewing and cooking are provided for the girls

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which should be filled by some kind of hand work. Whether it be sloyd of the Swedish, Russian, English or American variety, I hope we shall soon be able to determine.

Now, if my introduction has been too long, I trust you will pardon me, and I will now enter upon the task assigned me of outlining a suitable course for grammar grades.

In grammar grades I include the sixth, seventh and eighth years of school, or the three years previous to entering the high school.

SIXTH GRADE.—AVERAGE AGE, ELEVEN YEARS.

Place. In the school-room, by the regular teacher under the direction of a competent supervisor. Suitable covering to be used to protect the desk; also, to hold the tools.

Time. Thirty minutes, three days each week during the school year, one and a half hours per week.

TOOLS.—CONSTRUCTION TOOLS.

One fixed blade steel cutting knife.
One 6-inch try-square.
One 5-inch bevel.
One 12-inch rule.

MECHANICAL DRAWING INSTRUMENTS.

One 45-degree set-square or angle.
One 60-degree set-square or angle.
One pair 6-inch dividers, with pencil and needle points.
One 2-foot T-square.

MATERIALS.

The common materials of construction are wood, cast iron and wrought iron. Houses and other buildings, bridges and railroads, furniture, carriages and all sorts of vehicles, tools and agricultural implements, are largely, if not wholly made of these materials. Of these great construction materials, wood is the most abundant, the most important, the cheapest. It is strong, light, clean, familiar to everybody, the easiest to work; therefore, superior. This, together with the fact that larger classes can be taken in wood-work than with any other substance, undoubtedly makes it the most suitable material for the purpose.

Material for this course, basswood and whitewood, cut one-quarter inch thick.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION.

Mechanical drawing one-third of the time.

In the first place, I think no work should be undertaken of which a drawing, either full size or to a scale, has not been previously made.

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It is not necessary to speak of the great value of drawing as a form of hand, eye and mind training. In its relation to wood-work, though not always indispensable, it is particularly useful as giving an impression of the appearance of a finished model which may not exist in reality. In drawing the model, the pupil becomes thoroughly familiar with the general aspect of his work. His appreciation of what is required is stimulated when he has to create, first his drawing, then his model, instead of merely copying the dimensions of a completed model directly onto his wood and from this making a precise copy of the model.

Then the pupil learns here how to interpret a working drawing, the ability to do which is always a valuable acquisition to his powers to interpret the thought and achievements of the world's workers. So I should insist that every exercise in wood-work should involve a good useful drawing lesson.

The tools to be used in this grade are recommended because of their simplicity, light weight and slight expense. This set of tools would not cost more than $1.25 for each pupil.

The mechanical drawing instruments will cost more or less, depending upon the quality of the dividers. Cheap sets of mechanical drawing tools can be purchased for one dollar, or even seventy-five cents; but a good serviceable pair of dividers would make them cost three dollars or four dollars per set.

The question of the quality of the tools may be disposed of in a brief sentence: "The best is always the cheapest." Never give a lad a poor tool, unless you are content to receive from him poor work. The covers for the school desks cost $1.50 or $2.00. So that the whole outfit would involve an expense of six dollars per pupil.

Instruction to be given in the use of these simple tools of construction in the execution of the type forms, as follows:

Square, representing section of cube; triangle, representing section of cone; circle, representing section of sphere; rectangle, representing section of cylinder; five, six and eight pointed stars; wheel, with spokes and hub; ellipse and oval; angles representing pitch of roofs; section of flight of stairs, showing relation of tread to use.

SEVENTH GRADE.—AVERAGE AGE, THIRTEEN YEARS.

Place. In the school-room, as in case of the sixth grade.

Time. Same, one and one-half hours per week.

Tools. The same, with the addition of a flat chisel, three carving chisels, a six-inch marking gauge, a small hand scroll saw and a brad-awl. An additional cost of $1.50.

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COURSE OF INSTRUCTION.

Mechanical drawing, as before.

Tool work, cutting in thin wood representation of side of house or section of engine, water wheels, or other pieces of apparatus illustrating science work.

Exercises in incised work and veining in wood carving, followed by carving in relief, pupils to make their own designs.

We have experimented in New Haven with this seventh grade, or with boys from twelve to thirteen years of age in a shop where they spend two hours per week at the bench, with the tools recommended for the eighth grade. But our experience proves, to our satisfaction at least, that the plan is not practicable. The boys are not strong enough to handle the ordinary tools. Their minds are not mature enough to appreciate the value of the training.

EIGHTH GRADE—AVERAGE AGE OF PUPILS, FOURTEEN YEARS.

This, with us, is the last year of the grammar school course. It corresponds to the ninth in most New England schools.

It is desirable to give to the boys of this grade, and to the girls who prefer such a course to the cooking lessons, quite a thorough course in wood-work, either in a shop fitted up with benches in the building in which they regularly attend, or in the manual training school proper, in case such a school is provided.

TOOLS FOR REGULAR SHOP WORK.

One 22-inch splitting saw or rip saw.
One 1-inch cross-cut panel saw.
One 10-inch back saw.
One 18-inch jack plane.
One 10-inch smoothing plane.
One 8-inch marking gauge.
One 8-inch bevel.
One 8-inch try square.
One 3-inch try square.
One screw driver.
One 4-inch butt brace.
One 1-inch mortise chisel.
One ⅜-inch mortise chisel.
One 1-inch firmer tang chisel.
One ½-inch firmer tang chisel.
One pair 6-inch dividers.
One 2-foot rule
One hammer.
One mallet.
One scratch awl.
One fixed blade knife.

A set of such tools, the best in the market, will cost ten dollars. A good bench will cost from twelve to fifteen dollars. An expenditure of $500, then, will fit up a shop for the accommodation of 200 boys, giving each class of twenty, two hours a week.

COURSE OF STUDY.

Mechanical drawing to scale. Much attention to working drawings.

Lessons on tools, parts, materials, theory of construction, use and care of.

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Marking, with scratch awl and thumb-gauge; sawing and planing to dimensions; chamfering with plane and chisel; horizontal and vertical chiseling; halved joints, right angles and forty-five degree angles; half and full dovetailing; open mortise and tenon joint; wedged mortise and tenon joint; mitred angle bridle joint.

One of the chief aims of manual instruction—the fostering of the power of construction—is to be attained by the making of models. To keep boys continually working at exercises, with no opportunity of putting their knowledge to practical application, is likely to have a dispiriting effect.

In designing models from familiar objects the question of utility need not necessarily enter in. It is not a factory we are aiming at, but a training school. The essence of manual training lies in the doing, and not in the thing done. The chief object is to develop the creative powers of the boys themselves, and any model which will serve this purpose may be accepted. Utility may be combined with instruction, and there is no objection to the useful as long as it fills the more important requirement of being educational. So the box and the frame, the bracket and the book rack, are admissible.

The two prominent systems of manual instruction which are before us for consideration, are the Swedish and the Russian. Experiments are going on in Boston and in other cities which will doubtless help us to a final conclusion as to which is best adapted for American schools. Both of these systems are founded on the principles which I have endeavored to set forth. They strive to teach no trades. They teach only the principles which underlie all trades. They are both progressive; both seeking the same end, the development of the child. The Swedish selects its course from the small wooden articles used in the house and garden. The Russian selects the various fittings used by the carpenter in building and furnishing a house. It teaches exactness of fit. The work is judged by itself without regard to utility. The Swedish seems to place much more stress on the value of the article, and seeks to interest and please the child with the finished piece. Working drawings are not considered essential in the Swedish system; while in the Russian, the drawing always precedes the construction.

The Swedish sloyd, then, with some modifications, may be better adapted for younger children, from ten to twelve years of age, who need the incentive of a finished piece of work; but a boy of thirteen or fourteen years should certainly be brought to severe exercise of his thinking powers, in studying out the interpretation of working drawings and planning intricate mortises and exact fitting joints.

Herr Salomon of Naas, the great exponent of the Swedish system, says: "It is quite possible to employ the sloyd principles and to main-

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tain their high educational value without the use of a single Swedish model."

We Americans are noted for the readiness with which we adopt and assimilate the best things from other countries. No doubt the sloyd of Sweden can be easily adapted to the needs and conditions of American public school education. We can supplement this by adding the best features of the Russian method and finally evolve a system which shall be distinctly American.

DISCUSSION.

CLARENCE E. MELENEY, Superintendent of Public Schools, Somerville, Mass.—When I accepted the invitation of the President to discuss this subject, I had no thought beyond a few general remarks on the point made by Mr. Curtis. A few days ago I received the program, and seeing that my name came first and that there was no one to speak for Boston, I immediately came into town to find some one to take my place and properly represent the city which is the home of manual training and the source from which so much has gone out to all the country. My efforts were unavailing, and I was urged on the contrary to go on with the subject myself.

I wish to explain at the outset that I have no official relation with the city of Boston and have no right to speak of the work done here or to show the courses of wood-work which you see here on the platform, except so far as this is a type of the educational work done in this metropolitan district represented by Cambridge, Somerville, Brookline, Waltham and other cities about Boston, in which we are all interested. It was my good fortune to take a course in sloyd a few years ago, which gave me an interest in the subject not soon to be lost.

You all know that experimental wood-working was begun in the Boston grammar schools a dozen years ago. Ten years ago it was officially recognized by the Boston school board, and boys were permitted to attend the North Bennett Street Industrial School, an institution established by philanthropic people for two objects: to afford an industrial education to the children of the North End and to try an educational experiment which might be an object lesson to educational authorities. But the real interest in wood-work began when, in 1888, Swedish sloyd was introduced under the patronage of Mrs. Shaw and those associated with her in her grand educational work. Mrs. Shaw, after the establishment of the kindergartens and their adoption by the city of Boston as an integral part of the public school system, saw in the Swedish sloyd a system in which the fundamental principles of the kindergarten could be continued into the grammar schools for the instruction of boys. Two sloyd schools were established, boys from the grammar schools were received and taught in relays, and classes of teachers from Boston and neighboring cities were instructed evenings and Saturdays. A great interest was thus awakened, and it became an object of close study from the practical and educational sides. A study of the American schools and American homes, customs and ideas soon convinced the Swedish teachers that some modification of their models would be necessary. Previous to 1888 all the wood-work had been after the Russian system, which you

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know was first introduced into this country by Prof. John D. Runkle in the School of Mechanic Arts of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The sloyd teachers and the other teachers of wood-work, all working with a common end in view, began to compare their views, their systems, and the educational effect on the child. The result has been the free and unselfish modification of all the courses to meet the needs of the case and to conform to the highest educational and practical requirements. I have secured through the kindness of the directors of Mrs. Shaw's work and the city of Boston the three sets of models you see on the platform and the charts which set forth the principles and the courses of Mr. Larsson's sloyd system. I wish you to examine the models of the course in the light of the principles set forth on this chart. Sloyd does not consist of the models, but of the principles. Models constantly change, the desire of the teacher being to attain eventually a higher exemplification of the principles by an improved set of models. A copy of the chart is here given:

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PRELIMINARY SLOYD.

Children 9-12 Years. **Time, 2 Hours a Week.**

Drawing.	New Exercises.	New Tools.	No.	Models Representing the Exercises.	Kind of Wood.	Dimensions. Inches.
Practice with rule, pencil, try-square in drawing parallel lines.	Measuring and lining, rip and cross-cut sawing.	Rule, pencil, try-square, splitting saw, back saw.	A.	Preparing for Nos. 1, 2, 3.	White wood.	7 x 5 x $\frac{1}{4}$
Oblong, use of dimension and extension lines; dimensioning.	Planing with and across the grain; sandpapering with block.	Smoothing plane, block plane, bench hook, sand-paper.	1	Ruler.	White wood.	6 x 1 x $\frac{1}{4}$
Oblique lines; dimension fraction.	Oblique planing.		2	Label.	White wood.	5 x 1 x $\frac{1}{4}$
Circle; semi-circle dimension.	Boring and filing.	Compass, center-bit, flat file.	3	Key tag.	White wood.	4 x 1$\frac{1}{2}$ x $\frac{1}{4}$
Use of center lines.	Gluing sandpaper.		4	Pencil sharpener.	Cherry.	5$\frac{1}{2}$ x 1$\frac{1}{4}$ x $\frac{3}{16}$
Dimensioning spaces.	Curve sawing; smoothing with spoke shave.	Turning saw, spoke shave.	5	Round mat.	White wood.	6 x $\frac{1}{4}$
Square.	Filing right angles.		6	Thread winder.	White wood.	2$\frac{1}{4}$ x 2$\frac{1}{4}$ x $\frac{1}{4}$
Quarter foil.	Filing quarter foil.		7	Quarter foil mat.	Cherry.	6 x 6 x $\frac{3}{16}$
Right angle triangle.	Block planing without bench hook.		8	Triangle.	Maple.	5 x 5 x $\frac{1}{8}$
Compound curves.	Boring arcs.		9	Fish line winder.	White wood.	6 x 1$\frac{1}{4}$ x $\frac{1}{4}$
Ellipse.	Modeling with spoke shave.		10	Cutting board.	Pine.	11$\frac{1}{2}$ x 8 x $\frac{1}{2}$
Find centre of arc with given radius.	Filing symmetrical curves.	Half round file.	11	Yarn winder.	Cherry.	3$\frac{1}{2}$ x 2 x $\frac{3}{16}$
Pentagon.	Filing bevel.		12	Vase stand.	White wood.	5$\frac{1}{4}$ x 5$\frac{1}{4}$ x $\frac{1}{4}$
Quadrant.	Screwing hooks.	Brad-awl.	13	Key board.	Cherry.	8 x 2$\frac{3}{4}$ x $\frac{3}{16}$
Detail drawing.	Nailing.	Hammer, nail set.	14	Bracket.	White wood.	13 x 4$\frac{1}{2}$ x $\frac{1}{4}$
Drawing from description.	Compass sawing.	Compass saw.	15	Frame.	Cherry.	8$\frac{1}{2}$ x 6$\frac{1}{4}$ x $\frac{3}{16}$

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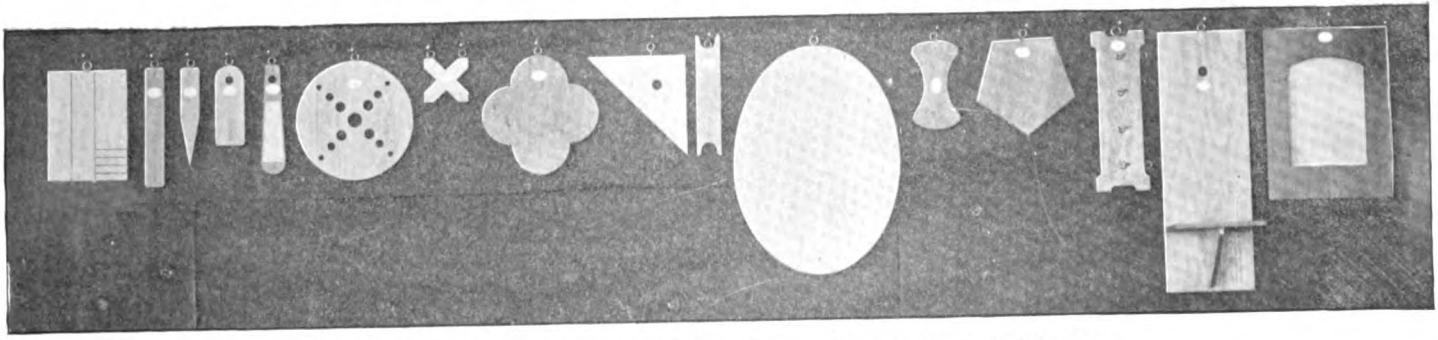
FIRST YEAR.

Children 12-13 Years. Time, 2 Hours a Week.

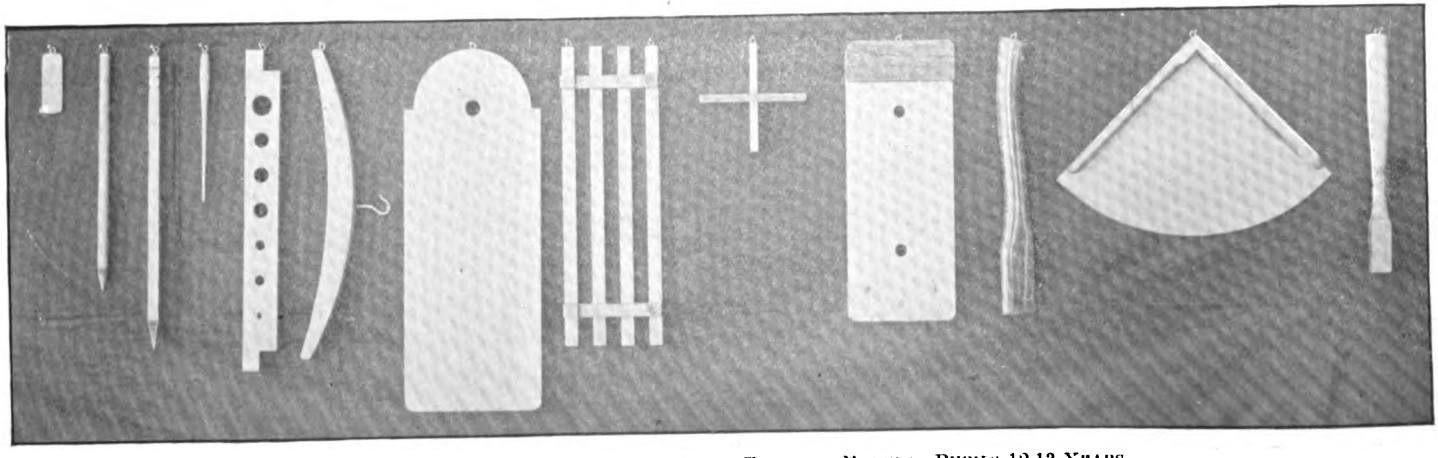
Drawing.	New Exercises and Review of Preliminary Course.	Tools Used.	No.	Models Representing the Exercises.	Kind of Wood.	Dimensions. Inches.
Working drawings, full size, including free-hand curves and simple geometrical problems, excepting Nos. 4, 6, 11 and 13, when the children read another's drawing.	Straight, oblique and cross whittling.	Knife, ruler, lead-pencil.	1	Wedge.	Pine.	3 x 1 x $\frac{1}{4}$
	Point whittling; sandpapering (without block).	Sandpaper.	2	Flower pin.	Pine.	12 x $\frac{1}{2}$
	Rip sawing; narrow surface planing; squaring.	Rip saw, jack plane, try-square.	3	Flower stick.	Pine.	15 x $\frac{1}{2}$ x $\frac{1}{2}$
	Boring with drill bit; fitting peg; curve whittling.	Bit-brace, drill bit.	4	Penholder.	Pine.	$7\frac{1}{2}$ x $\frac{1}{2}$
	Cross-cut sawing; gauging; end planing (in bench hook); boring with auger bit; sandpapering (with block).	Cross-cut saw, marking gauge, block, plane, bench hook, auger bit.	5	Tool rack.	Pine.	16 x $1\frac{3}{4}$ x $\frac{3}{4}$
	Curve sawing; smoothing with spokeshave; boring with bradawl.	Turning saw, spokeshave, bradawl.	6	Coat hanger.	Pine.	$15\frac{1}{2}$ x $1\frac{3}{8}$ x $\frac{3}{4}$
	Broad surface planing; vertical chiseling; horizontal boring; filing; end planing (without bench hook).	Chisel, flat file, compass.	7	Cutting board.	Pine.	18 x 7 x $\frac{5}{8}$
	Nailing; sinking nails.	Hammer, nail set.	8	Flower-pot stand.	Pine.	15 x $5\frac{1}{8}$ x $1\frac{7}{16}$
	Making halved-together joints.		9	Flower-pot stool.	Pine.	$5\frac{1}{2}$ x 1 x $\frac{3}{8}$
	Countersinking; gluing; screwing.	Countersink, screw driver.	10	Bench hook.	Pine and Cherry.	14 x $5\frac{1}{2}$ x $1\frac{3}{8}$
	Modeling with spokeshave; scraping.	Cabinet scraper, half round file.	11	Hatchet handle.	Beech.	14 x $1\frac{3}{4}$ x $\frac{3}{4}$
	Beveling with spokeshave.		12	Corner bracket.	Pine.	10 x 10 x $1\frac{1}{2}$
	Oblique planing.		13	Hammer handle.	Beech.	12 x $1\frac{1}{4}$ x $\frac{3}{4}$

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PHOTOGRAPHS OF FIRST AND SECOND YEAR MODELS.



PRELIMINARY SLOYD. TWO HOURS A WEEK. FIFTEEN MODELS. PUPILS 11-12 YEARS.



SLOYD. FIRST YEAR. TWO HOURS A WEEK. THIRTEEN MODELS. PUPILS 12-13 YEARS.

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SECOND YEAR.

Children 13-14 Years. Time, 2 Hours a Week.

Drawing.	New Exercises and Review of Preceding Work.	New Tools.	No.	Models Representing the Exercises.	Kind of Wood.	Dimensions. Inches.
	Spacing with compass; veining; carving.	Bevel, veiner, skew chisel.	14	Key board.	Pine.	15 x 2 x $\frac{1}{2}$
	Wedge planing; filing edge; notching; punching.	Round file, carver's punch.	15	Paper knife.	Maple.	13 x $1\frac{1}{4}$ x $\frac{1}{4}$
	Beveling edge with jack-plane and file; boring with center-bit.	Center bit.	16	Ruler.	Maple.	16 x $1\frac{3}{4}$ x $\frac{3}{16}$
	Planing a cylinder; fitting axle.		17	Towel roller.	Pine.	$18\frac{3}{4}$ x $4\frac{1}{4}$ x $2\frac{1}{4}$
The same as the first year, increasing in difficulty as the models become more complex.	Open mortise and tenon joint; making and fitting dowels.	Mortise gauge, mallet.	18	Frame.	Pine.	10 x 8 x $\frac{3}{4}$
	Fitting and nailing square joints.		19	Box.	Whitewood.	11 x 5 x $2\frac{3}{8}$
	Grooving with gouge.	Gouge, round cabinet scraper.	20	Pen tray.	Gum wood.	$10\frac{1}{2}$ x $2\frac{1}{4}$ x $\frac{3}{4}$
	Chamfering; straight-edge beveling.		21	Hat rack.	Pine.	18 x $2\frac{1}{4}$ x $3\frac{1}{2}$
	Half lapping; grooving with chisel.		22	Picture frame.	Gum wood.	10 x $8\frac{3}{4}$ x $\frac{1}{2}$
	Compass sawing.	Compass saw.	23	Cake spoon.	Cherry.	13 x 2 x $\frac{5}{8}$
	Grooving with rabbet plane; mitering.	Rabbet plane.	24	Picture frame.	Cherry.	$8\frac{1}{8}$ x $6\frac{1}{4}$ x $\frac{7}{16}$

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THIRD YEAR.

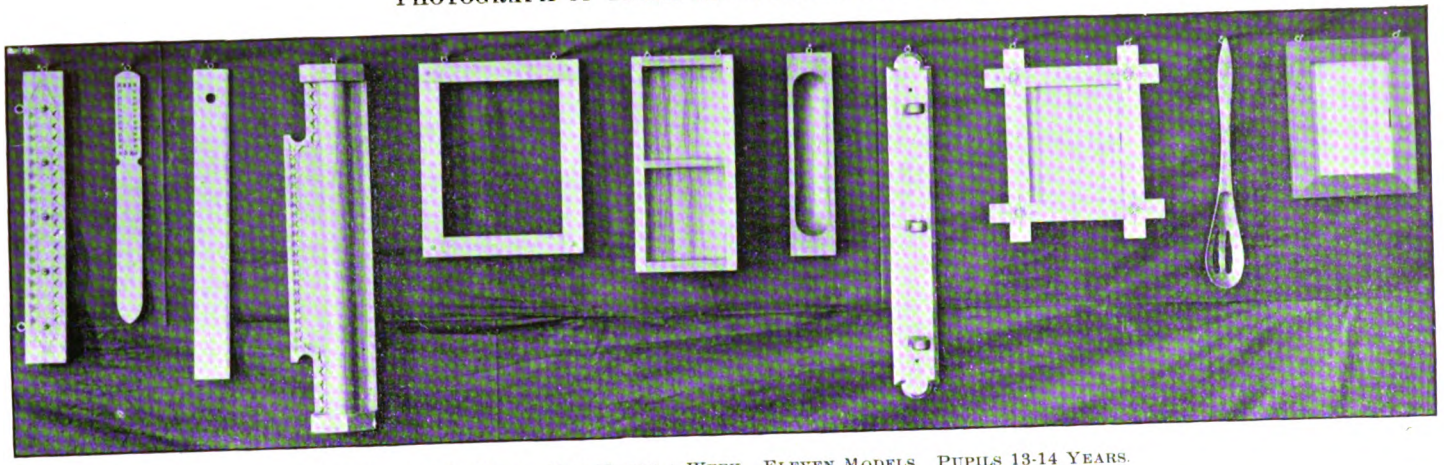
Children 14-15 Years. Time, 2 Hours a Week.

Drawing.	New Exercises and Review of Preceding Work.	New Tools.	No.	Models Representing the Exercises.	Kind of Wood.	Dimensions. Inches.
	Half oblique dovetail.		25	Foot stool.	Pine.	13 x 7 x 6
	Vertical gouging; cutting with drawing knife.	Drawing knife.	26	Scoop.	Cherry.	$9\frac{1}{2}$ x $1\frac{3}{8}$ x $2\frac{3}{4}$
Working drawings to scale and from description. Difference between orthographic and isometric projection and perspective drawing. Lettering work and making blue prints.	Plain dovetailing; carving curve design.	Paring tool.	27	Book rack or bracket.	Pine.	16 x $5\frac{1}{4}$ x $6\frac{1}{2}$ or $8\frac{1}{2}$ x 7 x 5
	Square grooving; half round beveling with plane.		28	Knife box.	Pine.	$12\frac{1}{2}$ x 9 x $2\frac{9}{16}$
	Plain jointing; use of matching plane; cleating.	Jointer plane, matching plane, cabinet-maker's clamps.	29	Drawing board.	Pine.	19 x 13 x $\frac{1}{2}$
	Dovetailing with miter; shellacking.		30	Tray.	Cherry and mahogany.	16 x $10\frac{5}{16}$ x $2\frac{1}{4}$
	Panel grooving; half blind dovetailing; blind mortise and tenon joint; fitting hinges and lock; polishing.	Framing chisel, plough, mitre box.	31	Tool chest or cabinet.	Pine.	$27\frac{1}{4}$ x $13\frac{1}{2}$ x $9\frac{3}{4}$

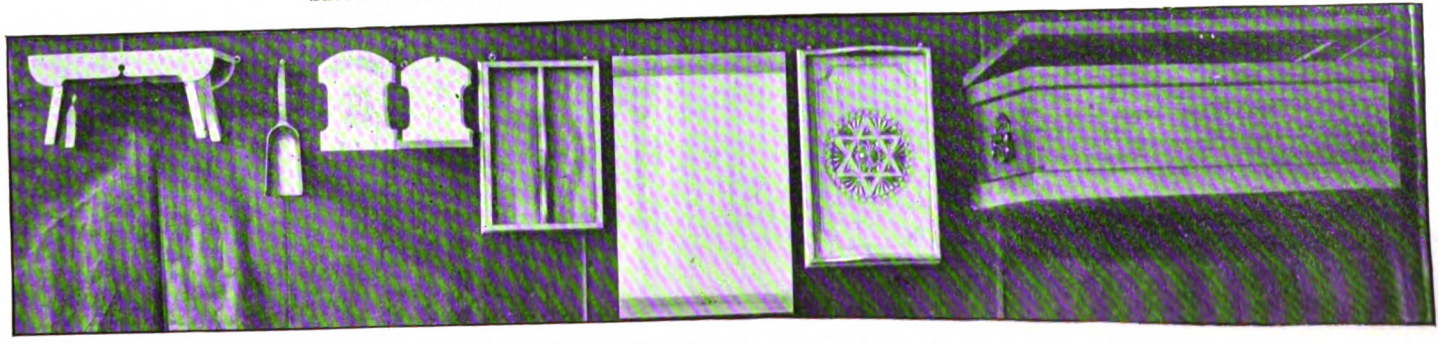
NOTE—Wood Turning may be practiced after 13-24-31.

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PHOTOGRAPH OF THIRD AND FOURTH YEAR MODELS.



SLOYD. SECOND YEAR. TWO HOURS A WEEK. ELEVEN MODELS. PUPILS 13-14 YEARS.



SLOYD. THIRD YEAR. TWO HOURS A WEEK. SEVEN MODELS. PUPILS 14-15 YEARS.

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PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE SLOYD SYSTEM.

1. The progression of exercises should be so arranged as to secure the constant and proportionate development of mind and body. The one should never be sacrificed to the other, as sometimes happens in manual work; the cube, for instance, is an easy problem for the mind to grasp, but too difficult at first for the hand to execute in wood, and it is also possible that a model should present a too serious problem to the mind while it gives little training to the body. Sloyd especially calls attention to this fact.

2. Exercises should be so arranged that each model should prepare the way for the next, not only physically but mentally.

3. Exercises should always result in a finished article of use. To a child the whole of anything is but an element, and in making its parts his thought is simply to complete his unit. Sloyd claims that by means of a finished model a continuous interest is obtained of great intellectual value, since "real discipline comes to the mind when it acts, not languidly, but with full energy, and it acts with energy only when it is interested in what it does."—(Rev. James Freeman Clarke). But more than this, Sloyd values the finished model as a means of securing the moral stimulus gained, not only through an interest which holds over from lesson to lesson, but by the use of the creative faculties of the child.

4. The proportions of the models should be such as to educate the artistic sense, and the construction simple enough for the child to reproduce in drawing. The drawing should go hand in hand with the tool work, and should include freehand work, applications of simple geometrical problems, and mechanical drawings with T-square, triangle and measure.

5. The models should admit of great variety of exercise and form. Sloyd claims that variety is necessary in the training of children, not as an amusement, but as a stimulus to varied mental activity. For this reason, as well as for the training in the sense of form, models introducing curves should be frequently interspersed among the strictly rectangular objects, as well as those calling for a variety of tools.

6. The work should be of such a character as to admit of the best hygienic conditions. The positions assumed in tool-work should counteract, as far as possible, the ill effects of long hours of sitting in school.

The modifications of the Swedish sloyd models have been the result of a study of all the work done by American teachers, a better appreciation of American ideas and æsthetic tastes and the articles found in the American home. The instruction in the sloyd schools has been greatly improved by the introduction of drawing. The child makes a drawing from the model by the aid of the teacher's instruction at the blackboard; he then makes his own model from his own drawing. By a careful comparison of the models with the charts you will appreciate the progression, and the value of the instruction and exercises of the course. You will notice that tools are introduced gradually; that one exercise follows logically and practically the preceding; that each step is an easy one in consequence of the previous work done. The work is consistent with the principles of the kindergarten, in that every model is a complete article and is the expression of the child's thought. The model is presented to him as an object of knowledge, which he studies, examines, thinks about and draws, thus making it his own. He then creates the object himself as an expression of his thought. It is claimed that this principle enhances the value of the exercise as an educational process. By making a whole thing, the child expresses a whole thought; just as a sentence is the expression of a whole thought in language. There is the same satisfaction in making the whole thing that there is in making a complete statement as an

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expression of a thought in language. In making the article the various steps or elements that enter into its construction are made. But it does not end with the elements; it is only finished when the whole is perfected. There is as much more interest in completing the object than in making only parts as there is in composing a sentence instead of spelling certain isolated words. The child is also conscious that he has made something of value, thus adding to the home or creating wealth. He makes it not only for himself but for others, thus increasing their pleasure; an instance of the altruistic principle.

This sloyd principle will be noticed in all the models here exhibited, and marks the modifications made in the other courses in their approach to the sloyd system.

Ever since the establishment of the kindergarten at the beginning and the manual training school at the end of the course, educators have been trying to devise a system of work to bridge the gap between. This has been partially accomplished by means of clay modeling, which ought to occupy a place in every grade from the kindergarten to the high school, and paper or card work in connection with drawing. We now have the sloyd, which is capable of supplying the needed course of work by carrying out the principles of the kindergarten. The introduction of manual training into the grammar school, by employing the exercises of the school of mechanic arts, has been an extension of the manual training school and its methods downward, while the introduction of sloyd has been an extension of the kindergarten upward. You may judge for yourselves which comes nearest to educational principles.

In the kindergarten and primary school the child creates his forms by using material adapted to his tender hands. In sloyd he finds resistance in the harder material, wood, but which he uses, by the aid of simple tools, to express his thoughts and create the object he wishes to produce. He models with his knife just as he has modeled in clay with his hands or cut from paper or card. The use of the knife, which is the most universal and the simplest tool by which alone a complete model can be made, calls for the exercise of a most delicate manipulation; it affords the fullest and broadest freedom of any tool that can be employed. Its use necessitates the greatest exercise of the muscles of the wrist, hand and fingers, and this, in a physiological and psychological sense, possesses the highest educational value. It is the simplest and most natural tool as an introduction to manual training, in that it affords the least barrier between the child and his model.

Mr. Larsson's course covers four years, from the fifth to the eighth grades. Mr. Leavitt's, four years, from the sixth to the ninth; or, as the Boston classes are graded, from the fourth to the first. Mr. Eddy's course is designed for one year, the eighth—a modification of a course previously taught to ninth grade boys.

The two last-named courses are modifications of the Russian system. You can readily see how they have been influenced by the sloyd.

Photographs of the models of Mr. Leavitt's course are here given. These are samples of the work done by pupils.

A brief explanation of Mr. Leavitt's course will be interesting:

FIRST YEAR, OR FOURTH GRADE.

The first year's work is shown in the nineteen pieces of the class known as the fourth grade. In this year drawing is the special feature, light tool work only being introduced. The thin wood (one-quarter inch) eliminates all question of form, other than in two dimensions. A piece of thin stock is fastened firmly to the bench, in such a position that it may be drawn upon by means of the ordinary

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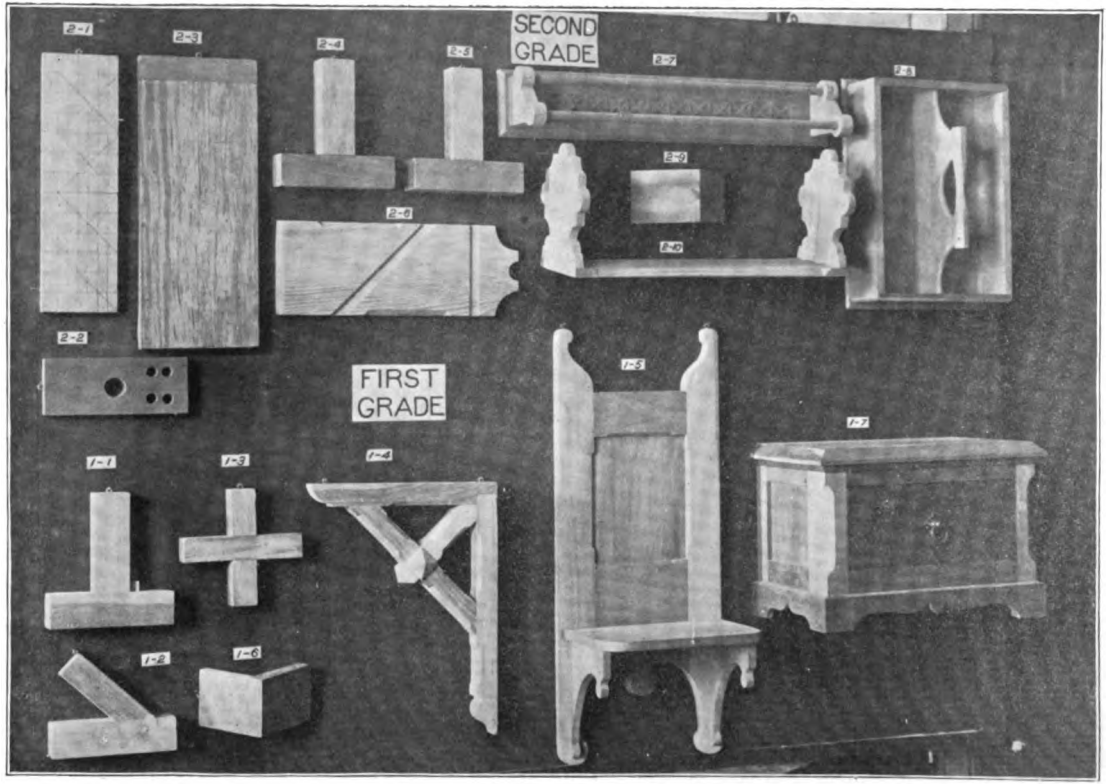


PLATE X.—EXHIBITED BY MR. LEAVITT, ELIOT SCHOOL.

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draughtsman's instruments, T-square, triangle and compasses. The drawings consist of plane figures which are made up of horizontal, vertical and oblique lines, arcs of circles, and some free-hand curves, and are such as require for their construction a few geometrical problems.

At the beginning of the lesson the model is held by the teacher, who makes the drawing step by step on the blackboard at the direction of the class, in response to the question, "What must be done next?" the pupil being required to express himself accurately. After the pupils have drawn the figure on wood, it is cut out by means of a bracket saw, and finished with a plane and file.

The lesson not only results in a finished piece, but makes clear to the child the meaning of drawing and the importance of accuracy.

SECOND YEAR, OR THIRD GRADE.

Nine figures. Continuation of first year. Thickness introduced and with it necessary additional views. On thin wood, same as in first year. On thick wood, two views are drawn on thin wood used as templates or patterns. The pupil thus learns what top, front and side views really are. The tool work introduces more and larger tools.

THIRD YEAR, OR SECOND GRADE.

The third year's work is shown in the ten figures of the second grade.

The more practical methods in both drawing and tool work are here introduced. The two are here separated for a time, the pupil making on paper correct working drawings simply as illustrative of principles, and, in tool work, executing various exercises from prepared drawings, using for marking out the rule, square, gauge and bevel; that is, the ordinary tools used by the mechanic for that purpose. The drawing and tool work are at length brought together again, the pupil making in the school room the working drawings of the models he is afterward to make in the shop. This temporary separation of the drawing and tool work, while not absolutely necessary, is thought advisable for the following reasons: The subjects are now to be presented to him in a new light, the drawing as a means of expressing to some one else facts of form and dimension necessary for the construction of the piece, the tool work as the expression in wood of facts some one else has expressed in drawing. Then, too, the whole subject of putting on dimensions must be taught; that is, of expressing accurately all the facts about the model, though the pupil, by reading the drawings for the two previous years, has unconsciously been learning this most important branch. He has been learning how to express himself in drawing by seeing his teacher draw, as he has been learning to express himself verbally by hearing his teacher talk.

FOURTH YEAR, OR FIRST GRADE.

The work of the fourth year is shown in the seven figures of the first grade.

The tool work illustrates further principles of construction, and brings the whole course into harmony and unity in the two finished pieces, the construction of which involves a familiarity with all that has gone before. These pieces are made entirely from the pupil's own drawings, and these are made in four ways: First, from models with blackboard instruction; second, from models only; third, with a written description with one model to make the meaning clear; and, fourth, from a written description only, being thus purely the expression of thought.

It will be evident to any one who has followed the course thus far that while each year's work of seventy hours can readily be given independently of the rest,

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yet that there is a very distinct advantage in having the whole given in consecutive order, that the greatest possible benefit may be derived by the pupils for the time spent.

The element of progression is a very important principle underlying all these courses. It is essential that the models follow each other in such a course as shall train the mind and the body, by calling into exercise the faculties of thought and the various muscles of the hand. The selection of models must be made in recognition of the growing dexterity of the pupils, the strength of body and the increasing knowledge of tools. The variety of models is of great importance, because it increases the interest, stimulates a wider intelligence and greater mental activity.

In designing new models the instructor strives to satisfy the desire for utility and beauty. The æsthetic taste of to-day must not only be satisfied but continually cultivated. The models should not only take the ideal form, but possess the highest elements of art, thus contributing to the æsthetic education of the pupil who works them out. They must not only show the æsthetic idea in the ornamental carving upon them, but possess beauty of form in themselves—the beauty must not be added to, but incorporated in, the model.

I have not put up these exhibits for the purpose of comparing them. They all embody true educational principles, and show the individuality of their authors. I do not ask you to choose the best. No one should pass judgment upon a series of models by a superficial examination. The merits of a course are not determined by the number or variety of the models, by their form, their apparent usefulness or their market value, but rather by their educational value. Examine each course during the noon recess, to see if possible how much observation, judgment, carefulness, is required. Learn the effect upon the children who work them out, as to the faculties trained, skillfulness acquired, how the general health and strength of body is improved and maintained. Examine the models to see how each exercise grows out of the preceding, how familiar tools are kept in use and new ones gradually introduced. That is, the merits of a system cannot be determined by the models alone, but by a study of the child who takes the course.

I deem it of the highest importance to the success of manual training that the systems employed be strictly founded on educational principles. There has been a great deal of time and money spent on shops and carpenters. Almost everything in the shape of shop work has been tacked on to our school system. Is it not time for educators to cry "Halt!" to stop and investigate what is proposed, to incorporate what is educational and to root out what is not? One great obstacle to the kindergarten has been the work of superficial observers who claimed to be kindergartners, and incompetent persons who have foisted upon the primary schools the use of material which they called kindergarten work. The same trouble, perhaps in a greater degree, exists in regard to the manual training There has been too much experimenting—too much mechanic and too little teacher. Let us study this from the educational standpoint and pronounce upon it.

In closing, I wish briefly to state my conviction that the training of teachers for manual training is of as much importance as the training of kindergartners. We as superintendents should insist that our manual training teachers be trained for their special work and for the broader teaching as well.

Since 1888 hundreds of teachers in the Boston schools and in the neighboring cities have taken courses of instruction in sloyd. There is to-day a normal sloyd school, supported by Mrs. Shaw, where the instruction includes studies in educational psychology, the principles and the actual work with tools. This course is required of all who expect to receive the certificate entitling them to teach this branch in the schools. Most if not all of them are experienced teachers in the

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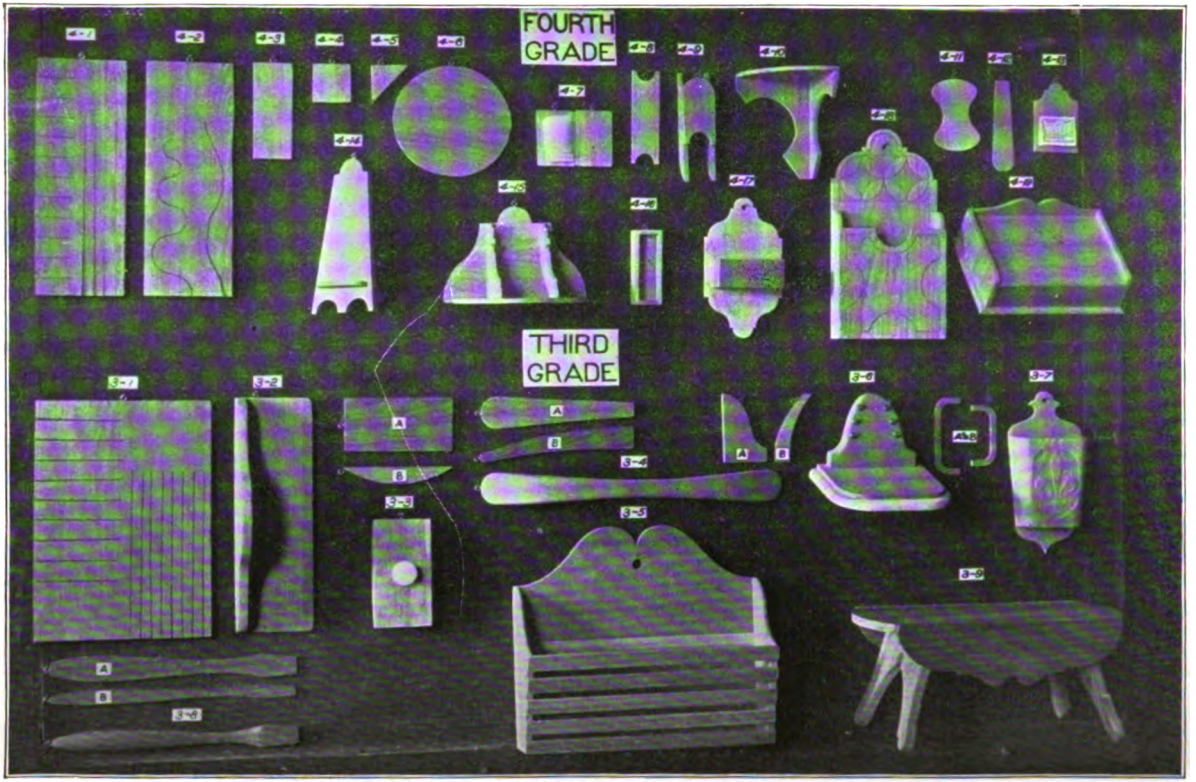


PLATE XI.—"LARGELY INFLUENCED BY SLOYD."—MR. LEAVITT, ELIOT SCHOOL.

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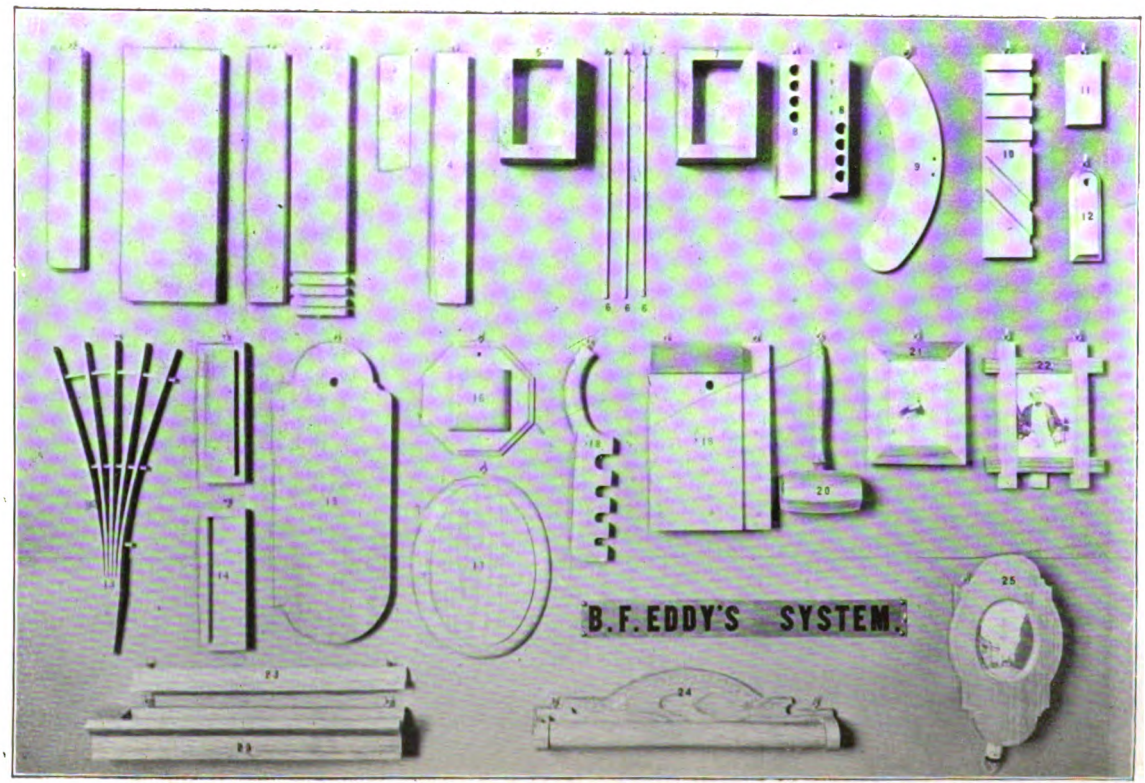


PLATE XII.—PHOTOGRAPH OF MR. EDDY'S MODELS, WHICH WERE ALSO EXHIBITED ON THE PLATFORM.

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regular schools. This school is doing a grand work, and is destined to establish a grade of teachers the existence of which will compel the recognition of the necessity of skilled teachers of manual training.

PRINCIPAL GEORGE B. KILBON, Springfield Manual Training School.—Manual training at Springfield is organized in three departments. First, high school; second, eighth and ninth grammar grades; and third, sixth and seventh grammar grades. High school pupils do daily work for three years in wood and iron. Eighth grade grammar pupils have one lesson each fortnight in elementary woodwork and ninth grade pupils have one lesson each week in the same. Boys in these two grades leave the grammar buildings and go to the manual building from 8:30 to 10 A. M. in classes not exceeding eighteen. All attendance is voluntary, and it is pleasant to be able to state that out of 104 ninth grade boys 102 take the manual lessons.

The lessons given to eighth and ninth grades are outlined in a pamphlet published by the school. A selection of ten lessons was published last year in the "New York School Journal."

A course in knife work is arranged for the sixth and seventh grades, which is done in the regular school-room, the desks being protected for the purpose by a removable cover of one-half inch pine. These lessons are given by the regular teachers, who are themselves instructed at the manual training school once a week from 4:30 to 6 P. M. Knives are kept in order and work inspected at the manual training school, and the manual principal makes occasional visits to the grammar schools as necessity arises or time allows. Knife work was, by a vote of the school committee, permitted in such sixth and seventh grades as made request for it, and in a short time such request came from every grammar principal in the city proper. It is everywhere taken by every boy and they make a total of 411. Some cases are reported of phlegmatic interest, while in other cases boys are reported as "crazy for it." In one school, during the illness and consequent absence of the teacher, a ninth grade boy is being allowed to direct the knife work with approved success, the room, of course, being meantime in charge of a teacher who had not fitted herself in knife work. The text-book used in this department of Springfield manual work is published by The Milton-Bradley Co., under the title of "Knife Work in the School-Room."

Drawing in the grammar grades is under the excellent supervision of Miss L. E. Fay, and every manual problem that admits of drawing is drawn in advance of the manual work, though the preliminary lessons in both of these studies must necessarily be practiced independently of the other study. The interest of grammar pupils in, and the quality of, their manual work is owing in a great degree to the interested and effective co-operation of the grammar principals and of the drawing teacher.

Interesting experiments have been made with knife work in grades four and five, which show that it can be successfully taught in those grades. Wishing to learn what could be done with third grade pupils, a school of that grade was asked how many would like to join a Saturday morning class in knife carving, when every hand went up. A class of five boys and three girls, eight in all, was selected, who have for two months gathered at my home and done creditable work under the direction of my daughter, Miss Caroline E. Kilbon. Their work forms the basis of a series of articles being now published in "Primary Education" of this city.

PROF. L. F. RONDINELLA, Philadelphia, Pa.—The educational value of manual training is no longer doubted or disputed by any who believe in developing all of the faculties with which human nature is endowed, nor by those who have seen

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the good results of its proper use in the kindergarten and the manual training high school. Though its introduction at these two ends of our educational system has been well established and followed with equally good results, the gap between them still remains to be bridged, and the question has been presented as to whether manual training should be extended upward from the kindergarten to the primary, secondary and grammar schools, or downward to them from the manual training school. I think that the former, as it follows the progress of the child, is the more logical method, and would be more adaptable to a graded educational system. Manual training should not be introduced into the public schools as a voluntary or "extra" study, but as an integral part of the regular curriculum. Its educational value should be as great as that of other branches, and it should then be made as obligatory as the study of the old-fashioned "three R's" for both sexes. The question yet to be solved is: "What kinds of manual work can be taught in the lower schools with the best educational results?" I take it that the subject of Mr. Curtis' paper was selected to open discussion as to how that question might be answered with reference to the grammar school grades. There are faculties existing in the pupil which the present grammar school course neglects, and the manual work should be selected to develop these upon Froebel's principle that education should ever aim to bring more and more out of a man rather than to put more and more into him. It should be taught in the class-rooms of the grammar school buildings, and the necessary equipment of tools and materials should be small and inexpensive. I notice that the course of wood-work arranged by Mr. Larsson, and now taught to grammar school pupils in rooms fitted up for the purpose, requires the use of the two saws and the plane for the first exercises and of the other carpenter's tools in succession, and could not, therefore, be used in the ordinary class-room, even if expense were left out of consideration. Sloyd done with the knife would seem to be the best kind of wood-work for this purpose, and if well taught should produce excellent results. The work should be done from the pupils' own drawings, and although the teaching of drawing is now well established and pictorial drawing is generally understood, there is much room for improvement in the method of teaching constructive drawing. It is generally called mechanical drawing, and the adjective too often denotes the way in which the teacher and pupils do the work, as well as the means or instruments used to produce accurate results. The outcome is only a certain manual dexterity, and better use could be made of the time. This dexterity can be more quickly obtained with young pupils by their studying the facts of form from the object and representing them in freehand constructive drawings; the size and shape can be studied by the eye and reproduced in proportion by the hand, the pencil and rubber being the only instruments used. The child's attention will not be strained as with the minutiæ of an instrumental drawing, and his powers of observation and expression can be well developed. If properly made and dimensioned, such a freehand drawing is very good to work from. I meant to suggest the use of clay modeling and developments in cardboard for the reproduction of solid and surface shapes, but I have exceeded my time limit, and can only mention them as two other kinds of manual work that might be introduced in the grammar school course with good results.

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THE STUDY OF ENGLISH IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

BY SUPT. A. P. MARBLE, WORCESTER, MASS.

A report has recently been made to the overseers of Harvard College by the Committee on Composition and Rhetoric. This report shows the very faulty use of the English language by a class of students in that ancient and honorable university. In the report, a large number of the productions of the students are printed in facsimile, reduced to half their original size. Beyond a doubt those students had no command of the English language, though they had passed the Harvard examinations and entered the institution. This is conclusive proof that the standard of admission to Harvard was low. The report deplores the fact that the professors are obliged to supplement the defective preparation of students in English before going on to the more advanced work appropriate to them, and it seems to lay the fault at the door of the preparatory schools.

But the preparatory schools had met the requirements. Their students had passed the entrance examination. These schools might with equal propriety complain that the pupils who come to them are not well fitted for the work appropriate to these fitting schools, and the lower schools may likewise insist upon a better training in English in the primary schools; and so on to the kindergarten, the home, and even to "hereditary tendencies and environments."

Again, even the graduates of Harvard and other colleges and universities do not all write good English. To quote from one of them: "Professor Pickering of Harvard University makes a strong point in his endeavor to secure funds to properly equip the Harvard observatory in Peru by the statement, that owing to the unsteady character of the atmosphere in the United States and in Europe telescopes of high magnifying power cannot be used, so that even the great Lick telescope of thirty-six inches aperture is able to do no better work than Professor Pickering has been able to do in Peru with a little thirteen-inch instrument, a statement that would be readily accepted by those who have watched in vain for the announcement of astronomical discoveries from the Lick observatory." Another: "It is certainly most unfortunate, looked at from a standpoint entirely outside of Republican partisanship, that, if Mr. Cleveland was to be elected, it could not have happened that there should have been such a result of the voting as would have thrown the election into congress; in which case, though the ex-president would have been again placed in the presidential chair, the country would have been spared the placing of such a man as Mr. Adlai E. Stevenson in direct line of succession to the presidency of the United States."

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No one would for one moment suppose that these overloaded sentences are the result of the superior instruction at Harvard; neither is the defect in the training of students who enter that institution necessarily or probably due to poor teaching in the preparatory schools. These defects may be attributed to a variety of causes; and among these causes, is one which is suggested at the close of the following quotation from a college graduate: "Education does not appear to be a panacea for temporal distress in that land of the highly educated, Germany, for one of the German officials declares that there are 'lawyers, physicians and doctors of philosophy among those who are regularly relieved by the poor board,' but it is manifestly unfair to lay this condition of things in Germany to the discredit of education, which cannot be expected to make successful lawyers, ministers or doctors out of dolts." Let it be noted that the imperfect product of the schools and colleges is not always due to faults in the schools. When we find that the student fresh from college cannot write good English, without bandying the blame from the editor to the college, from the college to the fitting school, from the fitting school to the grammar school, and so on to the primary school and the kindergarten, let us admit that the study of English has been defective, and let us seek a remedy.

In the public schools of France the study of the French language and literature occupies one-fifth of the time. If the English language and literature were to occupy as large a proportion of the time in our school curriculum, the education of our children would be greatly improved. For there is no study in the whole course which may be made a better instrument of culture than the study of English. It concerns itself with close and accurate thinking; and this kind of thinking is the very end and aim of education.

The study of English includes oral speech and written or printed language. The first of these is as important with young pupils as is the last; and with advanced students the careful study of their oral speech is of great value, though it has generally received but little attention. In society, conversation is frequently carried on in a careless, thoughtless way; words are often used with very little regard to their meaning; expressions are employed because they are novel or striking, rather than because they are appropriate and fitting. And quite generally a word does duty, in oral speech, in a sense very remote from its real meaning. Awful, almighty, splendid, are words commonly used to express a mere superlative. The same bad habit of oral speaking is not unfrequently allowed in the class-room. The pupil recites in slovenly language; he translates a foreign language in English which is inappropriate, unidiomatic and incorrect; he demonstrates a problem in geometry in language both inelegant and frag-

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mentary; in his recitation in history or geography the statements are broken and disjointed; in his attempt to narrate a circumstance or to express an opinion, he is careless about the language employed; and in all these cases the teacher is watching so closely for the glimmer of the thought that he fails to notice the language in which the thought is expressed.

The study of English, then, should begin with oral speech; and especially it should so begin the first day of school in the lowest grade. This careful attention to oral language must not be omitted at any stage of school life. Oral speech precedes written language; and if the written language of pupils in school, at first and all along, were made the basis of the written work—the themes and compositions—these exercises would be robbed of all their terror.

The child begins to talk at a very early age; and he knows the meaning of many words long before he can pronounce them. On coming to school his vocabulary is much larger than we have credited him with, and his power of expression is greater than most teachers suppose. It has been assumed that the vocabulary of a child four or five years old contains three or four hundred words. Few people would place the number as high as five or six hundred. From a series of experiments covering a large field, and made with the purpose of ascertaining certain other facts as well as the extent of the child's vocabulary, it has been shown that the ordinary child at the age of four or five years has the command of twelve hundred words; and many children at the age of five know the meaning and the use of fifteen hundred words.

Now, the first and chief duty of the teacher is, to induce the child just entering the schools to talk; to express himself. He knows a great deal more than he gets credit for; there is a presumption of brains, of thought, and of ability to speak. Of course, the little child is timid; and amidst the unusual surroundings—the "environment," to use an educational term—he retires within himself. It is the duty of the teacher to secure his confidence and to induce him to reveal his inner self, that is, his thought, and to delight in this revelation. I have called this the chief duty, because the expression of thought begets thought in the child. The thought may be stimulated by objects, toys, the kindergarten gifts and occupations, objects of nature of every variety, stories, plays; anything whatever that interests him. The oral language—the child's own—may next be written upon the blackboard for him to read; and the written characters should be to him the representatives of the sounds he has made in speaking. "I see a cat," written upon the blackboard, means to the child, "I s-ēē ă cat.' When the expression is changed to "I see a hat," "a mat," he will at once notice that the *c*, the *h*, and the *m*, each modifies the meaning

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in accordance with his own thought. Not to explain at length this elementary process of teaching reading, the important fact in this connection is that the child connects his oral speech with the written language. He is led to see that written language is the expression of thought, his own thought; and thus the reading is vitalized, so to speak; made a living thing. From this stage it is only a step for him to perceive that written language may also be the expression of another person's thought. It is important that he so look upon it later, when he sees the written or printed language in a book. Simultaneously with learning to read from the blackboard the visible representation of his oral speech, and to translate that and other writing into oral language, the child may be occupied with writing his speech upon the slate or upon paper, without the preliminary step of uttering it with his mouth and seeing it written by the teacher. The child is taught to think, to express himself in words, to recognize the written language as another form of his own thought, and to reproduce his thought in visible form; and incidentally he learns that all written or printed language is the expression of thought. He thus learns at the very outset of his school education to look behind the language, whether oral or written, for the thought that lies within.

The above is not intended merely to be an essay on the first steps in teaching reading. Its significance, in my view, consists in this: That the process here outlined—the thought, its oral and visible expression, and the perception of the thought in printed or written language—that this process is the same at every stage of the study of English. The process begins in the primary school, and it never ends.

Language is the expression of thought; it is this only; it should always suggest to the student the thought which it embodies, and the student should look beyond the mere form, and perceive the immaterial essence.

The oral expression, whose value I have attempted to emphasize at the very start, in school life ought, in my judgment, to receive equal attention at every stage of public school education. The pupil ought to be accustomed to express in clear, concise and appropriate language whatever he has seen, or thought, or been concerned about. This oral expression should be a daily practice. Every recitation ought to be made a study of English. The form and fitness of the expression should be looked upon as of equal importance with the matter to be expressed; for there is no definite thought without definite expression. Vague language involves vague thought; and this careful attention to the language, constant and unremitting, is a great part, if not the best, the most important, part of school education. Of two partners in a business firm, the older had been seriously ill for many years; at length the younger failed in health, and finally died. Someone re-

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marked that it was "funny" that the younger man had died first. It was not funny at all; it may have been remarkable or strange. But in criticising language in this way it is quite possible to fall into a habit of being finical and overnice. Language, also, which may be appropriate in oral speech, may not be appropriate when written. It requires much observation and practice, and a delicate sense of fitness, to discriminate with certainty and precision between words and expressions that are colloquial and forcible and those which are coarse and bordering on the vulgar. A taste too fastidious in the use of language makes the style stiff and stilted.

In the "School Review" for the present month (February, 1893) vol. i, No. 2, Mr. Brainerd Kellogg of the Polytechnic Institute, Brooklyn, gives us certain words and phrases which the usage of the best writers say we may employ, but which "purists tell us we may not, must not use:" "We may use 'each other,' of more than two things, and 'one another,' of only two; a 'word or two,' as well as 'one or two words;' 'had rather' or 'had better' with the present infinitive, etc." The importance of close attention to the speech consists less in the words and expressions whose proper use is learned than in the habit of attending to the expression. It is the study, of both pupil and teacher, which produces the good habit of thought; and this habit leads not only to correct expression, but to correct and orderly thinking; and this is vastly more important. From this habit of much talking by the pupil, under the guidance of the teacher, the habit of writing grows naturally. He has expressed his thought in speech; let him take his seat, and in the presence of his teacher and his schoolmates let him write, simply and straight on, the same which he has spoken, with no particular attention to the writing or the form of expression; with no more attention, that is, than he gave to his language while speaking. In both cases, equally, his attention is upon the thought; and he notices the language only as it expresses his thought. At the end of the period--fifteen or twenty minutes—the paper may be folded and laid upon the teacher's desk. At the next exercise, this paper may be examined carefully by the pupil; and he will then see how nearly he has said what he intended to say, and he may correct the writing in any way he chooses. Subsequently, the teacher may examine and correct the paper, or the pupil may rewrite it.

It is my firm belief that children brought up in this way would find no more difficulty in writing what they have to say than they would find in speaking it; it would in fact be about the same thing. We are assuming, of course, that this habit of expression, both oral and written, has been continuous throughout the schools; and that the time for each exercise, and the matter talked and written about, have been adapted to the age and capacity of the pupil.

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Thus far in this discussion not much has been said about a most important feature in exercise of this kind; that is, the source from which the ideas to be expressed are to be derived. In the primary school these ideas come from objects, plays, stories, etc.; and in the more advanced grades, many of the ideas come naturally from the other studies of the school—the geography, the history, the natural science, etc., and from the places of interest, the factories, the shops, and the various processes of manufacture which the pupil may be interested in visiting and describing. But the main reliance for the ideas to be thought about and written about must be books adapted to the age of the pupil—books of natural history, fairy tales, books of travel, biography and history; and the reading and the study of well-selected books all along in the course is another means for the study of English. The careful reading of books in connection with the speaking and the writing outlined above, serves a two-fold end: In the first place, the reading (always with the attention chiefly upon the thought, as said above) fills the mind with something to think about and to talk and write about; and in the second place, the language, the form of expression, the style of the writing, imperceptibly and unconsciously molds the form of speech of the pupil; and this without his knowing it. He should not attempt, of course, to repeat orally or to write immediately after he has finished the reading. Some time should elapse between the reading and the writing, in order that the new ideas may, as it were, digest in the mind, and be assimilated with his thought, so as to become his own. The exact language will not be remembered, and yet the new idea suggested by the reading will retain something of the form of expression in which it was clothed,—the thought and the expression are so nearly allied: and this form will affect the written language of the pupil. Thus the reading both expands the thought of the pupil and enlarges the power of expressing that thought.

This habit of reading, and of repeating orally and in writing the substance of what he has read, introduces the pupil to the best literature gradually and in step with his growing appreciation and his increasing power of expression; and there is no limit to this power of expression so long as the mind may expand and there is thought to be expressed.

M. Francois Gouin, in his admirable book on the "Art of Teaching and Studying Languages," says, that language is of two kinds, objective and subjective; the objective language being that which expresses the thought suggested by some external object, and the subjective language being that which expresses what originates in the mind itself—its own emotion or reflection, as it were. "The wheel turns round," for example, expresses a fact perceived through the senses, a

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fact in the external world; "That is right." on the other hand, is the expression of a reflection in the mind itself.

This objective language expresses a kind of thought which it appears to me a dumb creature, an irrational animal, as we call it, might have. The child says, "The wheel turns round;" the trained animal notices the motion of his master's hand, compares it with former experiences and forms a judgment; and he acts accordingly. Why does not this mental process in the intelligent animal correspond with the human thought expressed in what M. Gouin calls objective language? The thought expressed by the subjective language is of a more exalted kind; it is the rational thought of a higher order of intellect; it is a kind of thought above and beyond that which is produced by material objects, or sense perceptions and manual occupations; it is a kind of thought to which all right education leads up. This higher kind of thought is expressed in our literature. In this literature are expressed the feelings, the emotions, passions, poetry, and the sense of beauty, the hopes and aspirations, the fears and the despairs of human hearts. English is to be studied in its literature; and the study of this literature is the study of the race and of humanity.

Now, language cannot express to anyone very much beyond that which he has lived and experienced. In order to find a response in the mind the language must appeal to something already in the mind; there must be in the mind of the reader a correspondence, some resemblance, something with which to compare. Hence a young child could have no conception of the "Paradise Lost," for example.

Now, as the power of expression should grow by the use both in oral speech and in written language, as I have endeavored to point out; as the thought should grow correspondingly, and be nourished by observation and reading, and by expression all along through the elementary stages, so it appears to me the student's own language should form the basis of his study of literature. That is to say, his knowledge of the structure, the force, and the beauty of the language should be developed from within; should be a growth and not a mere accretion.

To begin again at the bottom. Is spelling to be learned? The words one uses are of most interest. Is the grammatical structure of the sentence to be studied? For this study the pupil's own language should be examined. It is his own. He knows what it means; and he can therefore more easily appreciate the force which he has put into every part of it, and can understand the effect upon the sense which any modification of its form and structure may produce. Is rhetoric to be learned? How can the nature of a figure of speech be better understood by the student than by recognizing the one which

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he himself has used? The same is true of the orderly and effective arrangement of words and of every other principle of rhetoric. The student may study grammar indefinitely, but he will never really know grammar till he has used the language; and it is better for him to study the grammar in his language than to attempt to learn the grammar and then conform his language to it. He may study rhetoric for years without appreciating fully what it is, unless he has put its principles in practice in actual writing;—not merely in inventing examples and dissecting the examples of other people, which is generally worse than a waste of time. Does anybody suppose that any one of our great writers, Macaulay for example, while writing, ever stopped to say to himself, "Now I will introduce a striking metaphor;" "Now I will set forth this incident in a brilliant period?" He could not have made those glowing sentences of his in such a way if he had tried. He was full of his subject, and the writing and the illustrations did themselves. Much less can any young student write well, when he is thinking of writing well instead of thinking of his subject, and what he has to say about it.

In the study of grammar, which is the study of English, I would have every principle pointed out in the language which the pupil has used. Those grand divisions, the subject and the predicate, that which is spoken of and that which is said, may be pointed out very early. The uses of words in the sentence, as nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc., may be made very clear by reference to the child's own writing or speaking. All the rest may be found in some one of the brief manuals, such as the first chapters of "Foundations of Rhetoric," lately issued by Professor Hill of Harvard, and the "Manual of English Composition," by Nichols, published by Macmillan & Co.

In the report of the committee already referred to it is noted that skill in athletic sports cannot be acquired from books; it must be attained by practice if at all, and the value of the scientific instruction in the books consists in directing merely, and correcting the practice. The same is true in learning the English language; and the inference from the report is, that students come to Harvard well fitted in athletics and poorly prepared in English. This inference, undoubtedly, corresponds to the facts; and my aim is to introduce into the learning of English the principle of practice now used in learning the athletics.

But the study of English does not consist merely in learning how to use the language. The main purpose of the study is, to mine from the literature the treasures embedded there.

For the thorough, or even a partial, discussion of this important part of the study of English there is not now time; nor is there very much necessity, because the ground has been carefully covered in the

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various works on the teaching of literature. The latest to come under my observation, and one of the best, is a little work entitled "Longer English Poems," edited by J. W. Hailes, M. A., and published by Macmillan & Co. To show what may be done in the study of any selection of prose or poetry, in an introductory essay on the teaching of English, the author has taken up Scott's "Rosabelle." The piece is first learned by heart; its meaning is next considered; minor, subsidiary matter, allusions to manners and customs, etc., are then taken up; next the questions of prosody or of rhythm receive attention; something about the author, next, and matters of grammar, the words of "Rosabelle" with reference to derivation and origin; and finally, the subject matter of the poem having been considered in its various aspects, an attempt at criticism may be encouraged and a recapitulation of the whole. "After some such lesson as that just attempted," the author goes on to say, "proper curtailment and expansion having been made, will not the intelligence of the pupil have been thoroughly exercised? will not his previously acquired knowledge have been called into use and arranged better? will he not have added something to that better ordered store? will he not, while awakening to a pleasant consciousness of what the power of his mind is, and what apparent entanglements it can unravel if properly trained and directed, learn also how much there is that is beyond his reach, and how, of what lies within his reach, the better part may not be won, 'without dust and heat;' learn the great lesson which concerns not only his schoolboy days but all the days of his life, that there is nothing worthy to be achieved without sincere, undaunted, never-varying industry?"

For this kind of study I commend the little poem on "Columbia's Emblem, the Golden Corn," to be recognized, no doubt, as the typical plant of America, as the thistle is of Scotland, and the lily of France.

COLUMBIA'S EMBLEM.

Blazon Columbia's emblem,
The bounteous, golden corn!
Eons ago, of the great sun's glow
And the joy of the Earth, 'twas born.
From Superior's shore to Chili,
From the ocean of dawn to the West,
With its banners of green and tasseled sheen,
It sprang at the sun's behest;
And by dew and shower, from its natal hour,
With honey and wine 'twas fed,
Till the gods were fain to share with men
The perfect feast outspread.
For the rarest boon to the land they loved
Was the Corn so rich and fair.
Nor stars nor breeze o'er the farthest seas
Could find its like elsewhere.

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In their holiest temples the Incas
Offered the heaven-sent Maize—
Grains wrought of gold, in a silver fold,
For the sun's enraptured gaze;
And its harvest came to the wandering tribes
As the gods' own gift and seal;
And Montezuma's festal bread
Was made of its sacred meal.
Narrow their cherished fields; but ours
Are broad as the continent's breast,
And, lavish as leaves, the rustling sheaves
Bring plenty and joy and rest.
For they strew the plains and crowd the wains
When the reapers meet at morn,
Till blithe cheers ring and west winds sing
A song for the garnered corn.

The rose may bloom for England,
The lily for France unfold;
Ireland may honor the shamrock,
Scotland her thistle bold;
But the shield of the great Republic,
The glory of the West,
Shall bear a stalk of the tasseled Corn,
Of all our wealth the best!
The arbutus and the goldenrod
The heart of the North may cheer,
And the mountain laurel for Maryland
Its royal clusters rear;
And jasmine and magnolia
The crest of the South adorn;
But the wide Republic's emblem
Is the bounteous, golden Corn!

In all that precedes, no allusion has been made to that broad and fertile field for cultivation, the imagination, a world in itself for the child. What an imaginative child life has recently been portrayed by Frances Hodgson Burnett, in her description of the "One I Knew Best of All;" and J. G. Holland some years ago, in a story called "Arthur Bonnicastle," published in the early "Scribner's Magazine," shows most admirably how character and power may be developed by a proper culture of the imagination. But for all this there is here no time. My simple purpose is to show that the basis of all study of English should be the child's or the student's own language by which he has expressed thought, to show that the growth should be from within.

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DISCUSSION.

MR. JAMES H. BLODGETT, Census Bureau, Washington, D. C.—The child's lessons in language begin with his first perceptions. It is of immediate consequence whether the work at school shall be uplifting, indecisive or degrading to the English he acquires elsewhere. Speaking and writing will be purified and broadened by good reading. A stray key is hardly more than a bit of old iron, but we prize a key that admits us to our home and our goods. Of what use is reading as a key to one who reads nothing or only degrading print? It is a complaint in Germany and France that numbers who passed the requirements at school in the compulsory age have forgotten how to read and write in later life, even when they reach the military age.

To make reading a prized key, there must be a suggestion at least of the lock it fits and of the goods it might reveal. The baby that cannot talk but has learned to select its favorite pictures from a wholesome book and to delight in the explanations by its mother, has begun to choose books for the ideas which they contain.

Reading in school can be made infinitely more effective by replacing all meaningless reading lessons with material of intrinsic worth. Teachers who try to select good material are hampered by the antagonism men so generally have towards expressions conflicting with their ideas. Publishers making books for the universal market are compelled to cut out what might offend an adherent of any scientific, religious or political idea until such books have no moral vitality. The teacher who would select material of decided worth must avoid all that would cause trouble among his patrons. Public school officials in whole States have prohibited the use of any text-books outside of prescribed lists. In the city systems, especially, many children go through a grade knowing their instructor only by the general name "teacher," without personal identity, a mere cog in the grinding for promotion. Under such conditions it is difficult to suggest what the individual teacher may do. He or she has need of great knowledge, great moral force and great enthusiasm to penetrate the crust of routine formed over the childish mind.

Instruction in literature, bad, neutral or good, begins with the first knowledge of reading at home or at school.

Reading at first might embrace standard nursery rhymes, ballads, fairy stories, fables, travels, anecdotes of men, animals and plants, advancing indefinitely through works of poetry and prose with whose contents one should be familiar.

Accuracy in reading depends more upon the relation of the words to the reader's usual vocabulary and the relation of the ideas to the reader's thought than upon the length of the words. This develops a difference between the reading power of pupils supplied with good books at home and those who have only the school reading or a stealthy influence of the dime novel type.

We have been tending toward the use of mechanical appliances of no interest out of the class. We ought to use books that would be valued in the home and discussed in the family, so that the whole community would share in the work of the school. The persistent use of classic reading, now happily available even for small children, would influence spoken and written English and enlarge mental and moral conceptions of the individual, the family and the community. There are schools where all the reading lessons are made directly helpful to the best education. More teachers than constituencies are ready for better work, which must rest upon a public sentiment at least as extended as the patronage of the school.

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One of the highest offices of the teacher is to assist his pupils and patrons to learn the names, intrinsic character, size, appearance, cost and authorship of books on every subject that tempts their investigation. Even with the freedom of a great library many educated people are bewildered in their inability to select what they want, to distinguish original authorities from scrappy clippings or unverified repetitions, or to discriminate authorized editions from cheap reprints. It is quite as important oftentimes to know where knowledge is to be found as it is to possess the details. How many know where to find authoritative information by which to test the flood of matter daily printed about the Sandwich Islands that have suddenly become important to us?

The office of the teacher in aiding the search for desirable books cannot be emphasized too strongly.

MR. JOHN T. PRINCE, Agent of Massachusetts Board of Education.—The results of the teaching of English in preparatory schools, as shown by a recent report of a committee of Harvard College, were not poor, when it is considered that the papers exhibited were the poorest of all that were examined. Yet it must be confessed that the work in English in the elementary schools is far from what it should be. A recent inspection of the high schools of two counties of Massachusetts showed that great differences exist in the amount of time given to English, the number of recitations of a four years' preparatory course varying from 120 to 880. The amount of written work required was found to be lamentably small, being limited in some schools to one exercise a month. The teachers of high schools attribute the neglect of English to wrong requirements of the colleges, which emphasize unduly the so-called classical subjects. It is hoped that the closer association of college and preparatory school officials will help to give English its fair share of time in the high school programs. Much good also is hoped to come from the report of the Committee of Ten appointed at the last meeting of the National Association.

But amend our programs as we may, we must not forget that the character of the work in English, as in other branches, depends largely upon the teacher. As an association of superintendents we should constantly insist upon high scholarship and good professional training for all teachers of both primary and secondary schools. It is only by putting in the schools good teachers that lasting improvement in the teaching of English can be expected.

R. C. METCALF, Supervisor of the Boston Public Schools.—The teacher should never lose sight of the fact that language is an expression of thought. With this in mind, he necessarily divides his work into (1) thought-getting, and (2) thought-expressing. Clear and vigorous thinking leads to clear and vigorous expression.

In the lower grades, say in the first four years of school, the work of the teacher should be confined, mainly, to these two phases in language-training. The policy of crowding into these grades a great variety of work is, to say the least, questionable. Paper cutting and folding, clay modeling and stick-laying, sewing, and work in color, are all good in themselves, and worthy of time and attention, provided they do not demand too great an expense. But the cost must be counted. So far as the different forms of manual training contribute to thought-getting and thought-expression, so far has manual training a right to a place in the primary school course. But let us be sure that the teacher understands the end and aim of what he is required to teach.

It is just here that the work of a good superintendent is needed. There are two kinds of supervision, (1) a kind that makes the pupil's work the object of examination, and (2) one that examines most carefully the work of the teacher.

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The first demands a large expenditure of time and energy in testing the work of the pupils, and from the results of these tests judges of the fitness of the teacher. The second examines carefully the methods of the teacher, well knowing that good methods, skillfully used, will surely bring good results.

The second kind, or method, of supervision is the one most worthy of commendation. The first is usually pernicious. It exalts a high percentage of correct answers, and ignores, to a considerable degree, the method by which the percentage is attained.

In language-work, the teacher's method is all important. To promote "thought-getting," the teacher must understand the child nature and the child mind. He must understand the right order of presentation of subjects of thought; how to stimulate the curiosity of the child; how to give him favorable opportunities for expression. He must be familiar, also, with the principles governing criticism. In fact, all these are so essential, that failure in any one point may prove disastrous. Hence the importance of careful and skillful supervision.

But it should not be forgotten that careful and skillful supervision does not imply that every teacher must adopt all the peculiar notions of the supervisor. The latter trains his teachers in right principles; the former makes the application of those principles. The best "method" for any teacher is that which is best adapted to his peculiarities of mind; or in other words, it is that which works best with him. Peculiarities of method will vary with the peculiarities of the teacher.

If it is true that "thought-getting" and "thought-expressing" are peculiarly the work of the lower teachers, it follows that all the work of the primary grades should be made to contribute to these ends; and the value of any work that seeks admittance to the curriculum of the primary schools must be judged by its fitness to promote the work in language.

In all the grades of the grammar and high schools, the pupil's best work should be demanded in his efforts at oral or written expression. Carelessness should never be permitted. Oral expression should be given in tones that are at once clear, distinct and pleasing.

Written expression should show careful penmanship, correct spelling and punctuation, and the best English at the writer's command. All expression, whether oral or written, should follow (not precede) accurate thinking.

EDGAR A. SINGER Asst. Supt., Philadelphia.—The importance of this subject demands that it receive the closest attention, not only in all grades of elementary schools, but also in high schools and colleges and universities. This importance must be acknowledged, whether we regard the educational value of the subject itself or its intimate connection with every other branch taught in these schools and higher institutions of learning.

The two important considerations are (1) the matter to be taught, and (2) the manner of teaching it.

As thoughts are suggested or created in the young child's mind mainly by objects and environments, his language will, at first, be limited by his narrow range of experience and of thought; while, as his experience increases and his knowledge extends, he will need a greater vocabulary to express his more numerous ideas and his more complex thoughts. Again, as he is chiefly dependent for his language upon those with whom he associates, he acquires the expressions, correct and incorrect, used by those with whom he is brought in frequent contact.

This view of the subject suggests two lines of teaching: (1) That which provides the learner's mind with thought material, and creates or encourages desire for thought expression. (2) That which provides influences and presents examples and rules for the correction of errors of expression already acquired.

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Hence, the same general methods must be employed in school as those which obtained previously—things and personal experiences to furnish thought material, and practice in expression to give skill in the use of language as the embodiment of thought.

The results desired will be just in proportion to the teacher's ability to aid the child in getting material upon which his mind can operate in the creation of thought; in training him to remember sense impressions and concepts; and, above all, in promoting his self-activity not only to acquire knowledge and to formulate thought, but also to reproduce to express what he acquires.

To accomplish these results, the teacher must not, however, tell the pupil what to say. She must merely put his mind in the right relation to the objects or the matter to be studied or learned. The thoughts themselves, the sentences to be used, the thought expression, must be the outcome of his understanding and knowledge of the subject presented. If the language used does not represent the learner's own thoughts, it is valueless.

When pupils shall have made sufficient progress to put their thoughts in the form of written language, the same general methods must be pursued. They must still be trained to see, to observe, to think for themselves. They must get thoughts, they must have something to say, and then they must be led to express in the best possible form the results of their observations and mental processes. The mistakes made—their inaccuracies of expression—should always be noticed, and they must be trained to see how such errors may be avoided or corrected.

In more advanced classes, it becomes necessary to introduce into their language exercises some of the most important principles and terms and rules of grammar. The thing, the word, the thought, the expression, have had a real existence, a practical use. There are certain forms and uses of words and of sentences, certain principles of arrangement and rules of construction, that must be known and applied in the expression of thought by means of verbal language. The terms in which these forms and principles and rules are stated become convenient in advanced exercises, because through use they become known and understood alike by pupil and teacher. Teachers are not, however, to consider that their language work can, to any considerable extent, be improved through so-called drill in technical grammar in classes or grades below the high school.

If attention has been given all along the line to the thought as the origin of verbal expression, to the forms and the uses of words and sentences to express thought clearly, always with a correct style held up by the teacher before her pupils, then the technicalities of grammar, so far as they are necessary and applicable in our elementary schools, assume their right place in their proper order as general principles or truths following practice or particular examples, as the science following the art of expression. Besides being the expression of thought evolved in the mind, language is a means of interpreting and acquiring thoughts verbally expressed by others. All along the line from the primary school to the university, attention should be given to language as literature. Throughout the successive stages of language training, teachers should seize every opportunity to cultivate in their pupils a taste for good reading.

Our literature for children is full of simple verses which they should read and memorize. For those a little more advanced, there is a rich store of both prose and poetry, excellent in matter, in style and in sentiment. In higher schools, when the minds of pupils become further developed and their tastes somewhat matured, systematic effort should be made to interest them in literature in its wider and more comprehensive meaning and application by bringing them in contact and association with all that is beautiful in prose and poetry, and in encouraging them

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to store their minds with gems and masterpieces of literature that will influence mind and heart and character through life.

HENRY A. WISE, Superintendent Schools, Baltimore, Md.—Nothing is of so much importance in the course of study as intelligent instruction in reading. Thorough instruction in reading not only begets the ability to see the thoughts expressed in the printed page and to utter them so as to give their sense, but as the pupil, while reading the best English authors, is thrown in contact with the most correct and elegant forms of expression, it cultivates the eye and ear in recognizing and imitating these forms. In fact, it may be justly claimed that this, with conversation and written language exercises, constitutes the most effective language teaching, and should be systematically and unremittingly pursued through the primary and grammar grades. The cultivation of the correct sound and appearance of language is the proper sort of grammar at this stage, and not technical grammar. By teaching reading so as to habituate the pupils to understand what they read, a taste for good reading is formed, also, which induces them to read wholesome literature instead of the pernicious trash which is thrown broadcast before the youth of the land. Lowell says: "But have you ever rightly considered what the mere ability to read means? That it is the key that admits us to the whole world of thought and fancy and imagination; to the company of saint and sage, of the wisest and wittiest at their wisest and wittiest moments? That it enables us to see with the keenest eyes, hear with the finest ears, and listen to the sweetest voices at all times? * * * We are apt to wonder at the scholarship of the men of three centuries ago, and at a certain dignity of phrase that characterizes them. They were scholars because they did not read so many things as we. They had fewer books, but they were the best. Their speech was noble because they lunched with Plutarch and supped with Plato." For the purpose of acquiring a knowledge of English and the ability of using it, both in speaking and writing, with accuracy, elegance and force, nothing is so beneficial as a study of the best classic English authors. This study should begin in the lowest classes, and the work should be successively extended and developed throughout the course.

IN MEMORIAM—GEORGE HOWLAND.

BY ALBERT G. LANE, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CHICAGO, ILL.

Mr. Lane's address, in memory of George Howland, will be found in the Report of the Committee on Necrology of the General Association.

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EXAMINATIONS AND PROMOTIONS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

[No Paper Presented.]

DISCUSSION.

Dr. W. A. Mowry, Superintendent of Schools, Salem, Mass.—There are two distinct topics in the subject as placed before us for discussion this evening. The one is examinations; the other is promotions. Reversing the order, I desire to discuss first the matter of promotions.

When once the pupil has entered the primary school, his advancement from class to class through all the elementary grades should be easy and natural, without difficulty and without an unnecessary strain upon the nervous system. On the other hand, no laxity of supervision should encourage indolence or carelessness in study. It seems to me, however, that the various means of stimulating the pupils' ambition to excel, to be faithful and to be thorough should be largely outside of this matter of changing from class to class. This should be natural and regular. Having finished the course of study prescribed for one division he naturally proceeds to the studies of the next division in precisely the same way, that having accomplished the work of one week he proceeds to the work of the next week.

The main question, however, to my mind, is what should be the class intervals. Should they be longer or shorter? The prevailing custom, more general than any other throughout the country, has been to make the class intervals one year apart. To my mind this is not the wisest. For many reasons the class intervals should be shorter. For the present, in all the lower grades, a half year interval is doubtless the wisest plan. Many, however, prefer intervals of ten weeks, but in a majority of cities difficulty would be experienced in carrying out this method.

It is doubtless true that a general movement is already in operation tending to shorten the intervals between the elementary grades. A circular upon this subject, recently published by the commissioner of education, shows that in the several elementary grades in public schools, up to and including the eighth grade. the half year interval is practiced by nearly as many schools as the full year interval. The reasons for this are so apparent that it is unnecessary to spend time in stating them.

The other question involved in our subject is concerning the part which set and formal written examinations should play in determining each individual pupil's promotion. Twenty-five years ago written examinations were urged by the leading educational men of the country, and the introduction of that system effected great good. It promoted thoroughness and accuracy which had not before been possible. To-day, however, new issues have arisen, new measures are necessary. The set, formal, written examination has had its day. It has been carried to too great an extreme. The examinations have been made too difficult for children. The time taken by them has been too extended. The strain has been too great. We are now learning the important lesson that the written exercises rather than the formal written examinations should be more frequently introduced, and that, in fact, they should become part and parcel of the daily work in the several branches of

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study in elementary schools. Written examinations have their place and their special importance. They should be held at frequent intervals, and each one by itself should not be too difficult for the age and grade of the pupils.

Now the difficulty arises, what should be the relation between the written examination and the promotion of the pupil from grade to grade? For one, I believe that, especially in the lower grades, the written examination should play a very subordinate part; if, indeed, it should not be entirely discarded and the promotion be based wholly on the judgment of the teacher.

The question now presents itself: What shall be done with the poorer scholars; those who will fail to secure a proper fixed percentage in a written examination of the work passed over? In accordance with what has already been said, is it not sufficiently clear that the main question to be asked concerning the promotion of an individual pupil is this: Is he capable of taking the studies of the next grade with at least as much success as he has already taken the studies of this grade? Of course, we must not lose sight of the question: Will his presence in the next class to be a detriment to the progress of the class? If it will not, and ordinarily I believe this will prove to be true, then the sole question to be asked is: Will this pupil receive a greater benefit by being promoted than he will by being retained to go over the work of the present class again?

This question of examinations and promotions is one of administration and therefore depends principally upon judicious discrimination. But, there are some underlying principles by which all should be governed in the premises. They may be stated as follows:

1. The school is for the pupil and not for the teacher.
2. The end sought is the greatest good of the greatest number.
3. The chief characteristic of a good school may not necessarily be a high percentage in examination marks.
4. The whole subject should be treated, not as a matter affecting the class, as such, but as a matter of justice and right to each individual pupil.

If these several principles are borne in mind, there is little doubt but that written examinations will hereafter play a less conspicuous part in the promotion from grade to grade, and these promotions will be at more frequent intervals than heretofore.

HENRY A. WISE, Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Md.—The whole problem of securing good schools may be said to center in providing and sustaining good teachers. Written examinations made by the superintendent and conducted by the principals have been tried and have been found wanting. They do many things that should not be done and have failed to do many that should be done. They make the teacher a part of a vast piece of machinery and subordinate everything to examination. Before the close of the schools in June, 1892, the school board of Baltimore ordered that promotions, instead of being determined by written examinations, should be made upon the recommendation of the teachers, such recommendation being based upon the accomplishment of the work of the grade in such a manner that the pupils had acquired the knowledge and training necessary to enable them to undertake successfully the work of the next grade. The practical working of this plan, so far as the time for its trial has enabled us to judge, has been most satisfactory. It is impossible to give an examination, embracing only a few questions on each subject taught, to be answered in a short time, that will cover the work of the year or disclose the mental power of the pupils, and experience has convinced all who have tried this method that it results, with most teachers, in superficial methods of teaching and cramming, in the neglect of reading and oral instruction, and in giving to certain subjects a

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valuation entirely disproportionate to their worth. Arithmetical problems, parsing, the spelling of isolated uninflected words, with scarcely any effort to accomplish the main work to be done in teaching spelling—that of getting the pupils to spell the variations of ordinary words as modified by number, case, tense and comparison; geography, which means going over and over again the drill questions of the grade so that pupils may be able to gain a good mark at the examination. Educational work is in this respect like other work: when too much time is given to one thing it must be at the expense of something else. Teachers soon adapt themselves to the conditions under which they work, and if, in estimating what they do, we allow ourselves to be deceived by sham and commend it instead of genuine work, our teachers will gravitate almost unconsciously towards rote-teaching. The plan of promotion adopted by the board does not do away with the uses to which written examinations may be put. Teachers who know, from the daily instruction of their classes, what their pupils should be able to do, will continue to give such examinations from time to time during the year, to test by such exercises so far as such aid may be helpful in instruction and in enabling the teachers to judge of the attainments of their scholars, but the teachers will also (which is a most important matter to be considered) test their pupils quite as rigidly in reading, oral language, and in their ability to think, by means of examinations, which cannot be done on paper. In this way both oral and written exercises will be combined in testing the proficiency of the pupils, better teaching will be brought about, and far more satisfactory results secured. Nothing requires more industrious, searching and discreet supervision than a teacher's work, and when it is examined by those charged with the duty in such a way as to observe all that is being done, and to commend the good and point out and advise a remedy for the bad, then teachers will work up to a higher standard of excellence. Nothing is more delightful to a teacher than to have his work commended, and if by industrious examination we ascertain the parts of each teacher's work which may be justly commended, he will daily seek to make it worthy of praise in all respects. The teacher is daily finding out the attainments of each member of his class, and when the time arrives for promotion, is it not wise, if we would properly grade the schools and stimulate the scholars and honor the teachers, to avail ourselves of this knowledge? If the teacher knows that his opinion of his pupils, ascertained through daily contact with them in the class-room, is going to be the most important item in determining the question of promotion, will he not endeavor all the more faithfully to teach his class so that his work may have the greatest possible effect in getting his pupils ready for promotion? And will not the pupils, who know that their teacher decides upon their fitness for promotion, be more anxious to deserve their teacher's good opinion? And here I would say, that this point is entitled to careful consideration, as it is the tendency of the times to take from the teacher all power to enforce obedience and attention to duty, and to expect him to beguile his pupils into doing what he should have power to enforce, if necessary. Under our present system there is no doubt that our pupils are acquiring not only more knowledge than by the old method, but that they are acquiring vastly more power; and what is most desirable, our teachers are encouraged to use better methods of instruction.

SUPT. R. K. BUEHRLE, Lancaster, Pa.—Having to a large extent organized the systems of two cities, I trust I may be pardoned if I should speak rather dogmatically. We have organized our schools on the two-grade system for each teacher; that is, each teacher is in charge of about fifty pupils, arranged in two classes, each covering the work of about one year. In doing this we act on the principle that each school should, as nearly as may be, represent a home; that the

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pupil should know the teacher and her ways and the teacher should know the pupil. To acquire this knowledge requires time, and hence pupils should on an average not be promoted oftener than once in two years. We believe that the pupils in the second class learn much, sometimes even unconsciously, from the instruction given to the other.

We believe in examinations; not as an exclusive reliance for promotion, but as a help to teacher and pupil, a stimulus and corrective. Taking all the branches taught into account, we guard against failure because of weakness in a single branch. Unavoidable absence from examination does not debar from promotion. Judgment must be exercised with any method, and this we endeavor to do.

Another fundamental principle with us is, that the grade and the examination is to help the pupil, is made for the pupil; not the pupil for the grade or the examination. The question is never: Does the teacher think the pupil is fit? but Will the pupil on the whole get more good out of the grade above? If so, promote.

MR. JAMES L. HUGHES, Inspector of Schools, Toronto, Canada.—I object to examinations as a basis of promotion: First, because a pupil's promotion should depend on his capacity for higher work, not on his power of remembering and reporting what he remembers. Second, because examinations very imperfectly test investigative, conceptive, reflective and executive powers; and promotion should depend on these powers more than upon any others. Third, because no one but the teacher of a class can really fairly test the class for promotion by examinations. Fourth, and chiefly, because so long as promotions depend on examinations the educational ideal of both teachers and pupils will be low. Nothing else has degraded educational ideals so thoroughly and prevented the improvement of educational methods so much as the holding of examinations for promotion. The London teacher who said, on hearing that one of her pupils was dead, "Oh, well, he wouldn't have passed anyway!" was a terrible illustration of the degradation of the true ideal of making examinations the standard of success in teaching. As long as they remain so, teachers and pupils will naturally be satisfied with success in "passing."

Examinations are useful in guiding teachers in regard to the work they should teach, and in enabling them to test their work by the standard of their superior officers. They may be very suggestive, and as such should be given frequently; but not as a basis for promotion.

We take five elements into consideration in making promotions in Toronto, in the higher classes. In the lower classes the teacher's recommendation is the only basis, with a time limit beyond which a pupil must not remain in a class. These five elements are:

1. Examination results.
2. The age of the pupil.
3. The physical health of the pupil.
4. The length of time in the grade.
5. The pupil's capacity for taking new work, as shown by the progress made during the term.

Many pupils who cannot pass an examination are ready for advancement. Some pupils who pass the examination should not be advanced. Age and physical condition should always modify decisions based on the examination results.

I have known teachers to object to the promotion of pupils who had not worked hard enough in their classes. "You promote them because they have been lazy." "Yes; you have had them for a considerable time, and they have not learned to work earnestly with you. It is time they were placed in charge of another teacher who may be able to inspire them."

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The teacher's recommendation should be the chief basis for promotion, and in the primary classes pupils should be promoted as soon as they are ready for higher work. The new work of a higher class may be the needed cause to stimulate a boy to independent investigation. Brightness is usually dulled by being kept too long at the same kind of work.

PLANS OF ORGANIZATION FOR SCHOOL PURPOSES IN LARGE CITIES.

BY ANDREW S. DRAPER, SUPERINTENDENT OF INSTRUCTION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

Of all the unsolved and troublesome problems in government which present themselves to the minds of thoughtful Americans, the most prominent one is that of municipal administration in large cities. The news editors, the magazine writers, the good people in the literary and scientific clubs, the great body of honest voters throughout the country, discuss it perennially and then vote so ineffectually that the worst elements of society control the governments of the great cities of the Republic. It is a suggestive fact, that the only real progress in the direction of municipal reform has been made through the imposition of limitations upon the common suffrage, through taking away authority from the representatives of the people, through the centralization of power and responsibility in fewer individuals, and through statutory requirements and prohibitions upon public officers. It will continue to be so. Unintelligent voting is not wholly responsible for, nor is intelligent voting the cure for, all maladministration in municipal affairs. If honest voters will vote only for proved men for city officers, if they will be guided by business principles rather than by political preferences in all that pertains to municipal business, the problem of municipal reform will become solvable. But even then the larger the city the greater will be the necessity for statutory plans of organization, which centralize responsibility and direct and limit official action.

The most important public work of any community is providing and managing the means of popular education. The people may neglect municipal business, and the penalty is the plundering of the city treasury. In time, mismanagement and thievery become intolerable, there is a municipal revolution, the house is cleaned, a boodler or two indicted, the loss struck off, the plan of city government remodeled, and quiet and comparative indifference once more resume their sway. The people may neglect the schools, and permit them to be despoiled by thievery or degraded by place hunters, and the penalty is, not

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only a plundered treasury but a low and almost irredeemable tone of moral and intellectual life. Defective municipal organization and maladministration of municipal business can benefit only a very small number of individuals, while they affect the pockets and arouse the indignation of the multitude. Defective school organization and maladministration in school affairs are not only more far reaching and deadening in their influences, but more subtle and insidious in their manifestation. School boards lay larger claims to character, fitness and disinterestedness than aldermanic boards, and as a rule they are far more respectable and responsible. Occasionally they loot the treasury, but more commonly they do what is not technically so criminal but what is in effect really worse. The circumstances press them hard; the wrongs they do, or suffer to be done, are not so deep; their friends and not themselves get the benefit; they fail to appreciate or they deceive themselves about the harm that flows from their acts. The great element in school expenditures is the wages of the teachers. This one item amounts to $88,000,000 annually in the country. Of course, many people want to share in the distribution of this fund, and the less competent they are for the service the more intense is the desire for a share in the fund. Incompetency creeps in, and once in can scarcely be put out. The people do not understand what the incompetency of the teacher means or how it burdens school work, and, competent or incompetent, the teacher has a large hold upon popular sympathy. The result is deadening and disastrous. Under such circumstances the standard of popular education becomes low, and the intellectual life of the people of the city lacks purity, virility and power. Little is demanded of and not much given by the schools. There is little strength and no growth. The more intelligent will not patronize them and the whole structure of public education is weakened and falls into disrepute. Even those who have been in them become indifferent to them. And when the people, the body of the citizenship of the country, high and low, rich and poor alike, are without affection for or come to lack confidence in the public schools. the circumstances will be hard and the outlook very much obscured.

The volume of municipal business enlarges, the magnitude of the transactions becomes more and more appalling, the subjects presented more and more involved, the temptations become greater, and dishonesty more and more difficult of detection as cities increase in population, even out of proportion to the advance in population. As it becomes more and more imperative to have strong men, experienced men and honest men to manage the business of great cities, it also becomes, for obvious reasons, more and more difficult to secure them upon the basis of an unrestricted suffrage. It is therefore meet that

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the best thought of the country should be turned, as it is turned, to plans for the government of cities.

And what is true of municipal business in great and growing cities is true in still larger degree of their school business. The proper education of the children is infinitely more important than even the management of the street, fire and police departments of such cities. And in view of the marked extent to which our people are congregating in cities, it is well for us to remember, that if the public school system is to hold the confidence and esteem of the country it must hold the confidence and esteem of the cities, and to do that it must bear fruits worthy of confidence and esteem.

So here is the pressing question of the day in public school work, one which goes to the very life of the system. It *will* be solved *because* it is one which goes to the life of the system.

The following table showing the development of American cities will indicate the scope of the question under consideration:

TABLE SHOWING GROWTH OF AMERICAN CITIES

Census.	8,000 to 12,000	12,000 to 20,000	20,000 to 40,000	40,000 to 75,000	75,000 to 125,000	125,000 to 250,000	250,000 to 500,000	500,000 to 1,000,000	1,000,000 to 1,100,000	More than 1,500,000	Total.	Per cent of Total Population in Cities of more than 8,000.
1790	1	3	1	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	6	3.3
1800	1	.....	3	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	6	3.9
1810	4	2	3	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	11	4.9
1820	3	4	2	2	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	13	4.9
1830	12	7	3	1	1	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	26	6.7
1840	17	11	10	1	3	1	1	.....	.....	.....	44	8.5
1850	36	20	14	7	3	3	1	1	.....	.....	85	12.5
1860	62	34	23	12	2	5	1	2	.....	.....	141	16.1
1870	92	63	39	14	8	3	5	2	.....	.....	226	20.9
1880	110	76	55	21	9	7	4	3	1	.....	286	22.5
1890	147	111	86	33	10	14	6	1	2	1	411	29.4

The plan of organization,—that is, the number of members of the board of education, the manner in which they are chosen, the powers of the board, the way in which the work is divided, the means which are afforded for carrying on the different departments, the purpose and intent of the whole scheme,—this does not constitute all there is of school administration in large cities, but it lies at the root and permeates the life of the whole system. Upon it all the operations of the system must be predicated. If the plan is wise, evil tendencies find large obstacles, and sound and fruitful administration is comparatively easy; if unwise, the floodgates of wrong doing are wide open, and good, healthful, life-giving school work is practically impossible.

While there have been two or three contributions to the literature of this subject by notable individuals and an authoritative declaration

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upon it by the National Council of Education, still it cannot be said that it has had the serious attention of the country, or even of the educational leaders of the country, or that very much has been done concerning it.

In 1883 Dr. J. L. Pickard read a paper before the National Educational Association entitled, "City Systems of Management of Public Schools," which, like all of Dr. Pickard's work, is characterized by much information and deep thought upon the subject. He concludes his paper by recommending small boards of education, having long terms of service, subject to no party in politics or religion, with large powers, including the power to determine the amount of money to to be raised for school purposes. He divides the school work into two departments, and styles one the business side and the other the instructive side, and would have the school board "confined largely to the business side," with power to select a good leader in the work of instruction, who should be secure in position so long as merit warrants, and leave to him the fullest freedom within the pecuniary limits their business sagacity determines as proper." He undoubtedly hit upon the essential elements of an ideal plan, but left it for someone else to treat of details and methods of carrying it into execution.

In 1885 Dr. John D. Philbrick prepared for the Bureau of Education his notable report on "City School Systems in the United States." The general value of this able and exhaustive document can hardly be overestimated, but it was a report of facts as they existed rather than an argument with a view to changes. After briefly describing the plans of organization in operation in the leading cities, he, however, says: "The history of city systems of schools makes it evident, that in the matter of administration the tendency is towards a greater centralization and permanency of authority, and that this tendency is in the direction of progress and improvement."

The Committee on City Schools of the National Council of Education has from time to time reported on the general subject in their charge. In 1888 the report treated of the "Business Side of City School Systems." This report related to the plans of organization, and was the most detailed, thoughtful and progressive treatment of the subject that has appeared. It was drafted by Dr. B. A. Hinsdale, and is characterized by his well-known studiousness, force and directness. Its conclusions, briefly stated, were: (1) That there is no good reason for giving school authorities separate autonomy and the power to determine the sum of money to be levied for school purposes, any more than there is for giving it to the street, park, police or fire department. (2) That the powers of the board should be "partly legislative, as in the adoption of studies, books and rules; partly

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executive, as in the election of teachers, and partly judicial, as in handling cases of discipline." (3) That, if the board is chosen by popular election, it might better be by wards than on a general ticket; but that, on the whole, appointment by the mayor would be preferable to election. (4) That the terms of members of the board should be lengthened. (5) That the board should not attempt to transact its business either through its own members or committees, but acting as a legislative body should establish three executive departments, viz.: (a) a department of finance, accounts and records, (b) a department of construction, repairs and supplies, (c) a department of instruction and discipline; and that the heads of these respective departments should be experts in the duties appertaining thereto and "the sole channels of executive administration within their several limits." (6) That a board holding the executive duties in its own hands should be small, while one that delegated them, as suggested, might as well be of considerable size.

The members of the Council proceeded to certify to the ability of the report and then attempted to demolish its several propositions. Beyond the declaration of Dr. Pickard, that as cities grow larger the boards of education should be reduced in the number of members, given longer terms and larger powers, and in some way freed from the influence of politics, there has been no agreement upon the subject among the prominent school men of the country. This is not strange, the nature of the question being such as to permit of solution only on the field of experience and by reason of necessity.

So much as to what has been said. The following table will indicate to some extent what has been *done* in the twenty-eight cities of the country having each more than 100,000 inhabitants:

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TABLE SHOWING WHAT HAS BEEN DONE IN TWENTY-EIGHT CITIES, HAVING EACH MORE THAN 100,000 INHABITANTS

City.	Population, Census of 1890.	What Authority Determines the Amount to be Raised for School Purposes?	Members of School Board.	How Chosen.	Term of Members in Years.	From Entire City, Ward or Sub-district.	Superintendent—How Chosen.	Superintendent's Term in Years.	Number of Asst. Supts.	No. Supvisors of Methods.	Do Principals Supervise Methods.	How Teachers Appointed.	How Teachers Certificated.
New York	1,513,501	Board of estimate	21	Mayor	3	City	Board	2	8	0	Yes	*a* Ward trust's	Superintendent.
Chicago	1,098,501	School board and city council	21	Mayor and city council	3	City	Board	1	8	*b* 0	Yes	Board	Board.
Philadelphia	1,044,894	City council	37	City judges	3	Wards	Board	1	8	0	Yes	Dist. bds.	Board.
Brooklyn	804,377	Board of estimate and city council	45	Mayor	3	City	Board	3	2	0	Yes	(*f*)	Superintendent.
St. Louis	450,245	Fixed by charter	21	*c* Elected	4	⅓ city ⅔ w'ds	Board	3	3	6	Yes	(*g*)	Supt. and asst's.
Boston	448,477	City council	24	Elected	3	City	Board	2	0	6	Yes	Board	Superintendent & supervisors.
Baltimore	433,547	City council	23	City council	4	Wards	Board	4	1	0	Yes	Board	Superintendent.
San Francisco	297,990	City council	12	Elected	2	City	Gen. election	4	1	12	Yes	Board	Bd. of examiners.
Cincinnati	296,309	Board of education	30	Elected	2	Wards	Board	2	0	0	Yes	Supt. & bd	Bd. of examiners.
Cleveland	261,546	City tax commission	(*d*)	Elected	2	City	Dir. & council	(*h*)	1	4	In part	Supt	Bd. of examiners.
Buffalo	254,457	City council	(*e*)				Elected on city ticket at gen. election	3	0	4	Yes	Supt	Bd. of examiners.
New Orleans	241,995	City council	20	12 by city council, 8 by state bd. of ed.	4	Districts	Board	4	0	0	No	Board	Board.
Pittsburgh	238,473	Board of education	37	District boards	3	Districts	By 222 loc. dir.	3	0	0	Yes	Dist. dir't's	Superintendent.
Washington	228,160	Congress	9	District comnrs.	3	Districts	Dist. comnrs	(*h*)	0	11	No	Local trust's	Local trustees.
Detroit	205,669	City council	16	Elected	4	Wards	Board	3	0	1	Yes	Board	Board.
Milwaukee	204.150	City council	36	By com'n council	3	Wards	Board	2	1	0	Yes	Board	Board.
Newark	181,518	Board of education	30	Elected	2	Wards	Board	1	0	0	Yes	Board	Com. on teachers and supt.
Minneapolis	164,738	Board of tax levy	7	Elected	6	City	Board	3	0	1	Yes	Supt & bd	Superintendent.
Jersey City	163,978	Board of finance	7	Mayor	2	Districts	Board	3	0	0	Yes	Board	Board.
Louisville	161,005	Legislature	24	Elected	2	Wards	Board	3	0	0	Yes	Board	Bd. of examiners.
Omaha	139,520	Board of education	15	Elected	5	City	Board	3	0	0	Yes	Board	Com. of board.
Rochester	138,327	City council	20	Elected	2	Wards	Board	2	0	0	Yes	Board	Supt., after 1 yr. in train'g class.
St. Paul	133,156	City council	7	Mayor	3	City	Board	2	0	7	Yes	Board	Com. of bd. and supt.
Kansas City	132,416	Board of education	6	Elected	3	City	Board	1	1	4	In part	Board	State and county supts.
Providence	132,099	City council	33	Elected	3	Wards	Board	1	0	2	No	Board	Superintendent.
Denver	126,186	Board of education	6	Elected	2	City	Board	(*h*)	0	0	Yes	Board	Superintendent.
Indianapolis	107,445	Board of education	11	Elected	3	Districts	Board	1	1	8	No	Supt. & bd	Superintendent.
Alleghany	104,967	Board of education	78	Elected	1, 2 and 3	Wards	Board	3	0	0	Yes	Board	Superintendent.

NOTES.—(*a*) In New York and Pittsburgh, and possibly one or two other instances, there are also ward or district trustees, elected by the people, who have certain functions in connection with the Board of Education. (*b*) The term "supervisor of methods" is not here meant to include instructors in special branches, such as music, drawing, etc. It is probable that in many cities the duties of assistant superintendents and supervisors are similar. (*c*) The word "elected" here means elected by the people, either on a general city ticket or by the residents of wards or districts, as indicated under another head. (*d*) One director and school council of seven members. (*e*) No school board. City board of aldermen has charge of schools. (*f*) By committees of the board. (*g*) Board, on recommendation of superintendent. (*h*) Unlimited.

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In eight of these cities the board of education alone determines the sum to be raised for school purposes. In seventeen of them it is determined by the city council or by some other city board; in two by the State legislature, and in one by congress.

Wherever there have been changes in the plan of organization the tendency has been towards smaller boards.

In New York, Brooklyn, Jersey City and St. Paul members of the school boards are appointed by the mayors alone; in Chicago by the mayor and city council; in Philadelphia by city judges; in Baltimore and Milwaukee by the city councils; in Pittsburgh by district directors; in Washington by commissioners of the District of Columbia; in Buffalo there is no school board, and the common council, or a committee thereof, with the superintendent elected by the people, control the schools; in the other cities named, the school boards are elected by the people.

In eleven cities the boards stand for the city at large; in fifteen cities members represent wards or districts; in one, some members represent the whole city and in others certain districts thereof.

In twenty-four cities the superintendent is chosen by the board, and in twenty-five of them he has a fixed term of office from one to four years. In two he is elected at a general city election, and in three his term is unlimited. In one he is elected by 222 district directors.

In four of these cities there are district or ward trustees, who share administration with the central board of education.

In two cities the teachers are appointed by the superintendent alone; in seventeen by the board alone; in four by the joint action of the superintendent and board; in one by committees of the board, and in four of them by local trustees.

In twelve the superintendent certificates teachers; in seven it is done by the board; in two by joint action; in five by separate boards of examiners, ordinarily appointed by the board of education; in one by local trustees; in one by the State and county superintendents.

The only recent and important change in the plan of organization in any one of these twenty-eight large cities has taken place at Cleveland, Ohio. That change is so very decided and radical that it justifies more than passing notice.

The movement did not originate with, and, as I am informed, was not favored by the former board of education. It resulted from a movement for reform in the city government, to effect which a bill had been presented to the legislature framed upon what has come to be called the "Federal Plan," with a mayor as the chief executive and a city council endowed only with legislative powers, and single-headed departments of administration, with the chief of each

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appointed by, and amenable to, the mayor. While this measure was pending, several gentlemen drafted a bill, upon the same general plan as the municipal bill, for the reformation of the government of the schools. It may be of interest to us to know that the school bill was prepared by four men, three of them lawyers, of whom one was then upon the bench; the fourth was president of one of the city banks. In previous years the bank president had considerable experience, and had rendered valued service in the school board, and one of the others also had at one time been a member of the board. While all were men of affairs, they were not connected with the school system, they claimed no expert or professional knowledge of schools, and they made their bill without the assistance of school superintendents or the aid of the volumes of Proceedings of the National Educational Association.

They pushed their bill aggressively. The school board was composed of twenty members, elected by districts. It was insisted that this system worked badly; that members were bullied by constituents to procure special favors for individuals or the districts they represented, and naturally reflected this spirit and disposition in the board. It was said that buildings were unwisely located, certain contractors favored, and, worse than all else, that teachers who were unfit were continually appointed in the schools. The school government was administered by innumerable committees, and nobody could be found who was responsible for what was done. It was urged that, while municipal reform was a good thing, it was vastly more important to the life and future prosperity of the city that there should be reform in the management of the schools than in the care of the streets or the control of the police of the city. It is well known throughout the country that for many years the common sentiment of the city of Cleveland has been very jealous of the management and care of the schools of that city. This sentiment came promptly and strongly to the support of the school bill. Interested persons were able, however, to delay its passage for a year after the municipal reform bill became a law. But in the meantime sentiment rapidly consolidated in its favor, all the newspapers demanded its passage, and the current was irresistible. It became a law in 1892.

And what is the plan of this law? First, it creates a school director and a school council of seven members, together constituting the board of education, all elected by the people on general ticket at city elections. The director's term is for two years; and that of the members of the council is also for two years, but a portion retire each year.

The director receives a salary of $5,000 per annum, and is required to devote his entire time to the duties of his office; the members of

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the council serve without salary. The director is the business manager and chief executive officer of the system. He is required to give bond in the sum of $25,000 for the faithful discharge of his duties. Legislative power is vested in the council. The director sits in the council, and may speak, but cannot vote. Every act of the council must be by formal resolution, and all acts involving "an expenditure of money or the approval of a contract for the payment of money, or for the purchase, sale, lease or transfer of property, or levying any tax, or for the change or adoption of any text-book" must be presented to the director, and his written approval gives it binding effect. If he disapproves, he returns it to the council with his reasons. If repassed by a two-thirds vote the act is valid without his signature. If he fails to return it to the council, it also becomes valid; otherwise it fails to become effective. All contracts are made by the director; but if the expense involved is more than $250, the contract must be approved by the council. The city auditor is the auditor of the board of education and keeps all accounts, and upon the proper certificates draws warrants for and supervises the settlement of all bills. The director certifies all accounts arising in his office; the superintendent certifies the teachers' salaries. The result of this is that the director manages all details on the business side of the administration of the schools, and the superintendent on the instructive side; but large or unusual transactions must first be specially authorized by vote of the council. All resolutions levying a tax must be approved by the board of tax commissioners of the city.

The council authorizes the employment of a superintendent of buildings, janitors, and other officers and employes, but they are appointed by the director, are under his direction, and are removable by him. The law and the public holds him responsible for their efficiency and proper behavior.

The council also appoints the members of the free public library board, and the help of this beneficent institution is therefore brought to the support of the public schools.

It was evidently the determination of the people, as certainly as it was of the projectors of this school law, that the whole work of instruction should be completely separated from the management of the business affairs of the schools, and that no antagonistic influences should be permitted to come in the way of its being carried on with the greatest possible advantage to the children of the city.

To effect this, it was provided that a superintendent of instruction should be appointed by the director, with the approval of the council, whose tenure should be during good behavior, and who should be removable by the director only for sufficient cause, which he is

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required to specify and enter upon the records of his office and communicate to the council.

It was also provided by law that the superintendent should "have the sole power to appoint and discharge all assistants and teachers authorized by the council to be employed." This authorization is, in practice, given in general resolutions adopted prior to the summer vacation, covering the whole number of teachers likely to be needed during the next school year and fixing the general schedule of salaries. It is the policy to make the number large enough to cover the outside number of teachers likely to be required, so as to avoid the necessity of amendment, with the understanding that only the required number will be appointed.

There is no more connection between this general legislative act and appointment of teachers than there is between the passage of the general appropriation bill by congress and the appointment of clerks in the United States Bureau of Education.

No pampering or promising, either directly or by inference, can become necessary to secure the passage of this general resolution, and under it the superintendent first makes appointments and later assignments to particular positions. The mass of appointments is made prior to the summer vacation; the assignment to positions just prior to the opening of the schools in the fall. He may make changes or reassignments at any time during the year, and does so freely whenever it may seem to be for the good of the service; the pay of each position to which a teacher may be assigned is determined by the schedule of salaries.

It is not for me to enlarge upon the advantages of this plan of organization for school purposes; the results are in large measure yet to be attained. It is not for me to say that it is ideal. I do not think it is. The fact that the director and members of the council are elected at a general city election, and that their choice is, therefore, to some extent, made an issue between political parties, is unfortunate, but one very difficult to obviate. The projectors of the measure undertook to obviate it through a special election, but surrendered the point in the interest of economy and in order to make the passage of the bill more certain. But it is a new plan. It is radical in its innovations. There is nothing else like it in the country. It came from the best and most substantial thought of a great city, which has deep interest in its public schools. It is supported and upheld by the public opinion of that city, without reference to religious or political divisions, and, of course, it is so administered. It is in the direction of, if it does not go beyond, what has been advised by the best educational thought of the country. It confers authority, and it specializes and centralizes responsibility. If a building is in unsanitary con-

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dition the director must remedy it with alertness, or answer for it. If a teacher lacks strength or acts badly, it is charged up to the account of the superintendent. One thing is certain, and it may well be said thus early, it insures sharp attention to the business of the schools at every point of the system and along all the lines of their work. It necessitates close attention to all the business interests of the schools. It involves close supervision of instruction; it puts all teachers upon the merit basis and sets them at work; it harmonizes and solidifies the force; it rewards competency, faithfulness and individual growth, and it drives indifference and mediocrity to the wall. How long will it endure? It is not for me to predict. That will depend largely upon the spirit, the wisdom, and the strength with which it is administered.

It may be observed that in the preparation of this paper I have not been disposed to speculate or to argue. It has seemed best to suggest the importance of the subject, and point out what has been said and what has been done concerning it. The review gives me gratification, that the trend of thought is unmistakably in the right direction, and confidence that such steps as should be taken to maintain the integrity of the public school system will be taken when imperative, even in the greatest cities where the circumstances are so forbidding and the difficulties which encompass the system are so appalling. The substantial sentiment of the people will come to the help of the public school system when the outlook is the darkest; and when it comes, it will be exerted with effectiveness.

In the meantime, it is incumbent on us to understand the general principles upon which the good government of the schools in great cities rests, and to declare the lines upon which reforms must proceed.

These are, in my opinion:

1. The elimination of politics from the selection of school boards. Dr. Philbrick rightly characterized this point as "the supreme educational problem," but we will not cease hoping that it may be solved. Special school elections and appointments by public officers do not offer a complete solution, but they are certainly in that direction. Much depends upon the state of public sentiment, which should at least demand the complete elimination of politics from school administration, if not from school elections, and no opportunity should be lost for asserting the principle.

2. Small school boards with members representing the whole city and not wards or districts.

3. The complete separation of school administration from municipal business. This is imperative. Laws which put the schools at the mercy of a board of aldermen are unsound in principle and deplorable

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in their operation. Even the determination of the sum to be levied for school purposes should not be left to a common council which, by legislation and by usage, has come to represent, and has become representative of, interests not in harmony or sympathy with school administration. If there is a finance board or tax commission which receives estimates from all sources and finally determines the amount to be levied, it is not so objectionable that the school estimates should go with the others to this board; for such a board may be assumed to be independent of all special interests and representative of the best sentiment of the whole city. But the only sound rule is that school administration shall be entirely independent of municipal business. The two do not rest upon the same foundation; the power which manages each proceeds from entirely different sources, and the object and purposes of each have nothing in common.

4. The school system of a great city must not only have an autonomy of its own, but its administration must be departmentalized. Material affairs should be entirely separated from the work of instruction. Officers must have ample authority, be properly paid for services of high grade, and held to personal accountability. If there is cause for complaint, there should be a place to make the complaint and an officer who can neither shift nor shirk responsibility. The Cleveland plan, which creates a salaried officer directly responsible to the people for the proper care of all their school property and for the proper management of all the business affairs of their school system, is in that regard, at least, very nearly ideal. It is economical and businesslike. It will secure a responsible man, and it will insure the alert and careful administration of business interests. All subordinates and employes are amenable to him and to him alone. The man will not only have responsibility, but he will have independence and self-respect as well. The superintendent of instruction should not be burdened with any of the material interests of a great school system or with keeping records or accounts relating thereto; but should be chosen with special reference to the work of instruction, and in that department should likewise have full authority, be given ample assistance, and charged with complete responsibility. Such responsibility is well nigh overwhelming. To secure a teaching force numbering hundreds or thousands of individuals, all of whom are capable and have individuality and teaching power, and to so organize them as to get the best results from each, and then to lead and feed them so that there will be harmony, enthusiasm, growth, and continually increasing power, is a great undertaking, but under proper conditions it is not altogether impossible of accomplishment. Where teachers are appointed by school boards or committees, or members thereof, or by ward or district trustees, its accomplishment is impos-

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sible. If superintendents are only allowed to nominate, and nominations are to be confirmed by a board or committee, other elements than the fitness of the candidate will of necessity be taken into consideration. If a superintendent cannot dismiss teachers, or change them about, as exigencies may require and experience suggest, without being obliged to advise with and secure the approval of boards or members who are looking for votes or who are anxious to please friends and have no appreciation of the importance and delicacy of the questions involved, he will not do it at all. We all know that this is so, and we all know why it is so. We all know, also, that there is no danger of his doing too much in the right direction. This is no reflection upon superintendents. To expect otherwise would be to expect more than that of which human nature is capable. Comparatively few men have all the elements which adapt them to such service, and those who have can accomplish their undertaking only when given a position of such power, responsibility and dignity as will give them the undisputed right of leadership and will command the respect of their associates and subordinates and of the body of the people.

These are the lines, as it seems to me, upon which reforms in the administration of the school systems of great cities must proceed. Such reforms should proceed more easily when we remember that schools do not belong wholly and alone to the communities in which they exist, but are parts of a State system which derives its existence and character from State legislation, and that the whole subject is one which claims the attention of all the reformers and the foremost statesmen in the country; for it is one which goes not alone to the material well-being, but to the intellectual life and the public security of the city, the State and the Republic.

SUPERVISION OF CITY SCHOOLS.

BY SUPT. W. H. MAXWELL, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

I propose to speak, first, of the supervision of a school by its principal; second, of the supervision of a system of schools by a superintendent; third, of the conditions necessary to make any system of supervision thoroughly effective; and fourth, of what the National Department of Superintendence may do to improve the work of supervision and to establish it on a rational basis.

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I.—THE SUPERVISION OF A SCHOOL BY ITS PRINCIPAL.

The principal of a school ought to be held to a strict responsibility, within certain well-defined lines, for the administration of the school or schools placed under his direction. He has duties to perform toward his pupils and those in parental relation to them, toward subordinate teachers, and toward his immediate official superior, the superintendent.

He should, in the first place, be an expert in school sanitation. It may not be well to place in the hands of a principal the power to expend money to make repairs or alterations in the school building, but he should know when the condition of the building is not right, and should make life a burden to those who have the power until defects are remedied. He should have a keen eye to discover physical weaknesses in children, such as myopia or astigmatism of the eyes, or nervous disorders, and should be skilled to take measures of prevention, if not of cure. Equally keen should be his discernment of intellectual and moral defects, such as a poor memory, lack of constructive ability, lying, dishonesty, and the like; and in all such cases it is his duty to devise, if possible, a course of educational treatment to cure the disease. He should endeavor, with the aid of his teachers, to discover particular aptitudes and talents in his pupils, and should advise with pupils and their parents as to the most fruitful course of educational work. I do not refer in this connection merely to the power that ought to be vested in the principal of permitting and encouraging bright pupils to advance more rapidly than their duller companions. That the principal ought to possess and to exercise this power will be conceded. I refer more particularly to the duty of advising as to whether, for instance, a boy should stop going to school at the end of the grammar school course, as it may be better for many boys to do; or whether he should go on through the high school and then through college; or whether he should go to the literary high school or to the manual training high school. It is perhaps doubtful if a principal has a more important duty toward society than this. Socialists and communists, and many who are not socialists as the term is commonly understood, and who are not communists, complain of the dreadful inequalities in the distribution of wealth. They point to the extremes of poverty and wealth, and denounce the conditions of society which gave them birth or which permits them to exist. The discontent engendered finds vent in all sorts of ridiculous and impossible schemes, from a prohibitory tariff to absolute free trade, from the nationalization of land to an enforced equal division of wealth. But it may well be doubted whether inequalities in the distribution of wealth work as much evil as inequalities in the distribution of talent. It is not at all improbable even that the

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wrong distribution of wealth may be in no small degree due to the wrong distribution of talent. There are college professors who ought certainly to be making shoes or building fences; there are shoemakers who have by nature all the mental and moral qualities to fit them for college professorships. There are principals of schools who ought to be selling ribbons; there are men selling ribbons who ought to be principals of schools. There are men in the pulpit who ought to be driving reaping machines; there are men driving reaping machines who ought to be in the pulpit. What a change there would be, not merely in the distribution of wealth, not merely in the increase in the product of labor, but in the happiness, the morality, the general well-being of mankind, if every man could be set to that kind of work which he can do best. There is no man in the community who can do so much to insure the right distribution of talent as the schoolmaster, if he will but study his pupils and give honest advice to parents. High schools, colleges, and professional schools of all kinds, might be saved from the weary and impossible task of endeavoring to educate the unfitted or the incompetent, if principals and teachers would seek earnestly to discover the special bents of their pupils' minds and advise their education along appropriate lines.

Toward the teacher, the principal's duties are manifold. He should know the plan of work in every class. He should know exactly what every teacher is teaching and how she is teaching it. These two things he may find out by inspection and examinations; not stated examinations, but sporadic tests used as elements in teaching. The principal who has to wait to the end of the month or the end of the term to determine by a written examination whether a given stint of work has been accomplished is lazy and inefficient. The stated monthly examination by the principal is probably responsible for more machine teaching, more injurious cramming, than all other causes combined. The only proper way for a principal to find out what and how his teachers are teaching is by the diligent exercise of his eyes and his ears. He should inspect by listening to recitations and by examination of the pupils' written work in language and other subjects. I have known the language work of a large school to be revolutionized in a few weeks by the principal's requiring his teachers to send to his office the children's written exercises, after they had been corrected but before they were returned to the writers. The principal's inspection should be hourly—daily. In it, or in allied work, he should spend his entire time during school hours. When we consider that a principal is required to work only five hours a day five days in the week during about nine months in the year, it is not too much to ask that all such labor as preparation for school

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exercises, the keeping of the records, and the like, should be done outside of the regular school hours.

"The ever present question, which the principal should seek to determine," says Colonel Parker, "should be: Are these pupils doing that work in the most economical manner, which is immediately needed by them for their growth and development?" This question the principal should seek to determine, not only absolutely with regard to the work of each teacher with her class, but also relatively with regard to the teachers above her and the teachers below her. I know a system of schools where each pupil passes through fifteen grades in as many half years and receives instruction from as many teachers. The child receives his knowledge of arithmetic, for example, at the hands of fifteen teachers. It goes without saying, that in passing through this course, in changing from one teacher to another, much time is lost, much energy is wasted. It is one of the most important duties of the principal to reduce this waste to a minimum, by taking care that the change is made with as little friction as possible and by unifying the work of all his teachers in each subject of the course. The principal should see to it that all the studies in any given grade are properly correlated; that the energy of the pupil is not deviated from the line of least resistance every time he changes teachers.

But if economy of energy in attaining given results be the object which the principal should have in view, and if inspection and frequent oral examination are the means by which he is to determine what and how his teachers are teaching, what are the means by which he is to correct faults, to institute better methods, and to stimulate enthusiasm? The chief means are three:

1. Private criticism: pointing out to a teacher privately—never in the presence of others—what her shortcomings are and how they may be amended. The principal who reports against a teacher without having, first, made himself thoroughly familiar with the defects in her work, and, secondly, having given her abundant warning, criticism and assistance, is dishonest, as well as a coward.

2. The second means by which a principal may improve the work of his teachers is by giving model lessons. As Colonel Parker well says: "A principal should be thoroughly capable of giving model lessons in every grade in his school and upon every subject taught."

3. The third means is the teachers' meeting. The principal's meetings should be of two kinds: (1) The general meeting of all the teachers in the school; (2) special meetings with teachers by grades.

The general meeting should be devoted partly to the discussion of general questions of discipline, promotion, and the like, that concern all the teachers, and partly to the discussion of fundamental prin-

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ciples of education and clothing these principles with concrete illustrations. The best way to conduct such a meeting I believe to be that by which John Stuart Mill, George Grote and their associates studied logic and political economy. "Our first subject," says Mr. Mill, "was political economy. We chose some systematic treatise as our text-book; my father's 'Elements' being our first choice. One of us read aloud a chapter, or some smaller portion of the book. The discussion was then open, and any one who had an objection, or other remark to make, made it. Our rule was to discuss thoroughly every point raised, whether great or small, prolonging the discussion until all who took part were satisfied with the conclusion they had individually arrived at; and to follow every topic of collateral speculation which the chapter or the conversation suggested, never leaving it until we had untied every knot which we found. We repeatedly kept up the discussion of some one point for several weeks, thinking intently on it during the intervals of our meetings and contriving solutions of the new difficulties which had arisen in the last morning's discussion." If the discussion of sound works on pedagogy and psychology were carried on in this manner, under the direction of a thoughtful, energetic principal, each teacher would almost necessarily become a thinker and a discoverer of truth. Until a teacher has learned to think for herself and to discover truth for herself, she will not be able to teach her pupils to think and to discover truth for themselves. If, on the other hand, the principal conducts these meetings by assigning lessons to be studied and recited, as by a class of pupils, he is probably doing nothing more than setting a conspicuous example of bad teaching, and disgusting his teachers with the study of professional literature.

The grade meeting, on the other hand, should be for the consideration of plans of teaching. To make this work effective and of permanent value, or, if it be inefficient and valueless, to prove its worthlessness, there should be kept a grade book for each grade, in which would be entered complete outlines of the work in each subject and suggestions as to methods. If this book is kept systematically, if the results of experiment are carefully noted down, if whatever is found to be faulty in method is so marked and a better plan substituted, the book becomes the most valuable manual of work for the teacher. The time has gone by when it was thought necessary to have teaching done in a uniform manner, in accordance with a manual issued from the superintendent's office. The grade manual would be prepared by the teachers of the grade, under the supervision of the principal, would not be printed, and could be amended whenever new light were thrown either on the subject or on the method.

Other ways there are, no doubt, of improving teacher's work. Commissioner Harris has pointed out somewhere that the art of turn-

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ing a poor teacher into a good teacher is a heaven-sent gift which some principals possess, but which is often impossible to explain. But these three methods—private criticism, the giving of model lessons and teachers' meetings (general meetings and grade meetings)—are means that ought to be employed by all principals.

Toward the superintendent, the principal has duties to perform as well as toward his subordinate teachers. These I have not time to more than mention. They are at least four:

(1) To carry out faithfully and to the best of his ability all rules and orders. An army of teachers can no more be managed without rules and orders than an army of soldiers.

(2) To try such experiments as the superintendent may request and to report faithfully the results. In this way the principal becomes the most efficient aid to the superintendent either in bringing into general use a good method or in preventing the spread of a bad method.

(3) To report to the superintendent every new idea or device that he (the principal) has found to work well in his school, so that the superintendent may carry it to other schools.

(4) Lastly, and perhaps most important of all, at stated intervals, the principal should report faithfully, honestly, and without fear or favor, on the efficiency of every teacher under his charge. When a teacher is too ignorant or too indifferent to do effective work, when she is beyond the reach of supervision, it is the duty of the principal to say so firmly and manfully, and then if the superintendent finds the principal's judgment correct, the inefficient teacher should be removed.

In all this work belonging to the principal, there is one danger he is peculiarly liable to fall into—the danger of training his teachers to be, or of permitting them to become, mere machines. Against this peril he must be constantly on his guard. When it becomes, or threatens to become, a real peril, it is one of the first duties of the superintendent to step in and secure to the class-teacher that reasonable liberty of thought and action without which no teacher can be effective, no system of schools can be progressive.

II.—SUPERVISION OF A SYSTEM OF SCHOOLS BY A SUPERINTENDENT.

Turning now to the duties of the superintendent, we may find, I think, that they naturally fall into five divisions:

1. Duties in the matter of certificating teachers and preparing an eligible list from which appointments may be made.

2. Duties as an officer of what may be called administrative appeal.

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3. Duties in the way of improving the efficiency of teachers, and of guiding and directing the work of teaching.

4. Duties toward the board of education.

5. Duties toward the press and the public.

1. *Duties in the Matter of Certificating Teachers.* — Before this department it needs no argument to prove that teachers' licenses should be issued only by those who are themselves teachers. The determination of the qualifications of applicants for teachers' certificates is the most important work a superintendent has to perform. It is his business to see to it that no one is licensed as a teacher who has not had thorough scholastic training and who has not had thorough professional training and successful experience. The most important of these qualifications, however, in the first instance, is scholarship. Ignorance lies at the root of most of our bad teaching— most of our machine methods. If all teachers were well trained scholars, methods would very largely take care of themselves. I know of few more pitiable sights than to see a young girl who could not pass the entrance examination to any college of standing struggling to understand Sully's "Psychology," or endeavoring to thread the mysteries of Herbartian pedagogics. Scholarship, however, is but one thing. Final determination should come only after ample trial. In his efforts to raise the standard for entrance to the teachers' profession, the superintendent is confronted with three great obstacles: (1) The apathy of public sentiment, which is seldom aroused by anything short of corruption in a board of education; (2) the lack of cooperation among superintendents to maintain a high standard of examination; (3) political and personal pressure to give certificates to unworthy persons. If superintendents everywhere would endeavor to arouse public opinion on this subject of education, if they would strongly resist political and personal pressure, and if they would cooperate for the purpose of maintaining a high standard of examination, much might be done, through the granting of certificates, to raise the standard of scholarship among teachers.

2. *Duties as an Officer of Administrative Appeal.*—The superintendent should be the court of last resort to settle differences of opinion regarding the promotion of pupils and differences of opinion between principals and teachers, to determine all disputes regarding interpretation of the course of study, and to decide in all cases when difficulties arise regarding the admission of pupils to school or the transfer of pupils from one school to another. If the superintendent be clothed with these powers, it follows that he is the officer who should be charged with the direction of all the means employed to enforce compulsory education laws.

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3. *Duties in the Way of Improving the Efficiency of Teachers, and of Guiding and Directing the Work of Teaching.*—Coming now to my third division of the superintendent's duties, I find that the agencies at his disposal fall into three groups: (a) the examination of teachers for higher grades of certificates than the grade given at the initial examination; (b) the inspection and examination of classes followed by criticism and instruction to principals and teachers; (c) the holding of teachers' meetings. My own experience has taught me that the most effective way to induce the average teacher to study the principles of education and professional literature, is to establish several grades of certificates, each grade corresponding to a certain well-defined step in promotion. When each examination covers a definite area of the best professional literature, and when promotion to higher rank and higher pay depends on passing the examination, a stimulus to study and to work, which nothing else can give, is provided. Ten years ago, there was not a single book on principles and methods of education on the list of books supplied by the board of education of the city of Brooklyn. Ten years ago it would be safe to say that there was not ten per cent of the teachers who had ever read a professional book. To-day nearly every important professional book is supplied free to the teachers by the board of education. To-day it would be safe to say that there is not ten per cent of the 2,200 teachers in the city who are not making systematic studies in professional literature. The effect on class-room work, even though it is readily conceded that there is still a great deal of very poor teaching in the Brooklyn schools, has been most marked. These results are directly traceable, in my judgment, to the examinations established for the higher grades of teachers' certificates.

The inspection and examination of classes by the superintendent and his associates has given rise to much discussion and many conflicting theories. These theories, however, fall into two main divisions. One is that the object of inspection and examination is to determine what methods of teaching are employed; the other, that it is to determine results. The prevailing trend of opinion at the present time I believe to be, that the determination of results should be the chief, though not the only, object. Certain it is, that no superintendent who values the esteem of the profession or who desires the progress of the schools under his charge, would now think of writing out a series of methods of teaching and then bending all the influence of his office to have those methods practiced by every teacher. But even if no cast-iron system of methods be laid down, the mere inspection of teaching is a weapon of doubtful utility. I have read and heard much from very eminent persons in favor of the plan that would require the superintendent to sit in a class for two or three hours

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at a time, note all the good things and all the bad things he sees done, and afterwards award praise or censure as the case may require. My own experience is, that while there are cases in which this method of inspection may be employed to advantage, yet that such cases are very few. In the first place, many of the very best teachers go utterly to pieces, so to speak, when they are required to work under the superintendent's eye. The high-strung, nervous organization, the vivid imagination, the sympathetic nature, that make a teacher invaluable to pupils whose judgment she does not dread, prove her ruin in the presence of the critic who may have the power to blast her professional reputation. The coarse-grained teacher or the tricky teacher, on the other hand, is altogether likely to come off the best when measured by this sort of test. Again, the fact that a teacher shows an examiner a good method of teaching for an hour or two, is no guarantee that she uses this same method when he is absent. I have known teachers to prepare a few show lessons for exhibition, and when no critic or examiner was present to relapse into concert recitations and other machine-like devices. The average teacher, if the results of her work are not tested, will be careless as to what these results may be, and will do her work in the way that will interfere least with her comfort and convenience. If, on the other hand, the teacher feels that the results of her work may be tested at any moment, not only by the principal but by the superintendent, she will most certainly employ methods that will produce the results required. If the examiner calls for such results as are produced by "cram" and "routine," the teacher will inevitably use "cram" and "routine" methods. But if the examiner calls for developed power, the teacher will strive to develop power. I include, therefore, the examination of classes, either orally or by written test, not at stated intervals, not to determine promotions, but solely for the purpose of determining by results whether proper methods are in constant use, as one of the chief agencies in the hands of a superintendent either to elevate a school or to make known its deficiencies to both principal and teachers. That it is an infallible method no one will contend. Mistakes will often be made, but these may be avoided by supplementing examinations by inspection; inspection, however, that should appear not to be inspection. When the results are clearly not satisfactory, the superintendent should point out the fact to both principal and teacher; but in such a way that they will not feel themselves deprived of reasonable liberty of action. There is nothing more demoralizing to a system of schools than a superintendent who has a patent method of doing everything and who insists that everything shall be done in that way.

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To the rule that the superintendent's examination of classes should not be at stated intervals, and not to determine promotions, I would make one exception—an examination for promotion from the grammar schools to the high school. As it is the principal's duty to prevent the waste of the pupil's time and energy, by unifying the work of all the teachers of a school, so it is the business of the superintendent to prevent waste of time and energy by unifying the work of all the schools under his charge. That the superintendent's examination at the end of the grammar school course is the best means to secure this result I have not the slightest doubt. Such an examination, if it be, as I think it should, what President Hyde has well called a "comprehensive" examination, will influence the teaching throughout all the schools, and will compel children to acquire a comprehensive notion of each subject taught. One of the great dangers of the graded system, in which the pupil passes through the hands of so many teachers, is, that his knowledge of each subject will lie in his mind, not as a symmetrical whole, but in detached fragments. The review of each subject from the beginning, rendered necessary by a comprehensive examination, at least in a measure overcomes this difficulty and forces the child to see each part of a subject in its relations to the other parts and to the whole. This examination should never, however, be of such a cast-iron order that it will close the doors of the high school to those (a small minority) who never show to good advantage at an examination. In all such cases the class record may be safely taken as the guide.

In all of this work, the superintendent should endeavor to determine whether the principal is doing his full duty by the school. It is unfortunately true that there is a constant tendency for a man or woman who has nothing to do but to supervise the work of others to sink into laziness and a perfunctory discharge of routine duties. This fact of frail human nature is the chief justification for the interference on the part of the superintendent with the inside workings of a school.

Time does not permit me to treat as I should like the relations of the superintendent to the teachers' meeting. In the smaller cities doubtless much of what I have outlined as the work of the principal will devolve on the superintendent. In the large cities the superintendent should also hold teachers' meetings, but chiefly to supplement the work of the principals' meetings and of the voluntary conferences which the teachers should be encouraged to organize among themselves. From time to time the teachers should hear the voice of the superintendent on large comprehensive questions of school policy and educational work. He is a poor superintendent, indeed, who cannot stimulate to better work, to higher ideals and nobler

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aspirations. That the superintendent, however, in a city the size of Boston, let us say, should devote the greater part of his energy to the teaching of psychology, seems to me neither desirable nor possible. I am told, however, on high authority, that there are superintendents who make lecturing on psychology their chief work. It is only men who are peculiarly gifted who should undertake such a task, and even these should not undertake it except where the number of teachers to be reached is strictly limited. In a large city teachers must be called together by grades or sections; and the chief object of these meetings should be to remedy defects which the superintendent's investigations have shown to be general, or to introduce new work or new methods which have been found eminently successful when tried on a small scale. Suppose the superintendent discovers the work in some study in any given grade to be weak. He finds or invents what he believes to be a better way. How shall he introduce it? My method is this: I go to three or four teachers and principals in whose judgment I have confidence, and ask them to give the new way a trial, to discover the weak point in my plan, and to suggest improvements. At the end of the term I gather up the results. Next term, if the first experiment was successful, I enlarge the area of trial to say twenty schools. If the second trial be successful, I endeavor to assimilate and co-ordinate all the suggestions I have received, and then lay them before all the teachers of the grade at a teachers' meeting. This, however, is but the first step. Teachers receive from a lecture but a general notion of the work or the method to be undertaken. Their ideas of the details are always hazy and indistinct. They invariably see lions in the path that had not presented themselves to the instructor. The grade meeting, then, is but the introduction to individual instruction. This may be best accomplished by assembling the teachers in smaller groups of not more than ten or fifteen each. In these groups the superintendent should not lecture, but should talk freely with the teachers, and encourage them to state all their doubts and difficulties without reserve. He will thus be able to meet each objection squarely and distinctly as it arises, while all the teachers present will receive the benefit of the discussion and will probably learn more from each other than they do from the superintendent. I need scarcely add that the superintendent's conferences with principals should be frequent and systematic.

The next two divisions of my subject, the duties of the superintendent to the board of education and to the press and public, I shall not attempt to treat in the time at my disposal. Nor if I had the time could I add anything to what has been so well said on these subjects in the writings of Dr. Harris.

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I hasten, therefore, to say a single word on the conditions necessary to make any system of supervision thoroughly effective. These may be summed up in one word—responsibility. The teacher should be responsible for the work of her class to the principal, the principal should be responsible for his school to the superintendent, and the superintendent should be responsible for all the schools to the local authorities who pay the bills, and to the State, whose agent the city is in the management of schools. There is but one way to establish this responsibility. The superintendent must be made the sole authority in licensing teachers, the principal must be permitted to select his subordinate teachers from the eligible list prepared by the superintendent, and the superintendent must be empowered to nominate the principals of schools. Even this, however, revolutionary as it may seem, would prove ineffective unless the superintendent be protected, so long as he proves efficient, in the possession of his office. If he is to be turned out of office at the end of a two-year or a three-year term, because he has offended some members of the local board of education or has failed to gratify the wishes of some politicians, but little in the way of reform will be accomplished. Three years ago, in a paper read before this department, I ventured to suggest, as the best solution of this problem, that, as every superintendent is legally a State officer, the State educational authorities ought to have a confirming power over his appointment and a veto power over his removal, which should be only for demonstrated cause. This opinion I have since seen no reason to change.

What can the National Department of Superintendence do to establish these or similar conditions? Are our meetings always to be for talk and entertainment and never to result in action? With all respect for the greater wisdom of those I see around me, I propose that a Committee of Ten be appointed, with power to organize conferences each numbering ten, whose duty it will be to investigate every department of public school organization, including the formation of boards of education, to examine every question pertaining to supervision, and to report at the next meeting of this department a scheme of organization that would enable every teacher, every principal and every superintendent to do his or her best work without fear and without molestation. If we can agree upon this scheme, let it then be presented, in the name of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association to every State and city board of education in the land, to the end that all public schools may be made equal with the best—the best nurseries of citizens.

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DISCUSSION.

SUPT. CHAS. W. COLE, Albany, N. Y.—We have at Albany a small board, consisting of seven members, appointed for a long term of office; namely, seven years. Theoretically the duties of superintendence and of business management are separated, although not so practically.

In the matter of selection of teachers, we have a system of appointment by merit only. The names of candidates are entered upon a list once a year in the order of standing, determined from the two elements of scholarship and teaching qualities. When a vacancy occurs, it is filled immediately from the head of the list, so that appointments are entirely removed from the influence of solicitation and from political or social pressure of any kind.

While I agree mainly with the principles laid down in the paper of Judge Draper, there is one point in which I must differ from him. He recommends that the licensing and appointing of teachers be placed under the control of the superintendent of schools. I do not believe that both functions should be exercised by the same person, and as the licensing of teachers is far more important in its final influence upon the schools, I think that power should be, directly or indirectly, placed under his control, and that the power of appointment should rest somewhere else, preferably from such a list as I have already described, and which I believe can be practically applied to cities of any size.

In regard to Superintendent Maxwell's paper, I will consider very briefly one point. He seems to doubt very much the efficacy of inspection by the supervisor of schools, and to think very little can be done to help schools by even more or less frequent visitation of the superintendent or his assistants. Much depends on what the inspection consists of. A mere visit to a school, simply glancing at its workings, may have very little effect; but if each visit of inspection has a definite purpose, if a superintendent never comes into a school-room without having determined beforehand what his object is in entering, and if he carries out that purpose effectively, he certainly can do very much in directing and promoting the efficiency of the school. Inspection prepared in this way must certainly bear constant and fruitful results.

J. A. SHAWAN, Superintendent of Schools, Columbus, Ohio.—I may be wrong, but I do not believe that an appointed board of education has any advantage over one elected by the people. In my judgment, the schools should be kept in close touch with those for whose benefit they were established. The people are the patrons who fill our schools, the taxpayers who build our houses and support the system and make it possible to have efficient teachers. He who has been faithful in the discharge of duty can submit his case with greater confidence to a board elected by the people than to one appointed by a mayor, by the courts, or by any other appointing power.

Whether elected or appointed, politics is likely to have more or less to do with the actions of boards of education in large cities. The last speaker stated that he believed that the superintendent should not have much to do either with certificating teachers or with their selection. I believe that he should be a potent factor in both functions. It is not necessary that he should have the sole power of granting certificates. If he is a member of the city board of examiners, and has associated with him men who respect his judgment, he certainly will have much to say in granting certificates. If he is in close touch with his committee on teachers, as he should be, they will be governed almost wholly by his recommendations. What greater power can he ask? I concur most heartily with the writer of the paper that the superintendent's most efficient work is through his principals. Intelligent supervision implies intelligent men and women as principals and teachers.

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THE RECONSTRUCTION OF THE GRAMMAR SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

BY SUPT. CHAS. B. GILBERT, ST. PAUL, MINN.

Does the grammar school course need reconstruction? If so, why and in what? A curriculum may be faulty in any one or in all of the following particulars: It may be badly constructed, it may be antiquated, it may be essentially wrong, based on false educational principles. In which of these respects, if any, is the average school curriculum at fault? In order to answer this question intelligently, it will be necessary to have distinctly in mind as a criterion the objects of education, the essential principles underlying true education and the function of the curriculum.

These principles are old and common property. But I shall briefly outline them, at the risk of wearying you with platitudes, "to stir up your pure mind by way of remembrance," for, as the chorus leader must occasionally sound the pitch for his chorus, so it is well for us at times to refer to our creeds, and we shall often find that our practice has wandered far from them; that in the hurly-burly and smoke of the daily struggle we have lost sight of the high ideals with which we started.

Emerson says "man is endogenous, and education is his unfolding." The best education is that which gives the child the fullest possession of himself, best develops in him power and supplies him with the highest ideals, so that he shall use his power to make the most of his possession of himself.

Power is an attribute of personality and not of things or statements; it exists only as an adjunct of life and moves from within outward; it cannot be poured in or put on, but comes by natural process from the exercise of the faculties. Of the powers which we should aim to cultivate in the child—physical, intellectual, moral—the first mentioned, while important, I shall not attempt to include in this paper. The intellectual powers needed by the good citizens have been well stated by President Eliot as "the power of observing accurately, recording correctly, comparing, grouping and inferring justly, and expressing cogently the result of these observations." This statement will bear the closest analysis, and I think practically covers the intellectual needs of the child. He needs these powers that he may be able to make a living for himself and those dependent upon him. But life is more than a living. Teach the child how to live, then it becomes worth while to teach him how to make a living. I make bold

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to say that it would be better for humanity if many so truly failed in making a living as to cease to live.

The child needs these powers, then, that he may live wisely and be able to adapt himself to his environment. He is best educated who can meet the new problem and master the new situation best. The classes most dangerous to themselves and to society are not the totally ignorant, but those who have just enough education to enable them to use their powers effectively for evil. The man totally blind, who must trust absolutely to the leadership of those who can see, is safer and less likely to do mischief than the half-blind man, who "sees men as trees walking" and thinks he can go alone.

The child needs the cultivation of moral power. The difference between a high and a low civilization is not a difference of intellect but a difference of morals.

The devil possesses all the intellectual powers necessary to make him a good citizen of the universe; his lacks are of a different sort. If the partial education of the intellect is dangerous, vastly more dangerous is that partial education of the man which includes the intellect but omits the moral nature. The child needs power over himself, power over others, a love for truth and the spirit of altruism, and the development of these powers is as much the legitimate, nay, the necessary, part of the teacher's work as instruction in reading and arithmetic. Indeed, it is vastly more so, since these are higher than those. This is, I think, a fair statement of the true basis of education.

Now, what is the relation of the course of study to education? It is not, as we have been disposed to treat it, the principal thing. It is a tool, a means; chiefly a gymnastic. We use it to produce certain effects upon the mind of the child. It is, perhaps, the chief instrument for his spiritual development. Its basis must, from the nature of things, be very largely a body of knowledge, and this fact has doubtless produced the common false impression that the excellence of the curriculum is to be measured by the practical usefulness of the knowledge it seeks to impart.

Knowledge is not power, and the aim of education is to develop power. Hence, that branch of knowledge is most valuable in the course whose study tends to develop most fully the powers of which I have spoken. Many facts become practically valueless the moment they have fallen into the past. Nothing is so ephemeral as a fact. The fact of yesterday is the falsehood of to-day, and the dream of to-day is the truth of to-morrow. The knowledge of yesterday is only useful as it enables me to live well to-day and prepare wisely for to-morrow. But though facts are ephemeral, truth is eternal; and those branches of knowledge should be selected to serve as the mental

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gymnastics of the child which have to do with the eternal verities rather than the fleeting facts of the moment. They should, moreover, be those truths which touch life most intimately, so that the child from his earliest days may acquire, by actual exercise, the powers he is to need when he meets the real difficulties of life. No truth is so important as the love of it. The spirit of research and the desire to find the new and know the true are worth infinitely more to the child than the possession of any number of facts.

Has the curriculum of the past, which is in the main the curriculum of the present, offered the best gymnastic? Has it tended to produce acuteness of the senses, clear reasoning, breadth of view, appreciation of the good, the true, the beautiful, nobility of purpose and a sense of the brotherhood of man, so that the child has made the most of himself, for himself and his brother man? The average man of to-day is the best answer. A few unique and noble specimens do not show the effect of a general system; to ascertain that we must go to the average man. The average man is too often sordid, superficial, incapable of grasping large truths or broad principles, without strong personal conscience (especially with regard to the duties of the citizen), without a fine sense of honesty. The latter limitation applies also to many of our so-called great men. Our civilization is altogether too gross, materialistic, unæsthetic, egoistic.

Our school system is both the natural offspring of our civilization and the means for its perpetuation. The parallelism in character between them is perhaps closer than most have thought. The chief characteristic of modern civilization is its sordidness. It is a game of grab; acquisition is the chief virtue. The protests against it are feeble, coming from those who have got nothing in the grab, and are only half sincere.

Is there no connection between the civilization for which we blush, and the school which we applaud? Dr. Edward Everett Hale, in a conversation recently, told of an educated Japanese who was visiting this country, and after inspecting the schools remarked: "We do not give so much time to arithmetic in our country." "Why?" asked the Doctor. "Because we believe that it makes men sordid." We cannot hold one ideal for our maturer life and another for the child. There is quite as much philosophy as wit in Dr. Holmes' famous remark: "I have an immense respect for a man of talents plus 'the mathematics.' But the calculating power alone should seem to be the least human of qualities and to have the smallest amount of reason in it. * * * I always fancy I can hear the wheels clicking in a calculator's brain. The power of dealing with numbers is a kind of detached lever arrangement which may be put into a mighty poor watch. I suppose it is about as common as the power of moving the ears voluntarily, which is a moderately rare endowment."

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Even this power, much pains as we take to cultivate it, fails to accomplish the one end aimed at,—what is known as success in life, by which we mean the acquisition of property. The average man is a business failure, not because he cannot calculate, but because he has had no training which enables him to fit himself to his environment, and many of our most successful men, so called, have not had even this modicum of education of the school. This, however, leaves our fetich, arithmetic, in a sad plight. It has not produced noble manhood and it has failed in the one thing it aimed to do. I say so much concerning arithmetic because it is a type, and best represents the narrow, utilitarian, materialistic character of our elementary education and of our civilization.

What has received the modicum of time and attention not needed for arithmetic? First, oral reading, practiced upon meaningless and silly selections or improvisations, read over and over again until the child has become tired and disgusted. Very little attempt has been made to cultivate taste for good reading, or to present to the child a proper amount of matter of real value. Did you ever think how small a volume all the good literature read by the child in his course of eight years would make if bound together? I am speaking now of the unregenerated school. Can we wonder that the boy has turned eagerly from the trash and dry bones of the school reader to "Jim Bloodso, the Indian Killer," or to "Wild Billy, the Boy Scout"? And yet we call it perversity. He shows better sense than his teacher, for he has, at least, chosen something alive.

Grammar used to be taught almost as seriously as arithmetic. Grammar is a valuable study. It is the study of form, it is true; but valuable. The mistake was, that it was given to children too young to comprehend it. It is food for adults, not infants; and because the infants could neither masticate nor digest it, it was thrown out, and in its place we have that nondescript, unspeakable language lesson, a sort of grammatical and rhetorical *olla podrida*.

A tramp, seeking a breakfast, was given an ax and told if he would pound a log with the back of it for half an hour he could have his breakfast. He thought that easy, but after five minutes threw down his ax with the exclamation, "I'll be hanged if I will chop without seeing the chips fly!" Many a boy put to his silly task of dissecting idle sentences might well sympathize with the tramp.

Other subjects to which a limited amount of time has been given are history and geography, both taught in the worst conceivable way. History, that noblest of studies, has been in the schools the acquisition of a few names and dates, with perhaps a single patriotic note, badly overdone.

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Geography, also a noble study, has been limited to the reciting of metes and bounds, to memorizing the so-called map questions—may their memory perish!—to the finding of certain black spots upon certain colored pieces of paper. This was the orthodox average school curriculum. The child's mind was not directed to noble subjects; his study was all of form, not at all of content. The truths of the universe were reversed to him. If, all through his school days, form, expression, acquisition and selfishness are kept constantly before his mind, can we wonder that man fails to see things in their true light, that false ideas rule the world, that men believe it better to make a show than to be honest, to appear, than to be? The worst in our civilization and the worst in our schools have a closer connection than we in our self-conceited blindness have been willing to admit. If Germany in a single generation could be lifted from its position as one of the weakest powers of Europe to one of the first by infusing the schools with a spirit of militarism and of patriotic devotion to the fatherland, we can elevate the tone of American civilization within a generation by elevating the tone of the schools of to-day.

Our common school curriculum, then, needs reconstruction. It needs reconstruction because it is essentially bad. Based upon no philosophical principles, it has tended to no definite end; it has failed to properly develop the child, both intellectually and morally. It is in spite of our educational pettifogging, and not because of it, that we have as good men and as able men as we have. Our schools have often hindered rather than helped that broad and noble education which environment, dealing with large affairs, associating with large men has brought to the citizen in mature years. In school the child's training has been trivial; we have taught tricks of trade, pecked at the surface of things, and have not cultivated breadth of view or profundity of intellect. Morally the same criticism applies. Little in all the old course tended to make the child nobler, to exalt his ideal, to make him more sensitive to truth, more obedient to duty or more altruistic; it tended rather to make him selfish, deceitful, superficial, to cultivate a conscience for forms and ceremonies and not for real duties and services. How can a child who lives in an atmosphere of insincerity, superficiality and triviality grow into a broad, conscientious, truth-loving, altruistic manhood? Morality is vital; it is not secured by instruction or precept; it is the product of the air we breathe, the influences we unconsciously assimilate, the idea and ideals upon which our minds dwell. If the school is to make nobler men and women of the next generation it must create a purer atmosphere, furnish sweeter associations, interest the child's mind in matters that are more elevated and more elevating. The disease is at the root; the remedy must be radical. This admits of no tinkering.

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The addition of this study or the removing of that will not remedy matters. It is not so much reconstruction as revivifying, spiritualizing, regenerating that our schools need. The whole atmosphere needs changing, the motive reforming. The changes I am about to suggest are changes of heart. It is not merely that the studies are important, but that they make possible a new work; they are the new bottles for the new wine. The first thing needed is simplification,—doing away with the old, disjointed course of many dissevered knowledges and grouping all about a few essentials after the Herbartian idea of co-ordination. Knowledge is one and spherical. Each subject divides naturally into content and form, of which the former is the eternal and valuable, while the latter is the variable and less valuable. Choose studies which have a noble content, the nobler the better; make the center of your curriculum to which the child's mind is constantly turned those matters which are of the widest and most lasting importance, so that he is always contemplating that which is noble. The noblest and most useful subjects that either the child or adult can study are man and nature. These two practically include all that to which the human intellect can properly be directed, excepting the Creator of both. By the study of man I mean history in the broadest sense, including history proper, or the records of his deeds and literature, or the record of his thoughts, his hopes and despairs, his regrets and prophecies and geography, or the scene of his action, and the physical environment of mountain, sea, plain, soil, climate, which have constituted prominent factors in his life on the earth. By the study of nature I do not mean science, falsely so called, as too often taught in schools and colleges. I mean the study by actual contact of the world about him; that wonderful world of living, breathing things, rocks with the records of ages, drops of water containing centuries of history and centuries of prophecy; "books in the running brooks, sermons in stones and good in everything."

As I have said, these two subjects are the broadest, most comprehensive and most helpful which can be contemplated by the human mind, and if the cultivation of large powers, noble ideals and high aims is the true end of education, they constitute the best gymnastic. The study of nature especially renders the senses acute and leads from the minute and particular to the broad and general, thus developing through the necessary steps of comparing and inferring that highest and most useful of the intellectual faculties, the power of generalization. Its ethical bearing is, that it cultivates sympathy with all living creatures, introduces the child to the men and women who have loved and interpreted nature in literature, leads to respect for nature's laws, the eternal fitness of things, and to reverence for nature's God.

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Particularly, above all else, it cultivates the rarest of traits, a love for truth. The child who has studied closely some natural phenomenon or some form of life until he has found out the exact facts, has gone a long way toward loving the truth and hating falsehood.

If the aim of education is to fit the child for living, to make of himself the best man, his fittest study is the record of the evolution of the race toward this ideal,—man's deeds, his ideals and his approximation to them, the sources from which he drew his inspiration, the causes outside of himself, such as physical and moral environment, which made him what he is, the reasons of whatever sort which have led to his success or failure in whole or part. The study of history leads particularly to the comprehension of the inevitable relation of cause and effect in human affairs, cultivating thus both the reason and the moral nature; but its special value is ethical. It stimulates ambition, furnishes ideals, leads to a comprehension of human motives of action, creates sympathy with men, teaches the abiding power of goodness, the duty and glory of philanthropy, and the littleness and ephemeral character of selfishness. Especially through literature it touches the spiritual side of life.

Having chosen for the basis of the curriculum subjects with each a noble content, it is easy to teach the forms of expression in their natural relations to these nobler topics. We have hitherto exalted the form and minimized the content, and thereby have lost much and gained nothing. The forms of expression are better and more truly taught as such than when taught as the principal thing. To illustrate: The content of history is the record of man's life on earth. Its form of expression is language ennobled into literature; form and color ennobled into arts, sculpture and painting; mechanical construction ennobled into architecture; organization ennobled into institutions and states.

The content of science is visible nature. Its forms of expression as studied and used by man are not dissimilar to that of history, art, literature, mathematics, mechanics, all the beautiful and useful contrivances for the enjoyment and help of man; and, above all, the physical universe.

I would, then, make man and nature the basis of the school curriculum, and teach the various arts of expression from and by application to the essentials, arranging all so as to give the child a just conception of educational values, a true perspective of the world of knowledge.

Let me illustrate by some of the specific arts of expression. Of these, language is doubtless the most important. The power of using language effectively and elegantly is acquired by using it effectively and elegantly. What the child needs is stimulus to think and

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encouragement to express, and the inspiration of the best models. The child will express thought readily enough if he is encouraged to express his own thought; if truth, not affectation, is made his ideal. He must feel the importance of his own thought and of its truthful expression. The nobility of the content ennobles the form and renders it easy to impress upon the child the rules of good expression. A lesson on grammatical form interests him when he sees that it will enable him to express truthfully and effectively some thought that he wishes to express. The best form of expression is ever the truest. Noble deeds require noble art; beauty, beautiful expression. Truth requires clearness. So, other things being equal, the more worthy the content the easier to teach the child to use noble, true and pure forms of expression. So the ethical and intellectual can be united. What is true of language is true of all the useful arts, a knowledge of which we seek to impart in our schools,—they are best imparted in relation to a noble content. As children advance in grade more time should be given to the formal study of the laws of the useful arts. The study of the principles of an art does not properly precede its tentative use, but accompanies and follows. We cannot learn to swim before going near the water.

One great gain of this method of presentation is the increased interest of the children. I have been astonished to see with what zest children, who have appeared dull and unruly, who have viewed school and all pertaining to it with scorn and aversion, have taken up their work under these new circumstances, all because they were doing something that seemed worth while. In one school in which this idea has been carried out the children actually cry for the privilege of writing about what they have studied and of illustrating what they have written. After an interesting lesson one day a boy asked his teacher if he might not write a composition on the subject of the lesson. She replied, "I do not think that you know enough about it yet." The boy appeared greatly put out. After school the teacher went to his desk and found that he had spent all of the time he could steal for the rest of the day in surreptitiously writing his composition. This is not an isolated case.

This principle of unity I believe to be of inestimable value because it is in accord with the constitution of things. If it is followed in education not only will better immediate results be obtained with regard to all arts which we have deemed it important to teach, but the child's conception of material and spiritual values will be right and will not have to be remodeled when he finds out the truth of things in the larger life, nor will he go through life worshiping the form for the thing, the material rather than the spiritual, because he has never found out the truth. This enlargement of intellect and broadening of

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sympathies creates naturally a pure spiritual atmosphere and leads unconsciously to the doing of good deeds, and thus to the cultivation of altruism.

In the schools of a certain city of 150,000 people during the past year much time has been given to the study of history, especially of the lives of great men, and the study of nature has also been pursued systematically. As a result unconsciously the sympathies of the children have gone out to their fellow human beings, and their cousins the animals. No one can say when or how the movement started, but the school authorities became aware that all the schools were pervaded by a spirit of altruism. As Thanksgiving time came and their thoughts in history were directed to the first Thanksgiving, to the sufferings of the fathers, and indirectly to the sufferings of their brothers at the present, spontaneously, through no one's direction, the desire became universal to do something to help. As the day drew near, the children, encouraged by their teachers, began to bring gifts for the poor. Provisions in great abundance came into all of the schools, the principals' offices were filled, the halls were filled, until in many buildings it was almost impossible to walk without stepping on groceries. Both rich and poor were alike interested in this, and as a result on Thanksgiving morning 172 wagon loads of provisions of various kinds were distributed to the poor. Much of it represented great personal sacrifices on the part of the children, of which many touching instances occurred. Little ones scantily clothed brought clothing for those who might suffer, those who had been hungry brought food for the hungry, but those, too, who had never known unsatisfied hunger brought in large quantities of food for those who had. Human hearts beat very near to human hearts.

A little girl, herself as poor as need be, brought to her teacher the day before Thanksgiving, while the provisions were being accumulated, a little bag containing an apple, originally wormy, from which she had carefully removed the defective spots, and two bits of candy. It was her all, but she could not be deterred from giving it for some one poorer than herself. The study of arithmetic is not responsible for this. In one school, in one of the poorer districts, after the children had brought their contributions, the boys insisted on taking them themselves to the relief rooms. Now, these boys were a very common sort of boys, coming from homes without culture, rough and uncouth, doubtless doing many things every day that would shock our finer sensibilities, but they had studied the noble deeds of noble men and acquired a sympathy for others; they had read "Black Beauty" and learned to sympathize with dumb beasts. They borrowed an old horse, a wreck of bygone days, belonging to some cowherder, hitched it to an old wagon, and brought it down to the

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school. The day was chilly; while waiting for the loading of the provisions, what did these rough, uncouth boys do but take off their overcoats and spread them over the poor old horse, probably the first blanketing he had received in years. When they came to a hill all the boys got off the wagon to help him up the hill. It was better than whipping him!

I visited some of the kindergartens on the day of distribution. The children had all brought their gifts for others. I was present in one when the distribution occurred. Happier children were never seen. Every gift represented effort or sacrifice, or both, on the part of the children. After all had been given and the children were wild with unselfish delight it was seen that certain bags of confectionery remained. The kindergartner said to the children: "I have been to the hospital and the little ones there do not need this candy, but I have thought of some little children who have been very good and done much for others, and I thought we would give it to them. Do you know any such children?" And they guessed, the poor, the sick, some kindergarten in California of which their teacher had told them. Not a child guessed what was evident to every adult, that the confectionery was for themselves, and when, finally, all having failed, the kindergartner said: "It is for you," there was evident upon the faces of the children the first feeling of disappointment that I had seen that afternoon. Here, certainly, it was "more blessed to give than to receive." The spirit of the kindergarten is the spirit of the new school.

Now, what has all this to do with the course of study? Simply this, that under the unconscious influence that the children had absorbed, a spirit had been created, such as our churches too often in vain aim to produce, and I make bold to assert that that city will have better citizens in the next generation from just such boys and girls as these than if they knew all that was in the arithmetic from cover to cover. I may also add that where this very work has been carried on, the work in arithmetic, reading and writing has been better done than ever before.

Let me review what I deem a proper and entirely practicable course of study for higher grades. As a basis, I would select nature and history, embracing geography and literature as essential elements. By this the child's mind is kept continually upon a noble content. Through and upon this let the various arts of expression and relation be taught. They are written and spoken language, drawing, painting, modeling, construction, or manual training, mathematics. These should be taught first by simple drill, always thorough. As the child advances and fuller knowledge of the arts is required that he may more clearly comprehend the thoughts and motives of

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man and nature, and more cogently express his own thoughts, the principles of the arts should be inculcated, ever keeping pace with the child's growth. The laws of grammar and rhetoric and of literary taste, the laws of form expression, of color and of artistic taste, the laws of numerical relation, should be brought in at the proper places and in their fit bearings thereto. It always, however, should be kept in mind, and before the child, that these are merely form or expression, and that the principal thing is the content. Thus will the child gets a true conception of educational perspective. Further, let the moral bearing of it all be kept prominent in the teacher's mind, and indirectly and inoffensively impressed upon the expanding consciousness of the child.

I believe it is coming, whether we oppose or favor it, but we can greatly aid it if we will. The nations have waited generations for reforms because a haphazard education has furnished no help. Systematic, definite, philosophical training of the youth might save countless years of precious time.

THE CAMBRIDGE EXPERIMENT.

BY FRANCIS COGSWELL, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

Under the general subject of "The Reconstruction of the Grammar School Course," I have been requested to give an account of the experiment in Cambridge. The time assigned to this paper compels me to confine myself to a statement of the mere facts.

A year ago the school board appointed a special committee, with Professor Hart as chairman, "to consider the course of study in the grammar and primary schools, with a view to shortening and enriching the program."

The committee entered on their work in a spirit that commended itself alike to the school committee and the teachers. They made themselves familiar with the existing course of study and what had been accomplished under it. They extended their inquiries to other cities, and also obtained the opinions of prominent educators and persons eminent in special departments of school work. For nearly two months they held weekly meetings to discuss the various questions that came up for consideration.

After this thorough study of the subject, a report was submitted and a series of orders recommended. The following statements will show the changes proposed and adopted:

1. Provision is made for the more thorough supervision of the schools by the appointment of a special teacher of primary work;

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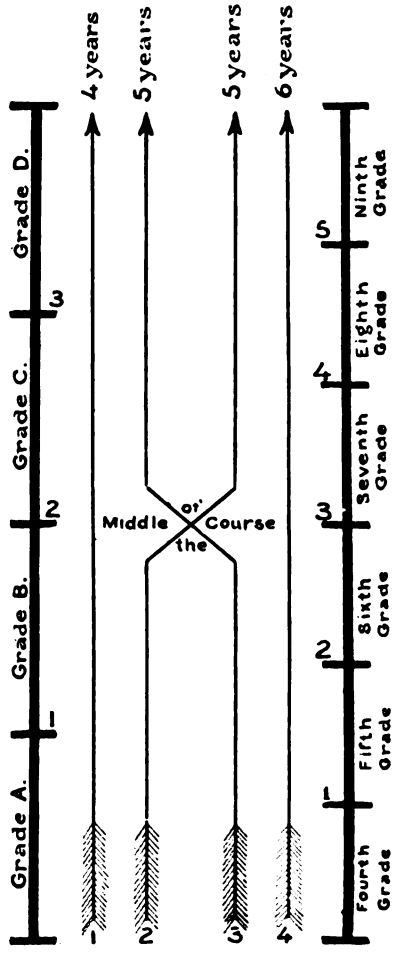
and for the more rapid advancement of pupils in the grammar schools, (1) by authorizing the appointment of a teacher to work in the various classes as directed by the master and superintendent; (2) by adopting a plan by which the work may be done more easily in less than the full time of six years.

The appointment of a teacher to work in the various classes makes it possible to give personal instruction to a larger number of pupils than heretofore. With this instruction many pupils who would otherwise pass regularly from grade to grade can advance more rapidly, and others who would fall behind in their work will be enabled to accomplish it.

The plan by which the work may be done more easily in less than the full time is this: The course of study is divided in two ways: (1) Into six sections; (2) into four sections; each section covering a year's work. Pupils pursuing the six years' course are classified in six grades, called the fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth and ninth grades. Those pursuing the four years' course are classified in four grades, called grades A, B, C and D. When pupils are promoted to the grammar schools they will begin the first year's work together. After two or three months they will be separated into two divisions, but they will remain in the same room under the same teacher.

One division will advance more rapidly than the other, and during the year will complete one-fourth of the whole course of study. The other division will complete one-sixth of the course.

During the second year the pupils in grade B should be in the same room with the sixth grade. At the beginning of the year they will be five months (one-half the school year) behind those in the sixth grade. After



Arrow No. 1 indicates the four years' course; grades A, B, C, D. Arrow No. 2 indicates one of the five years' courses; grades A, B, 7, 8, 9. Arrow No. 3 indicates the other five years' course: grades 4, 5, 6, C, D. Arrow No. 4 indicates the six years' course; grades 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9.

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two or three months grade B will be able to recite with the sixth grade, and at the end of the year both divisions will have completed one-half the course of study—the one in two years and the other in three years. The plan for the last half of the course is the same as for the first half, the grades being known as C and D in the four years' course, and as the seventh, eighth and ninth in the six years' course.

There are also two ways of completing the course in five years: (1) any pupil in the four years' course may at the end of two years be transferred to the seventh grade, and finish the course in three years; (2) any pupil in the six years' course may at the end of three years be transferred to grade C, and finish the course in two years. In both cases these changes can be made without omitting or repeating any part of the course.

The former rule of the school committee was as follows: "The grammar schools shall be divided, according to the degree of advancement of the pupils in their studies, each into six grades. But in each grade, except the highest, a separate division may be formed, and special instruction given to such division, in order to enable the pupils composing it to complete the course of study in a shorter period than six years." Last year, under this rule, ten per cent of the graduates did the work in four years, twenty-seven per cent in five years, forty-five per cent in six years, and eighteen per cent in seven years or more, those taking more than seven years being only a fraction of one per cent. It is expected that under the new rule a larger percentage will complete the course in less than six years, and that there will be a corresponding decrease in the number of those who take six years or more.

2. Promotions are no longer made on the results of written examinations. In the primary schools, and from the primary to the grammar schools, they are made by the teachers, under the direction of the special teacher of primary schools and the superintendent. In the grammar schools, and from the grammar to the high schools, they are made by the teachers, under the direction of the master and the superintendent.

3. The course in arithmetic is now called the course in mathematical study. The following orders of the committee show the range of work: (1) "The course in mathematical study, beginning with September, 1892, shall allow more relative time for mental arithmetic and less relative time for written arithmetic; and book-keeping shall be limited to simple personal and business accounts." (2) "To the course shall be added geometrical forms and relations, including mensuration, leading up to and including the demonstration of simple theorems in plane geometry in the last year." (3) "The application of

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elementary algebra to arithmetical problems may be added by any grammar school master."

Of the former requirements the special committee wrote: "The mathematical studies in the present curriculum include mental and written arithmetic throughout the nine grades, and book-keeping in the ninth grade. It is not apparent to your committee that any branch of arithmetic now taught in the schools ought to be discontinued. The list has already been curtailed of most of those subjects to which exception has been taken. It does not appear that systematic book-keeping has ever been taught in the schools, and your committee recommend that the subject be confined to simple personal and business accounts, introduced toward the end of the course. We are of the opinion, however,—an opinion in which the superintendent and many of the masters coincide,—that much time may be saved in arithmetic by using simple problems and simple processes, and by omitting a part of the reviews which now sometimes occupy the early months of each succeeding year."

4. The reading of standard English authors is now required in all the grades. Books of this character have been authorized, and have been used in the three upper grades in a part of the schools, and in the highest grade in all the schools, since 1884. The books now to be used are: for the fourth grade, Scudder's "Fables and Folk Stories" and Hans Andersen's "Stories;" for the fifth grade, Defoe's "Robinson Crusoe," and Ruskin's "King of the Golden River;" for the sixth grade, Hawthorne's "Little Daffydowndilly and Biographical Stories," and Longfellow's "The Childrens' Hour;" for the seventh grade, Hawthorne's "Wonder Book," and Eggleston's "First Book in American History;" for the eighth grade, Burroughs' "Birds and Bees," Hawthorne's "Grandfather's Chair" and Hawthorne's "Tanglewood Tales;" for the ninth grade, "Masterpieces of American Literature. The last-named book includes "Evangeline," "Snow-Bound," and selections from Irving, which have been a part of the reading in this grade for nine years. Five of these books have been adopted recently. Other books can be obtained at any time under the following rule adopted by the school committee in 1887: "Standard books of English literature may be used in each grade of the grammar schools, the choice of books to be made by the master of the school, subject to the approval of the school committee." No request under this rule has been refused.

5. In the study of language there has been no material change. The formal study of spelling is to end with the seventh grade instead of the eighth. Special attention is to be paid to exercises in writing and speaking English. Language exercises are to continue through the whole course, in connection with the various subjects.

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6. The most radical change has been in the study of geography. In the first year the text-book is to give place to objective and experimental work, based on the elements of physical geography. The work in political geography is to be combined with that in history, with special attention to historical geography; and in the last year the elements of civil government are to be taught in connection with history. Geography, as a separate study, is discontinued in the ninth grade.

7. Beginning with the school year in 1893, elementary physics is to be taught by the experimental, or laboratory, method, and is to include exact weighing and measuring by the pupils. Any master is at liberty to introduce the study the present year. This has been done in one of the schools. The master gives weekly two lessons of thirty minutes each to the pupils of the ninth grade. The work is laid out by the teacher of physics in the English high school. Additional time is given in connection with the language work. It is expected that a part of the apparatus needed for the teaching of physics will be made at the manual training school, and the expense is not to exceed the cost of materials. For this favor the city is indebted to the superintendent of the school, Mr. Harry Ellis.

I have now indicated the changes in the plan of classification and promotions, and in the course of study. It remains for me to speak of this work as it goes on in the schools. Harvard University offered to furnish instruction to the grammar school teachers in geography, geometry and physics. The generous offer was accepted as an expression of the interest of the university in the experiment. Professor Davis is the instructor in geography, Professor Hanus in geometry, and Professor Hall in physics. The teachers of the three lower grades attend the lectures on geography; those of the three higher, on geometry; and a class of twenty-two (each school being represented) on physics. These lectures are given weekly during the current school year, vacations excepted. I need not say they have proved interesting and profitable. No teacher can listen to them and not be stimulated and assisted in his efforts for higher attainment, not only in the special study discussed in the lectures, but in every branch of his school work. Outlines of the courses in geography and geometry have been prepared, and the teachers are working along the lines indicated. These outlines are in print,—the one in geometry by Professor Hanus will soon be issued as a manual.

The new work has not yet been taken up in its completeness. In geography it is limited to the lower grades. Geometry is to be taught in the seventh, eighth and ninth grades, but it was thought best to introduce it this year into the ninth grade only, in order that the teachers might have the benefit of the instruction given by Pro-

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fessor Hanus, and that the subject-matter might be wisely selected. There is no magic in the word geometry. Its educational value in the grammar schools will depend on the kind of work undertaken, and the methods of instruction. The time given to geography is two hours a week, the same as before; and to geometry, one hour and a half. This time is secured, not by crowding out any subject, but by teaching all subjects so as to make them mutually helpful.

It is too soon to speak of results. The pupils have just been classified for the first time on the plan by which a part of them are to do one-fourth of the whole work each year, and the remaining part one-sixth. The new studies were introduced only last September. In several of the schools the work in geometry was not taken up during the first two or three months, the teachers intending to give special attention to it later in the year; and it will be remembered that physics as a required study is not yet introduced. It may be said, however, that the circumstances under which the experiment is being tried are favorable to success.

DISCUSSION.

PROF. ALBERT BUSHNELL HART of Harvard College.—Perhaps some of you will say, "Friend, how camest thou in hither, not having on a wedding garment?" By what right shall I speak to a body of experts in education, for it is well known that college professors are not included within the popular definition of the word "educator." I will speak, therefore, simply as a man interested in the schools of his own city, and profoundly interested in the public schools throughout the country; one who through an official relation with the public schools of Cambridge, and through contact with schoolmen, has learned much in the past year or two, and has still much to learn.

To the concise and clear statement of Mr. Cogswell with reference to the Cambridge schools there is little to add. It ought, however, to be pointed out, that, with characteristic modesty, he has omitted to mention to you the author of the four and six year parallel courses,—the new four-track railroad of education by which express and accommodation trains can move side by side in the same direction and reach precisely the same point, though at varying rates of speed. To Mr. Cogswell is due all the credit for introducing this natural, flexible and effectual system of grading schools. There is, however, perhaps still opportunity to enlarge on some of the principals which animated the Cambridge School Committee in making the recommendations which have just been stated.

In the first place, the "Cambridge Experiment" is not an experiment. It will be noted that the reforms indicated by Mr. Cogswell are far short of the recommendations made by the New England Association or the Barnard Club of Providence. The principle of the school committee has been to build up the system which was already worked out, and to make changes slowly and with caution. Probably no recommendation embodied in Mr. Cogswell's paper is absolutely new; every part of it has been somewhere tried before. Hence, the "experiment," if you choose, is in the combination of parts, each of which has elsewhere been shown to be practicable. Nor is the system an experiment so far as the teachers are

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concerned; for they were consulted before the recommendations were made, and no suggestion was included against which they took decided ground. We believe that any reform of school methods must be carried out by the teachers, and without their co-operation must fail. That these recommendations have their good will and that the experiment is passing into the stage of success is shown by a series of letters from the masters of the grammar schools of Cambridge, dated yesterday, and written at my request for use at this meeting. They speak clearly and candidly, and no one of the masters has hesitated to criticise, where in his judgment criticism was needed. These reforms, and therefore the letters of the masters, cover two distinct subjects. In the first place, a series of administrative changes has been made; set examinations have been abolished; provision has been made for promotions without examinations; and the four and six year system has been introduced. These administrative reforms commend themselves to the teachers of Cambridge; only two of the nine masters reporting desire a return to set examinations; but one expresses himself against the system of promotion without examination; the system of transferring at irregular intervals and of double grouping seems to be received with much favor. Nevertheless, one teacher points out that the number of children in the quick-moving group will probably prove less than was anticipated. I do not believe that any of these three reforms will ever be retraced. The second series of changes is in the curriculum, and comprises: first, a more rational method of studying geography; second, the introduction of geometry into the grammar schools; and, third, the introduction of experimental physics into the grammar schools. The teachers welcome the improvement in the teaching of geography. Against the teaching of geometry there seems no further objection. Physics is, of course, the most difficult to introduce. Physics, however, seems to us one of the most important subjects in the whole curriculum, because it furnishes an opportunity of teaching the accuracy of observation and manipulation, which is so necessary a part of education and which is not provided to the same degree elsewhere in the course. I believe that the teaching of experimental physics will succeed, although it will require judgment in its introduction and painstaking care in its administration.

The connection of the university with the grammar school teachers has been very satisfactory. The principal complaint from the teachers is that the body of information and suggestion which they receive is so great that it causes them trouble and confusion to select such parts as they can offer to their pupils. In other words, the teachers are learning more than they need to teach. This can hardly be considered a misfortune.

Another principle underlying the system is, that it is intended to benefit the mass of the children. We have had constantly before us the necessity of bringing the best and most effective parts of education within the reach of the larger number of children. One of the things which the schools most need is to emphasize the studies which tend to develop power, individuality and independent judgment. We strengthen our schools by strengthening these new lines of study; and if there is any advantage in the choice of one subject over another, that virtue ought to be extended as far back as possible, by introducing the new subjects at the earliest point at which the pupil can profit by them. The Cambridge system, or rather the Cambridge adaptation of well known and successful principles, aims to give a practical, vigorous, sensible, education to those who cannot go beyond the grammar schools.

Again, we hope by these reforms to assist in breaking up the pernicious notion that education ought to tend to uniformity. The danger of republics, and particularly of our republic, is that they may develop into a rigid cast-iron system, in which individuality, independence and life may be crushed. So long as human

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nature remains irregular, so long as individual characters differ from each other, so long school children are certain to need a variety of treatment; and a system of education which expects that any two children can be taught precisely alike is a mistake and a misfortune. It is the special duty of the public schools, so far as is possible, to allow for differences of capacity, and to adjust their teaching accordingly.

Another purpose of the Cambridge School Committee is to develop the power of literary expression among the children. Under the most favorable conditions in this country the opportunity of learning a foreign language by grammar school children must be confined to a chosen few. But they all use English; and English must continue to be a main part of the school curriculum. President Eliot in his recent article in the "Forum" speaks of training "the faculties;" President Schurman, in his address before the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association at Springfield, rather violently traverses this statement, and urges that pupils should have the "humanizing" influence of a study of literature. I leave these two eminent doctors to disagree; or rather, I leave to some acute student of philosophy the task of finding out the difference between their views. To my mind, they both aim at the same result, namely, the development of character and power to deal with problems as they arise. One subject certainly meets the requirements which both have in mind—the study of our mother tongue. It is a study of high importance; it is a study of thought; and at the same time it is a training study. In two ways the Cambridge School Committee purpose to improve the teaching of English: first, by insisting upon the early and continuous reading of standard English authors; and in the second place, by connecting the study of English with that of other subjects. Much may be done by taking from other studies the material for compensation.

The next task which I should like to see the Cambridge School Committee undertake is an examination of the study of English throughout our schools, and particularly of written exercises. Perhaps we may find it desirable to introduce the Seattle method, by which every scholar composes a piece of written English every day throughout his school life, from the point where he is able to frame a sentence.

Finally, it is the purpose of the Cambridge school authorities in these reforms to make a contribution, however slight, to the general improvement of education, beginning with our own city. The Cambridge schools were not perfect a year ago, they are not perfect now, they will not be perfect a year hence, nor fifty years hence. There may be perfect schools somewhere, but perfection in education seems very like malaria—always to be found in the next town. It does not exist here; we are not satisfied with our schools, and we never expect to be satisfied with them. One improvement should lead to another. Until the human race is perfect our education must be imperfect. Furthermore, in "our town" we are not afraid to criticise our own schools and we recognize in those who point out defects and suggest improvements, not enemies but friends. The system described by Superintendent Cogswell must be followed up wherever we see a new point to gain.

One thing, at least, I think I have learned from a brief contact with school systems and school men: I have found the spring of action in public school matters, and it is in the school superintendents. You, gentlemen, seated here in this hall, and your associates throughout the country, are the moving forces in American primary and secondary education. Changes which you oppose cannot be carried out; reforms which you advocate will be put into action. One of the most encouraging things about American education is the fact that the school superintendents are aware that the existing system may be improved and are endeavoring to devise right methods of improvement.

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MR. MAXWELL, Superintendent of Schools in Brooklyn.—The Cambridge experiment seems to me to be worthy of all praise, so far as the "enrichment" of the course of study is concerned. I doubt, however, whether it is equally worthy of commendation in the method of "shortening" the course. The objections are that the plan seems to require the segregation of the dull pupils, by which they lose the stimulus that comes from reciting with the bright pupils, and the fact that the teacher is compelled to teach two divisions, one division goes half as fast as the other. I prefer the departmental system of teaching for the upper grammar grades.

PROFESSOR HART asked leave, in the absence of Mr. Cogswell, to offer information on two points not included in Mr. Cogswell's paper, but which are a part of the Cambridge system, and which meet some of the objections made by Mr. Maxwell. In the first place, the difficulty of having several grades in one room is partially obviated by the appointment of an extra teacher in the large buildings—a teacher without grade, whose business it is to wind up the loose ends caused by the existence of parallel courses and to form and instruct classes as needed.

MR. MAXWELL: How many classes does such a teacher have?

PROFESSOR HART: As many as may be necessary. There is no trouble about that; it is what district school teachers have been doing for years.

The second point was with reference to the separation of dull from bright students. As a matter of fact, the separation does not exist to the degree that Mr. Maxwell supposes. In many cases the classes are made up of children of different degrees of quickness; the places of the bright scholars who have gone forward are taken by the set of bright scholars a year younger.

SUPT. A. HARDY, La Crosse, Wis.—Prominent writers have told us that in many respects public education is a failure. We tacitly admit it by discussing ways and means of improving it. The real aim of all of us is to enrich the pupil, enrich his intellect, his heart, his imagination, his emotions, his life. The real object is then to "shorten and enrich" the teacher. I think it was Emerson who said: "It does not make so much difference what you study, but it does make all the difference in the world who your teacher is."

There are serious difficulties in the way of adding so many new subjects to the course of study. Our patrons, the taxpayers, are, many of them, hard-headed New England men, educated in the "three R's." They have been successful in life. They cannot see the need of so many "new-fangled" studies. In the next place, we have not the teachers to do this work. It is impossible to get enough well-prepared teachers to teach the subjects now in our schools. These are serious and practical difficulties in the way of the proposed reforms. Even if we could overcome these objections, I feel that the true reform is to enrich the teacher, enrich her intellect, her heart, her life.

President Eliot has well said that the child of the son of toil needs to be lifted out of his sordid conditions, needs to be humanized. He pleads that the course needs to be enriched for the child of poverty. This is true. The question is: Will the addition of so many studies do this? In our limited time only the formal part, the symbols, can be taught. Their content, their substance, is the true source of enrichment. The study of a foreign language in our grammar schools must, from necessity, be elementary—confined to the verbal, formal part. To get to the content, the thought, a much longer study is necessary. Where, then, shall we find the substance for enriching the mind, the heart, the life of the child? In the study of English, of history, especially of biography, and of nature. The best will be found in our noble literature. We must reform our teaching of English. We must give

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this study the place it deserves. Professors in our colleges have shown how poor are the results of our teaching of English. Prof. J. M. Hart has shown us the true remedy. We must teach English as an art. We must have daily written exercises with the reading of our poets and prose writers. We need to concentrate and unify; not expand. The elements of science, "earth-knowledge," must be taught with geography. So, too, physical geography, instead of being made a separate study, must be made the basis of the study of political and commercial geography. The substance of these studies, too, will furnish a content for language study.

Especially should we enrich the minds and hearts of our children by a fuller and more appreciative study of English literature, and enrich and improve their expression by careful daily practice in the use of the "mother tongue."

PRESIDENT ELIOT of Harvard urged that all experience shows that a foreign language, whether ancient or modern, should be begun as early as ten years of age, whereas the ordinary American school program made no provision for beginning any foreign language before the age of fifteen. He also thought it remarkable that the prevailing school program for cities actually prevented ninety-three per cent of the children from ever studying demonstrative geometry, although geometry was a subject lying at the very foundation of all the constructive and mechanical trades and arts. The generally accepted programs were, therefore, undemocratic; because they did not give every child capable of learning a foreign language or geometry a chance to take up these subjects at the proper ages. So far forth the city public school fails to reach the true democratic ideal; namely, for every child at each stage of progress every chance which he is capable of improving.

SCHOOL STATISTICS AND MORALS.

BY W. T. HARRIS, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

The question of the relation which school education bears to morals is a very old one, but it is always coming up again in some new form; and inasmuch as it is always profitable to inquire how we may make the school more effective in the direction of moral training, it is wise to have the question in some shape on every new program of this association of superintendents. Morals include a wide range of virtues, on the one hand bordering on the province of religion, and even over-lapping it in the case of such traits of character as hope, faith and charity—what the church calls celestial virtues to distinguish them from the secular virtues of prudence, fortitude, temperance and justice.

All kinds of well-wishing and well-doing towards our fellow-men come under divine charity or loving kindness. Under faith as a virtue come all those mental convictions which hold us to the theory of the supremacy of good in the universe, and under hope, as the

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third of the religious virtues, come all such acts or endeavors as we make on the side of the supreme good. Faith is the intellectual virtue and hope is the virtue of the will, while charity is the virtue of both intellect and will.

The lack of these celestial virtues produces what is called crime, because it sets the intellect and will and the heart against one's fellow-men—that is to say, against the social whole.

Very justly, then, do theologians claim that religious education in this broad sense is the foundation of the institutions of civilization. But it does not necessarily follow that the school should be an appannage of the church, or that anything but secular education should be attempted in it. This will depend upon the further question, whether the secular virtues and the secular work of the school are a real auxiliary to the good work of the church. If the habits taught in the school reinforce the spirit of kindness and mutual helpfulness towards one's fellows, if the intellectual studies aid in the spread of Christian doctrines, then the secular school has a moral tendency although it does not take up any direct functions of the church.

I think that the most scientific student of social science will admit that the school is no substitute for the church, and that a nation may possibly exist without a school, but that no nation can exist without a church. Even the savage tribes with their rudimental civilization have the rudiments of a church, and it occupies a far greater place in savage life than it does in the most advanced civilization. Religion dictates to the Indians of the Pueblos what figures they shall weave into their blankets and how they shall plant and harvest their corn. But the religion of the highest civilization permits and encourages the conquest of nature by science and art, and separates, one after the other, the cardinal institutions—the family, civil society and the state—from the direct control of the church and emanicipates them from its authority. Thus, Christianity is forever narrowing the circle of superstition and increasing the realm of enlightenment.

Right here, however, comes in the first appeal to statistics, and the first attack and defense of the school on the line of moral influence. It is supposed, on the one hand, that purely secular instruction in ideas and habits must be anti-religious and consequently tend towards vice and crime. On the other hand, it is claimed that purely secular instruction reinforces religion and exerts an influence repressive of vice and crime, although it does not include any theologic teaching. Statistics are collated to show that the majority of criminals in our jails have attended school for a longer or shorter period. Statistics are likewise quoted to show that those States

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which have the oldest and most efficient school systems have the largest number of criminals in their jails and State prisons. Assertions are made that education merely changes the character of the crime, for example, from robbery and theft, the crimes of the illiterate, to forgery and embezzlement or breach of trust, which are the crimes of those who have had school education. The returns of prisons and jails have been often studied with a view to get the facts in these particulars. Most teachers are familiar with the collation of statistics made on the census returns of 1870 by E. D. Mansfield and published in General Eaton's report of the Bureau of Education for 1872. The returns from prisons and jails of seventeen States, fourteen of which were Western or Middle States, gave an aggregate of 110,538 prisoners, of whom 27,581, or almost exactly twenty-five per cent, were illiterate, or not able to write.

The fact that three-quarters of all the prisoners could read and write and had had some schooling looked serious enough to challenge the good influence claimed for the schools. If school education is adverse to crime, why should not the statistics show that a majority of the prisoners are illiterate?

At this point the subject was taken up by those who understood arithmetic, and the question was modified so as to ask whether a given number of illiterates in the population furnished as many criminals as the same number of persons who could read and write. Put in this shape the answer was intelligible.

The illiteracy of the population in the seventeen States which furnished the twenty-five per cent of illiterate criminals was about four per cent, according to the census of 1870. This four per cent of the population furnished twenty-five per cent of the criminals, and the ninety-six per cent who could read and write furnished only seventy-five per cent. If one per cent of the illiterates had furnished only one per cent of the criminals it would appear that education made no difference in regard to crime. But the illiterates furnished more than six times their quota, while those who could read and write furnished one-fifth less than their quota, and the ratio of the two was one to eight. A thousand illiterates on an average furnished eight times as many prisoners as the same number who could read and write.

This result worked out with much uniformity where the same degree of accuracy in keeping statistics prevailed. The very small quotas of illiterates in Iowa, Kansas and Minnesota gave more than eight times their share of criminals, while the three Southern States included in the seventeen were reported as having twenty-two per cent of illiterates in the population and as having fifty per cent of illiterate criminals, thus showing the illiterates to have five and one-third times their proper share of criminals.

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Within the past ten years many of the jails and reformatories have published comparative tables, showing results for a term of years, during which accurate records have been kept. These are, of course, more valuable than the returns for any single year because inequalities and unusual conditions are eliminated. In 1887, for instance, the jail at Detroit gave a summary for twenty-five years, showing an aggregate of 40,338 committals, of whom 28,652 could read and write and 11,686 could not write. This gives eight times the quota of criminals to the illiterates, because in the total population of the State there were less than five per centum of illiterates.

To be mentioned as foremost among institutions keeping and publishing accurate and discriminating records in these matters are the Illinois Penitentiary at Joilet, the Elmira Reformatory of New York, the New York Juvenile Asylum and the Eastern Penitentiary of Pennsylvania.

The main point in the interpretation of criminal statistics is to consider the ratio between the number of criminals furnished by a given number of illiterates as compared with a like number who can read and write. We must consider not only the numerators, but also the denominators of our fractions in order to get at the true value.

But there are other important items which some future census taker will give us; for example, the number of persons who can read and write but who are so poorly equipped as to be very ignorant. In the statistics taken in the better class of our jails and prisons a good classification of prisoners prevails. In 1870 the illiterate and the very deficient amounted to sixty per cent of the prisoners according to the returns from New York and Pennsylvania; to fifty per cent in those from Minnesota, Iowa, Kansas and California; to seventy-five per cent in those from Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin; to eighty-five per cent in those of Maryland, Kentucky and South Carolina.

Many keep careful statistics in regard to previous condition of industry, the character of parents, the time of leaving home, the state of health. A large proportion of criminals were orphans or have left home at a tender age. Many have been brought up by criminal parents; very many have never learned how to work at an honest and honorable occupation.

The question of the prevention and cure of crime is a very complicated one, having many co-operative causes besides that of defect of schooling. But that schooling is a very powerful influence is made probable by these statistics, and it is made certain by considering its nature.

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Stated in a word, every school demands good behavior and most teachers succeed in securing it. Good behavior means respect for the rights of others, and regularity, punctuality, self-restraint and industry at mastering the thought, or at least memorizing the words, of learned and scientific men. It is this requirement of good behavior that secures the moral influence of the school. It is questionable whether set moral lessons produce the desired effect, but obedience to the rules of good order insures moral habits.

This, of course, develops power of self-control. It gives power of inhibiting mere natural impulses and passions and of choosing higher motives. Even selfish motives become purified as they become more general in their scope and bearing, and a perfectly wise selfishness would adopt the golden rule.

To those who have objected to secular education as tending to fill our jails with educated criminals, the defenders of the schools have pointed significantly to the statistics of religious education among criminals which are beginning to be kept in a great number of jails and prisons. For instance, in the Detroit jail, in twenty-five years, there were reported, 37,089 out of 40,838 as having religious training against 2,249 who had none. Of the religious influences, 15 had been under Mormon training, 69 under Jewish, and the remaining 37,000 about equally under Protestants and Roman Catholic training.

In the Elmira reformatory in twelve years those reported as having no religious training were only seven per cent; with Hebrew training, five per cent; with Protestant, forty-two per cent; and with Catholic, forty-six per cent.

In the reports from 200 jails in the United States with about 55,000 prisoners last year (1892), in reply to an inquiry made by the Bureau of Education, over one-half reported religious training of prisoners: 10,376 with none; 9,934 with Protestant; 163 with Jewish; 9,115 with Catholic training.

I quote these facts to show how statistics may mislead a person who does not consider the qualitative as well as the quantitative side.

It would be preposterous to think that the training of the church or the Sunday-school could tend towards the production of criminals. The doctrine of self-sacrifice for others, the example of the Son of God who suffered, the perfect for the imperfect; no one can conceive a more powerful lesson to distrain the youth from a criminal career. The Jewish instruction in the ten commandments would produce righteousness instead of crime. And yet the neophyte in statistics would say that the ninety-two per cent of criminals in Detroit who had received religious instruction made a bad showing for

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religious education. But he would say this only because he is a neophyte and omitted his denominator, like the bad arithmeticians who have been decrying public education in the magazines and reviews and comparing numerators without a glance at their denominators.

The religious statistics would read when the denominators are applied somewhat as follows: The ninety-two per cent of criminals who have had some religious instruction have been furnished by the ninety-eight or ninety-nine per cent of the whole population who have been under religious instruction, while the eight per cent of criminals without previous religious teaching represent the one or two per cent of their class in Michigan. And none of the criminals came there through religious teaching, but because they neglected its counsels.

The attack on school education as increasing the number of convicted criminals—an increase proved by the returns from the different States—has brought forward a new phase of the question.

Educators will remember the brilliant attack, led by Richard Grant White, some years ago, in the "North American Review," and recently an article in the "Popular Science Monthly," by Mr. Reece. These have been replied to, the former by Dr. Philbrick in the "North American Review," and by Prof. B. F. Tweed in a valuable pamphlet; that of Mr. Reece was well answered by Mr. H. H. Clayton, who quoted the interesting analysis of criminal records in Massachusetts published by Mr. David C. Torrey, in "Lend a Hand" for January, 1890.

Massachusetts, it was said, committed to its jails and prisons only 8,761 persons in 1850, while in 1885 it committed 26,651, or nearly three times as many. In 1850, only one person to 113 inhabitants; in 1885, one to seventy-two. This evidently demanded a qualitative inquiry. What crimes are on the increase? Mr. Torrey classified them, first, under two heads, and found that the crimes against person and property were, on an average, from 1865 to 1870, one to 301 inhabitants, while from 1880 to 1885 they were one to 436; thus showing a decrease in serious crimes of forty-four per cent. The second heading was commitments for crimes against order and decency, and these had increased largely.

Investigating further into these crimes against order and decency, Mr. Torrey found that they were mostly cases of drunkenness. The commitments for drunkenness in 1850 were only 3,341, while in 1885 they had risen to 18,701. The commitments for all other crimes than drunkenness in 1850 amounted to one for 183 inhabitants and in 1885 to only one for 244 inhabitants. The average from 1850 to 1865 was one to 174 inhabitants, while the average from 1870 to 1885 was one to 241 inhabitants, for other crimes than drunkenness.

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This showing completely turned the tables on that class of sensational or emotional writers who deal with what I call hysterical statistics. Person and property have become more safe in Massachusetts. Between 1865 and 1885 commitments for crimes against them decreased forty-four per cent, allowing for increase of population. The decrease was greatest in crimes against property, but there was a decided decrease of crimes against person. But while person and property have become safer in twenty-five years drunkenness is not nearly so rare; the prisons and jails are crowded with intemperate people, who were formerly allowed to go unmolested through the streets and country roads.

The fact that person and property have become more secure on the whole is very significant, when we consider the fact that the numerous cities of Massachusetts afford hiding places for burglars who raid on the small villages of the rural part of the State by night and escape to the city by railroad before morning. Any species of crime that goes unpunished tends to increase and to multiply criminals. Hence, rural districts in the vicinity of the large cities of the Middle and Eastern States suffer more from this species of marauding than any other portion of the United States, not even excepting the borderland.

Of the secular virtues, justice is particularly concerned in this matter of crime. It has two phases, honesty and truth-speaking, that are particularly cultivated in good schools. Temperance is a virtue which the school helps to some extent. Fortitude is developed by self-restraint in the school. Prudence or providence is the special virtue of thrift, and the school nurtures this by increasing intelligence and skill in productive industry.

On the question of the promotion of these virtues by the school, I desire to cite the statistics of thrift in favor of the State that gives the largest amount of schooling to each inhabitant.

It is surprising to the person who has not become familiar with the facts to learn that the total number of years' schooling that each person on an average is getting in the United States is only four and three-tenths, nearly four years of this being furnished by public, and less than six-tenths years by private schools. But the amount that Massachusetts is giving is six years and eighty-six hundredths, or two and one-half years more than the general average. There are only five States that give over six years on an average to their whole population. These are first Massachusetts, next New York, third Connecticut, fourth Ohio, fifth Rhode Island. The average for the whole nation is about equal to the primary school course of four years.

I quote these statistics to point out a connection between education and industry.

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The total production of the labor of the people of the United States for 1880 was about forty cents apiece per day for each man, woman and child; but the production of Massachusetts with its average of seven years of schooling for each inhabitant was nearly double that of the average for each inhabitant of the whole nation. I have made on different bases three estimates, using the data given by Col. C. D. Wright in his census of the State for 1885. The lowest estimate gives sixty-eight per cent more than the national average, the second eighty-four per cent; the third and best one exactly one hundred per cent. The population of Massachusetts is four per cent and its production is eight per cent of that of the whole nation. Who that looks at modern productions of industry and considers how much of it is due to machinery, and considers further the dependence of machinery for its management on alert and educated intelligence, can fail to see the relation of the schools of Massachusetts to its phenomenal production of the items of wealth.

The virtue of prudence or productive industry insures the existence of other virtues, such as temperance and honesty. For the fact that the people of a State have arrived at the stage of political conscience that they attack not only the crime, but also its source in such vice as intemperance, implies an advance also in regard to many virtues. And cannot the well-kept schools claim a large share in producing these favorable moral conditions?

GRADING THE COUNTRY SCHOOL.

BY HENRY SABIN, DES MOINES, IOWA.

We protested against the word "graded" when we consented to read this paper. It was most unfortunate that the word was ever used in connection with country schools. No greater misfortune could befall the country school than to impose upon it the limitations as to grading and courses of study which characterize city systems.

Any system devised for the betterment of country schools will fail unless it keeps constantly in mind the peculiar necessities and demands which are inseparable from the conditions of rural life.

Neither can we afford to adopt for the country school any system which impedes the progress of the pupil through enforced compliance with arbitrary rules or through an attempt to find an average standard which will do no violence to the dullest or brightest intellect in the class. Further than this, it cannot be denied that there has been

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an attempt, especially in suburban districts, to pattern their schools too closely after those in the adjoining city.

Conceding these points, which have never been disputed, I discard the term "graded" as in no sense appropriate to the country school. It will not be so used in this paper.

We have two questions for consideration: one, that of organization, the other, of administration. Given a country school of twenty-five pupils: which is the better state for that school, organization or disorganization? Is it better that the teacher should instruct the pupils individually or in classes? In answering the question, take into consideration the good of the school as a whole as well as the right of the individual pupil. If it is the better way to instruct them individually, giving each his due proportion of attention, then we can form no argument in favor of gathering them in classes. The answer to this has been very tersely and correctly stated by the most eminent educational authority in the "Nation." I quote it with pleasure: "The numerous recitations which this involves give the teacher only a brief time for each. Five minutes for a grammar lesson do not admit of the discussion of the grounds and reasons, or of anything fundamental, and the teacher is liable to resort to requiring only memory work, as that alone can be tested in the least time." That is sound.

If, however, the latter way is the better, then we have the foundation for our argument. The day the teacher begins to gather the pupils in classes, to form a regular program to which she intends to adhere, giving a certain amount of time to the first class in arithmetic and the second class in arithmetic; to the first class in reading and the second class in reading, she begins to classify her school; the only question being, shall it be done in accordance with a well-devised, rational and permanent method, or in accordance with the whims and notions of each succeeding teacher.

It is objected that, in this system of gathering the pupils in classes, there are some evils which creep in, and that, therefore, it is not an ideal school. We reply that the ideal school is an impossibility. The same is true of an ideal education. Whoever attempts the attainment of an ideal upon paper ever finds that in order to reach his standard he must sacrifice some things which are in themselves desirable in order that he may reach other things which are more desirable. Throughout the entire process of construction he finds himself confronted by the question: "Which of the two is the better?" This is the exact condition of the country school question. No one offers classification as a remedy for every evil. It is simply a question of means: which is the better, organization or disorganization;

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system or no system; an orderly procedure in the studies, or an irregular procedure, unrestricted by method, plan or limitation?

It is evident, then, that the classified school in the country is not an ideal school, neither is the very best graded school; neither would one be if conducted in accordance with the Lancastrian system, whatever that may imply. It is evident, further, that in every organized school something of the individuality of the pupil must be sacrificed. It cannot be otherwise. We do well when we reduce the sacrifice to the minimum. The same condition is true in the government and discipline of the school. Something of individual liberty of the child must be sacrificed for the good of the whole body. It is a rule which prevails everywhere, whenever men or children are associated under one government, as in society, or subjected to the control of one person, as in the school. We may as well, then, at the outset abandon all thought of devising a scheme of organization to which there can be no possible objection, and content ourselves with that one which seems best under existing circumstances. Perfection is not an attribute of humanity in this nineteenth century. Neither does any one desire to put the children of the country school into straight jackets in order to regulate their progress, nor into swaddling bands in order to produce symmetry at the expense of intellectual growth. In short, classification in the country school is not calculated to induce mental ossification, as many seem to fear.

It is a mistake, as it seems to me, that the discussion of this subject, which began at Saratoga last summer, assumed from the outset a very narrow phase. Hitherto it has had reference only to the welfare of a few exceptionally bright or exceptionally dull pupils in the school. It is capable of a much broader discussion, involving other material points.

The organization of the country school includes as its basis the adoption of the township, and not the district, as the unit; the management of the schools in the township by the entire board; the election of teachers by this school board, and their assignment to particular schools in accordance with the ability of each one to meet the needs of location.

This is an essential point in the organization of the country school, if classification is to reach its highest degree of success. In order to accomplish the best results district lines must be abolished, the township divided into wards like the city, the number of schools lessened, with a corresponding increase in the character and efficiency of the instruction given. There can be no intelligent discussion of the subject without reference to this vital point.

Organization also requires the use of a course of study formulated by some competent authority. It is a mistake that the attempt has

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often been made to base such a course upon that of some city. The conditions and environments of the country schools are radically different from those of the town. The country school needs a broader, all-round teacher, and the course of study should be much more flexible. Many things may be put into the form of suggestions, and all non-essential points should be left to the discretion of the teacher. Yet there should be certain ends set forth to be aimed at in each branch; certain clearly defined steps to be taken; certain carefully designated lines to be followed; and the teacher should be rigidly held accountable for results. Such a course may be so formed as to preserve to a large extent the individuality of the pupil, and, what is of equal importance, the individuality of the teacher. The crowning glory of the country school hitherto has been the free contact of the teaching mind with the minds of those taught, and there is nothing calculated to lessen this in the process of classifying the school.

I wish not to be misunderstood upon this point. When the course of study tends to unify and simplify the work, the effort is in the right direction. When it prescribes an undeviating line, a straight furrow in which teacher and pupil must walk Indian file, it works only evil. It may be made so helpful and suggestive as to add to the teacher's self-reliance; it must not be so minute and imperative as to form a convenient crutch upon which indolence or ignorance hobbles over the ground. It should set forth what parts of each branch demand the most attention and the essential relations of the various steps through which the pupils must advance. It should be so framed as to render it easy for a pupil passing from the country to the city to find a place in the grades with little loss of time. It may be objected that such a course of study is useless unless it determines something. The trouble hitherto has been that our courses of study have determined too much.

The force of the objection, however, rests very largely upon the character of the teacher. Sir William Hamilton says that the primary principle of education is the determining the pupil to self-activity. But there can be no self-activity on the part of the pupil without a corresponding self-activity on the part of the teacher. The course of study which is most desirable for the country school is one which gives the teacher something about which to think, as well as something to do; which awakens him to newness of life; which gives him a sense of freedom and strength; which maps out the course, points out the destined harbor, but leaves him to navigate his own ship.

An additional factor in the organization of the school consists in a set of records accurately kept and preserved as the property of the district. The department of public instruction should prepare

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and issue them; they should be uniform and their use compulsory in all parts of the State. The statistics which are gathered in many States from the country school are comparatively worthless because of defective records made by the teacher. This evil cannot be corrected until the schools are organized upon a common basis. The records need not be intricate, but they should be so definite that a teacher going into a new district would find the school organized and ready for work.

This permanent organization is calculated to add strength, stability, efficiency and dignity to the office of the country school teacher. These three points, then, seem essential to the organization of the classified country school: (1) The township as the unit. (2) A course of study compiled with special reference to the wants of the country schools, and its use made obligatory by school authorities. (3) A set of records designed to show the same facts in each school; their use also being obligatory. Examinations, promotions, graduation exercises are not essential. Their use has been found to be beneficial in many cases, stimulating the ambition of both pupil and parents, increasing the average attendance, and inducing pupils to complete the entire course; but the classified school could be carried on without them.

If we may believe the universal testimony of men and women who have studied this question from an experimental standpoint, this organization has resulted in an increased attendance, in an awakened and more liberal public sentiment, in better buildings, in better teachers, and in breaking up the feeling of isolation which has hitherto been so bitterly felt by the country school teacher. The attempt to discredit their testimony is simply the plea of the lawyer who must either break down the evidence of the opposing witness or lose his case.

Up to this point we have not attempted any diagnosis of the disease which is said to afflict the classified country school. We have contented ourselves with a rapid review of the environments which surround the patient. The nature of the disease, however, which is so much dreaded is not very obscure. It consists simply in that state of stagnation which is supposed to accompany any attempt to reduce the school to the dead level of uniformity. It is feared that some of the brightest pupils will waste their time in doing nothing, and that many of the dullest pupils will be thrown into a high fever in their attempts to keep up with them.

This is all there is to the disease, and it ought not to be very difficult to find the needed remedies. The administration of the country school is very closely allied to its organization, and is at least of equal importance. It concerns the duties of the teacher, the

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rights of the children, and the claims of the public. It is true that in the life of a teacher who is quick to apprehend the situation, accurate in conclusions, prompt in action, there will occasionally come a crisis in school affairs when an ounce of common-sense is worth a pound of rules and regulations. The administration of the classified school should not weaken the individual power of the teacher or render him less ready to meet emergencies when they arise.

Nor is it in any way calculated to hinder or impede the progress of the pupils. To put this in an affirmative rather than in a negative form, the administration of the classified school must afford the pupil the greatest possible advantage for the prosecution of his studies during the time of his attendance. He should upon entering be assigned to that class in any study which offers him the greatest opportunities for improvement. He should, when he can devote but a few weeks to his school, take only such studies as are of immediate importance. He should be allowed to attend the school one-half of each day if imperative duties demand his attention elsewhere during the other half. In short, the administration must be such as will render the school most useful to the scholar. "But these remedies will not meet all the cases." They will meet a great majority of them and leave the patient in a healthy condition. The organization of the country school, the pupils in different stages of advancement being in one room and under one teacher, admits of great latitude in the choice of studies and classes. The classification of the school is not affected in the least by this. Nothing can be plainer or more simple or more practical, and as it meets the wants of a majority of the pupils it has proved highly satisfactory.

There is, however, a form of this disease which is supposed to be fatal. At least prominent school men tell us that there is no remedy for it in the educational pharmacopœia; the only safety is in quarantining the country school against anything which looks to uniformity of organization.

There is a point here which we ought to keep carefully in mind. The classes in the different schools in the township are in a measure independent of each other. If the third class in arithmetic in district No. 1 have finished the work assigned them six weeks before the close of the year, they are not kept marking time while a duller class in district No. 2 is finishing the work, but they may go on at once with the work of the next section.

Neither are the classes in these classified schools necessarily kept one year apart. The space of time between the classes varies in different schools, and at different times in the same school. The course of study is used as a guide and a stimulant, but not as a fetter.

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The same is true as regards individual pupils. There may be no eighth grade in the school. The bright boy in the seventh who must leave school in a few months, and who desires to finish the course and obtain his certificate should receive both encouragement and aid from his teacher. I do not believe in keeping classes or individuals marking time. It is a sin on the part of the teacher which can hardly be atoned for. I have said too much in past years against this crime of crimes in the graded schools to wish to see it introduced into those of the country. These classified schools are not in any sense types of the old fashioned graded schools, although the objectors are determined that they are, must be, and shall be in order to sustain their objections. Each pupil is given credit for all that he does. If in the fourth section he is able to do more work than is allotted to his class, he is given supplemental work, or work in the same book in advance, or he may occupy his time in bringing up his standing in some study in which he is deficient. There is no occasion for any waste of time, and when the term ends his record shows just what he has accomplished.

We have been told that in the ungraded school there is a chance for the bright and industrious pupil to make good progress by the aid of a good text-book and without much help from his teacher. That is true; and it is equally true in the classified school, while he has the added incentive of knowing that when the term for him ends he is credited with all the work he has done.

The Educational Council of California at their late session came to these conclusions: "When the intervals of promotion are unnecessarily long, the strong and the weak pupils alike suffer." That is good educational doctrine; no one disputes it. Again: "The right of promotion is earned the instant a pupil proves his power to do the work of the grade next higher." That is pedagogy reduced to common sense. These principles are at the very foundations of the system of the classified country schools. The bright pupil has his promotion as soon as he earns it, if no other member of the class is ready for it. But he is encouraged to take the work along in regular order, without progressing in one branch at the expense of some other and to pass successively from one step to the next. Its tendency is to prevent one-sidedness in his education.

The question will be asked here: "What will you do with the extremely dull pupil?" "In case the classes are some distance apart what shall be done with the boy who finds it difficult to keep his place?" It is a perplexing question in the graded as well as the ungraded school. Separating the classes by intervals of ten weeks does not answer it. The boy who has dropped from the A back into the B class needs just as much nagging as he did before. Drop

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him back into the C class and he will do nothing without nagging. If his dullness comes from his laziness then he might as well be nagged in the A class as in any; if it comes from incompetency, then each individual case must be settled on its merits as it comes up. One-half of the worry and trouble over dull pupils comes from our fruitless efforts to make a peck measure hold a bushel. Neither would this question be settled by going back to the method of individual instruction, for then the dull pupil would have only his proportional share of time and attention. The Lancastrian system might benefit the bright pupils, but it would be disastrous in the extreme to the dull ones. The evil of the uncultured teacher is bad enough. How much would it be lessened by substituting as a monitor the half-grown boy or girl who has not finished the course of the country school? If any one thinks that the best remedy for the disorganized condition of the country school is increased disorganization, let him try the experiment and the educational world will wait patiently for the results. The worth of theory is best determined by applying to it the touchstone of experience. But the question is asked, and that I may make no mistake I quote it: "In a class in arithmetic containing pupils some of whom are two years in advance of others, is it possible for the teacher to hold the pupils responsible for their work?" It is very easy to frame a question so that only one answer is possible. "In a kindergarten containing children under five years old in which the study of the differential calculus has taken the place of Froebel's gifts, would it be possible for the teacher to interest the children in their work?" One question is just as reasonable as the other, and neither admits of anything but a negative answer. In each question the conditions are such as were never dreamed of. It is true that at first the organization is crude and the administration defective. The classification is in the rough, if I may use that expression. The work of classifying the country school, like that of grading the city system, is a growth and not a creation. It is a gradual process. As the older pupils drop out, the younger come up with the classes and the work of classification becomes each year more natural and effective. Teachers become more skillful, pupils more responsive, parents more appreciative, and the results more certain.

Probably, however, the time will never come in the country school when it will not be necessary to make provision for a class of irregular pupils, whose needs are as great as their opportunities have been limited.

The question will be asked: How is this classified school an improvement on the classified school of fifty years ago? In some things not any. In fact, it is a return, in part, to first principles. I

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well remember a school in New Hampshire in a little village under the shadow of the Grand Monadnock. Of all the pupils there, but few are left to tell the story of life's struggles; some have slept for years in the graveyard of their native town; the soldiers' monument that stands on the common where we played when we were boys, bears the names of others who went out to battle and returned no more. That school was as thoroughly classified as any school of to-day. No new teacher thought of turning us back in our lessons, and every scholar went at once to his place when his class was called. To be put into a lower class was a punishment for idleness, and to be allowed to recite in any branch with the next higher class was the highest honor. It was no unusual thing in that school for a boy, sometimes several of them, to work in advance of his class and to make his way through the intricacies of "Adams' Arithmetic" without help from the master. What was true of that school was true of others, and I have yet to learn that they were like similar schools "in Iowa, Missouri, Illinois, Massachusetts, and nearly all the Northern States, stiflers of talent." In a word, we have taken some of the best things from the graded schools, and adapted them to the wants of the country schools; and we have at the same time endeavored to preserve the best things which dominated the old-fashioned country school, and gave it its strength as a promoter of knowledge and a former of character.

The system is open to criticism and is liable to be abused, as what part of our educational system is not, from the stately halls of Harvard to the little schoolhouse which to-day, perhaps, is beleagured by the blizzard of the bleak Western prairie.

Many of the teachers are uncultured, yet they make the best of their opportunities. In Iowa, at least, the country school teachers out of their scanty resources sustain the normal institutes at a cost of over $50,000 annually. It is a disgrace to the State, but it speaks volumes for the teachers. Hundreds of earnest men and women are looking to this plan of organization and administration of the classified school as the most hopeful sign of the times. What they have seen they know. It will not do to pass it by as an idle tale when they say that the rural school can be so arranged and classified that the work of the individual pupil may be regular, systematic and progressive.

They accept criticism in the kindly spirit in which it is given; they regard it as wholesome since it puts them on their guard against evil practices which have a tendency to creep in. But they repel anything like wholesale denunciation; they are not yet ready to believe they are in the broad way which leads to destruction, while wisdom shows a narrow path with here and there a few lone travelers.

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THE GRADED SYSTEM OF THE RURAL SCHOOLS OF NEW JERSEY.

BY HON. ADDISON B. POLAND, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, TRENTON, N. J.

So far as I am able to ascertain, New Jersey is entitled to the distinction of being the first State to attempt a systematic and uniform grading of rural schools. It is for this reason, I dare say, and not because the system possesses any special novelty or superior merit, that I have been requested by the president of the department to present briefly its history and essential features. I have said that the New Jersey system is the oldest. This assertion is based upon the fact that in June, 1872, twenty-one years ago, Supt. F. R. Brace established a uniform course of study in all the schools of Camden county. This course included, besides the ordinary common school branches, book-keeping, United States history, algebra, physiology, physics and English composition. At the outset no provision was made for a system of uniform county examinations, the issuing of certificates and diplomas, nor for public graduating exercises. All these features were introduced by Superintendent Brace in the succeeding three or four years.

While the Camden county system was still an experiment, Supt. S. R. Morse adopted a system of grading for the schools of Atlantic county. Having assisted Superintendent Brace in organizing the Camden county system, he knew its defects and sought to remedy them in his own county system. He inaugurated a number of important changes to make the Atlantic county system not only more complete, but more flexible and better adapted to all classes of schools. district, village and city.

At about this time, also, several other counties adopted a system of uniform grading. Superintendent Terhune of Bergen county, at the northern end of the State, though one of the last to adopt a graded system, has perfected it almost beyond precedent.

It should be here stated that, under the New Jersey school law, county superintendents have the power, by and with the approval of the trustees, to prescribe a uniform course of study for their respective counties. For this reason, among others, a uniform State system has never been adopted. It has been thought best by my predecessors to leave the matter of grading entirely in the hands of the county and city officers, and to discourage the adoption of a uniform State system on the ground that a uniform State system for rural schools is no more needed than a uniform State system for city schools. A

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careful comparison, then, of the several county systems will show the following to be the essential features of most of them:

1. *A Course of Study Consisting of Five Grades.*—The first four grades cover all the work usually done in the primary and grammar schools of our best city systems; the last, the work of the first two years of the ordinary high school. This course is little more than a general outline of studies. It does not go into details in any subject. In no case does it give more than the proper sequence of topics. It aims, also, to fix only approximately the time at which the work of any grade may be completed.

This latter is important, since to fix definitely the time for the completion of a grade would be fatal to the system; it would not leave sufficient latitude for the special needs of particular schools. So also a detailed program would tend to narrow and mechanize the work as in some cities where it is the bane of the system.

By creating few grades it becomes possible for both rural and city schools to work together under the same course, since any sub-classification that the local conditions or exigencies of each district or city demand may be made within these grades. While thus serving in a measure to unify the schools of a county, this system of grading does not reduce them to the inflexible, cast-iron classification which is so objectionable in many of our city systems.

In my opinion this happy division of the course into five grades (four below the high school and one high school), each representing about two years' time for the average pupil, is the fundamental and saving feature of the New Jersey system. Eight or nine annual grades, as in the cities, would be impossible in rural schools; a greater number, still more impossible. Such a classification would give rise to annual or semi-annual promotions, which are entirely out of the question in most rural schools. But five grades, on the other hand, with no stated time for completion, break up this system of periodic promotions. Bright pupils not infrequently cover the entire course below the high school in six or even five years' time. So also a pupil may be at one and the same time in two or more grades according to his scholarship and capacity. It will be seen, therefore, that this grading by biennial periods interferes in nowise with the proper classification of pupils; it leaves the door open for all the intermediate grades or classes which local or occasional conditions make desirable or necessary. It is not unusual, for example, to find two, or even three, sub-classes in each grade in arithmetic, grammar or other principal study; this will depend wholly upon the number of pupils in the school, their comparative proficiency and the time at the teacher's disposal. So far from holding back bright pupils, the chief danger of the New Jersey system has been found to lie in its enabling them

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to get on too rapidly. To counteract this tendency to complete the course too early, it has been found necessary in nearly every county to adopt a rule that no pupil shall be allowed to graduate under the age of thirteen or fourteen years. The point to be clearly apprehended is this: that the system of grading under discussion is not for the purpose of reducing to a minimum the number of classes, but for directing, and especially for vitalizing, the work of a school by the additional incentives that it introduces, as will be seen hereafter. In theory at least every pupil is working wherever he can work to the best advantage; if otherwise, it is not the result of the system, but of the natural and unavoidable conditions that limit the time of the teacher, and consequently the number of recitations she is able to hear. It may be said, however, that the tendency of the system is to reduce somewhat the number of daily recitations common in ungraded schools.

2. *The Work of the County Superintendent.*—The second essential feature of this system is that it broadens the work of the county superintendent. The success of a school depends largely upon the ability and intelligence of the teacher; the success of any system of grading, whether city or rural, depends also in a great measure upon the superintendent. This does not imply, however, that some systems are not better than others. Some may be run with less friction; some produce better results than others. The graded system under discussion needs just as careful supervision to make it efficient as a city system. Many, if not most, of the evils that attend the closely graded city system also appear in the ungraded rural schools. Thus, for instance, "marking time" will be found in its worst form, not in the city but in the ungraded country schools.

I well remember how the district school teacher of my boyhood days always started the advanced class in arithmetic at common fractions. This enabled us to get on to percentage, say, at the end of the term. At the beginning of the next term it was the same old story,—"The first class in arithmetic will begin at common fractions." But in rural schools this evil of "marking time" is not due as in the city systems to annual or semi-annual grading, but rather to no grading. The tendency of rural schools is always towards too many classes for economy in teaching; of the city systems towards too few. There is a point where the two extremes meet. I believe it is found, so far as rural schools are concerned, in the system under discussion. But no system will make careful and intelligent supervision unnecessary. One of the chief advantages claimed for the grading of rural schools is that it compels and encourages the county superintendent to live in the saddle, so to speak; to visit, inspect and supervise his schools with indefatigable industry and untiring zeal.

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3. *Uniform County Examinations.*—It was early found in the history of the New Jersey system that uniform examinations could be made an important and valuable accessory. These are held annually at or near the close of the school year. The questions are made out by the county superintendent. The examinations are conducted in the several schools by the principal or regular class teacher, by whom also the papers of the lower grades are all first examined and marked. The results are tabulated and sent to the county superintendent. In most counties, also, the papers of the three upper grades are submitted to the county superintendent, who is assisted in reviewing them by a county board of examiners.

By all who object to stated examinations this feature of the New Jersey system will be regarded as a defect. We must not, however, lose sight of the fact that examinations in rural schools are less frequent than in city schools and are looked upon with much greater favor by both pupils and teacher. Properly conducted they are not only a great incentive to pupils and teachers, but are anticipated with pleasure. The chief objection to examinations as ordinarily conducted is that a pupil's promotion depends thereon. Remove this feature, as may be done under this system, and examinations are no longer a bugbear. A pupil's promotion at the end of a given period under this system will depend upon the conditions that prevail when new classes come to be formed. The county examination will be only one factor of many to determine this result.

It is not improbable, however, that under certain conditions a system of county grading, just as a system of city grading, could be carried on successfully without examinations. Where, for instance, principal, teacher and pupils are doing the best they can, the spur of an examination is not necessary. But it is not true, in my opinion, that examinations are always and necessarily an evil. They have their proper place in a school system; not their use but their abuse is to be deplored; they can be made so comprehensive as to render cramming impossible; they can be so carefully and discreetly devised and conducted as to reduce deception and fraud to the barest minimum.

4. *Permanent and Systematic Records are Indispensable to this System.*—One of the most common defects to be noticed in ungraded schools is the lack of permanent records. The frequent change of teachers in rural schools make them especially necessary and desirable. Without them a new teacher, usually a novice, is compelled to make a re-classification of the school. The result is a woful loss of time both for those who are imprudently set back in their studies and compelled for the second or third time to go over the same ground and for those also who are quite as unfortunately pushed into water

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beyond their depth and left to flounder as best they may. A properly graded system makes necessary two sets of records; one the class records of each school, showing its peculiar classification and the proficiency of its pupils; the other the county records which certify the results of the official inspection and examinations made by its superintendent. The former enable a new teacher to organize her school with ease and dispatch; the latter enable her to compare her school with others of the same class in a town or county, and serve also as a general guide for framing a suitable program. Promotions, as a rule, are made upon the local class records; the official county records enable pupils removing to other districts in the county to be more readily classified.

5. *Certificates for Each Grade and a Final Diploma.*—Pupils who complete any grade receive a certificate bearing the signature of the county superintendent, district clerk, principal and teacher. Those who complete the four grades below the high school receive a diploma; the fifth or high school grade, a special diploma. I need not say that these certificates are highly prized in rural districts. To the child seven or eight years old the receipt of his first certificate is the greatest event in his life. Nor does the desire to gain these "papers" honors grow less until, at the age of fourteen or fifteen, the last in the series is secured. Some moralists will doubtless decry the practice that supplies to children and youth motives so base and unworthy. But are we not all of us chasing madly after some supposed good as useless and ephemeral when we get it, as the paper on which the child's certificate is writ? It is the present or immediate, and not the remote good that appeals to the child's interest. Time may come when these farmer boys will be found "Seeking the bubble reputation even in the cannon's mouth;" but now the height and breadth of their ambition is a roll of parchment. Who shall say which is the more laudable ambition, this or that? But moralizing aside, the influence of the county certificate on rural schools is an incentive to effort which can hardly be overestimated.

6. *Recognition of Diplomas by Higher Institutions.*—All graduates of the county course are admitted to the State normal school and to many city high schools without a re-examination. So, also, several colleges accept these county examinations in lieu of their own in the same subjects. This is an advantage not to be lightly estimated.

Such, then, in brief are the essential features of the New Jersey system of grading rural schools. A few words now as to the general working of that system. It was devised to correct certain evils and to secure certain definite ends. It should be judged, therefore, by its specific results.

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The principal evils which it aimed to reach and correct are the following:

1. *The Short Period of School Attendance.*—The entire school attendance of most children in the large cities does not exceed upon the average three to four years. In rural districts pupils attend through a longer period of years, but for fewer months in a year and with frequent lapses of one or more terms. The cause of this short period of school attendance is not infrequently the actual need of the child's labor at home; but quite as often it is due to an indifference on the part of the pupil himself. The value of an education is not realized by him. The end is too remote. Some more immediate end, such as securing a county diploma, is a more powerful incentive. Take a single county for instance. In Atlantic county, prior to the introduction of a graded system, fifteen years ago, not one person pursued advanced studies where twenty or more pursue them now. So also of matriculants at the normal school and colleges; the number has increased at least twenty-fold in the same period.

2. *Irregularity of Attendance.*—This is due to many causes, such as sickness, bad roads, need for pupil's help at home, etc. Experience has abundantly proved, however, that the principal cause of irregular attendance is lack of interest on the part of pupils. When deeply interested in school nothing but absolute necessity will keep them away. The county grading, with its system of examinations, certificates and diplomas, furnishes the necessary incentive to keep pupils in school.

3. *Untrained and Inexperienced Teachers.*—The small salaries paid in most rural districts compel the employment of untrained and inexperienced teachers. They need every help that can be devised. It is impossible for the county superintendent, owing to the extent of his district, to visit and advise with great frequency; hence reliance must be had upon some general directions. These are furnished by the course of study and the regulations that govern it.

4. *Frequent Change of Teachers.*—The average term of service of the country district teacher is less than two years; just time enough to undo the work of a predecessor, and not enough to establish a new regime. Hence, chaos is likely to prevail without the guidance and help afforded by some uniform system of grading. Grant that the most important need is the personal supervision of an intelligent and enthusiastic superintendent: in lieu of such supervision the county graded system is a necessity; with it an additional help.

5. *Large Number of Classes.*—This must always be an obstacle in the way of improvement of rural schools. It is the opposite extreme to the city system, where by reason of a larger number of pupils and the employment of a greater number of teachers advantage can be

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taken of a division of labor. There is a compensation, however, even in a large number of classes, since individual work, so rare in cities, is thus made necessary. Pupils are thereby thrown upon their own resources; hence the two principal evils incident to the city system of grading, to-wit, mechanical routine and "marking time" are less likely to arise. There is a happy mean to be found between too many classes and too few. The system of grading under discussion aims to find it.

6. *Lack of Esprit de Corps.*—The preceding conditions that I have mentioned tend without some corrective to reduce the *esprit de corps* of rural schools to the lowest ebb. There is little in the ungraded schools to fire the ambition or excite the love of the average boy or girl. True, history affords many examples of illustrious men and women who have flourished on such a soil. But history likewise fails to record the achievements of that far greater number whose buds of promise never opened in the cheerless atmosphere of the district school. Next to the intelligent, enthusiastic, skillful teacher the system of county grading with its records and diplomas will be found a most effective stimulus to arouse and foster a love for school.

In conclusion, it may be said that the conditions prevailing in rural districts are so unlike the conditions that prevail in cities that any *a priori* judgment, based on a knowledge merely of city needs, should carefully be scrutinized. The contention of Dr. Harris and others, that the greatest need of all schools, city or rural, is a frequent re-classification in order that all pupils may at all times find their normal level in the school curriculum, is not traversed by this paper. On the contrary, this need of frequent readjustment of classes is admitted. It is claimed, however, that the New Jersey system of grading rural schools makes this frequent re-classification possible, while affording certain additional advantages, such as comparative standards, approximate uniformity, and, especially, stimulus, so essential to intelligent organization, profitable instruction and effective supervision.

DISCUSSION.

COMMISSIONER W. T. HARRIS. — In this matter of grading in the country schools two items are involved. The first is that of making out a course of study by years or grades, laying down the work in each of the several branches and co-ordinating it in a proper manner. The amount of work that can be done within a year is ascertained by experience and so prescribed.

The second item in grading is the classification of the pupils. Often in the schools of cities as well as the schools of the rural districts the mistake is made

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of connecting the classification with the course of study in such a way that there is only one class for each grade, and so that there is an interval of a year's work between one grade and the next. So, too, in the rural schools, superintendents often arrange a course of three grades or five grades, and require the country schools to be classified so as to correspond with these grades. It happens, then, that in the country schools there are intervals greater than a year's work between one class and another.

Now, while the laying down of the course of study by grades is in every way a good thing, the classification of pupils in accordance with it leads often to great mischief. For classification is effected in such a way as to bring together pupils of widely different qualifications, and the consequence is that the lessons assigned for learning are too hard for the least advanced pupils, while they are too easy for the most advanced pupils in the class. It is thought sometimes that as grading is a good thing so classification is a good thing in and for itself. Whereas classification is a bad thing if the intervals between classes are too large. In all schools the work of instruction tends to develop differences. At the beginning of the year pupils are classified according to advancement as well as possible. After two months' work the more mature pupils, those who are quicker and more intelligent by nature, those who are more regular and industrious, begin to be able to get longer lessons than the less mature or sluggish intellects or those whose attendance is irregular on account of sickness and other causes. In a school where the intervals between classes are short and involve less than a half year's work, it is possible to promote a few of the best pupils into the next class above at intervals of two or three months. If the intervals involve a year's work, or more, such promotion is not feasible except in rare cases. The consequence is, that the extremes in the class are suffering from the want of adaptation of their lessons to their powers of achievement. The weaker and less competent pupils are dragged along by the average pupils, and the brightest and best pupils are held back by the same average. The poorest pupils become discouraged or "demoralized" (as the thing is described), while the brightest pupils are kept "marking time." The average in the class, amounting to perhaps more than one-half of the pupils, do not suffer materially. But the brightest pupils are kept in lower schools year after year when they should be going on into higher studies. Their pace must be reduced to the standard of the average. Hence intelligent college men have noticed the fact that the graded school system does not send its due quota of pupils into higher education. The public schools, by the process of holding back the bright ones, use up at least two years more than should be used in completing the elementary and secondary education. If the student is twenty or twenty-one years old before he completes the high school work, he is generally too old to think of going to college. This is a very serious charge against the public education, that it wastes the opportunities of the most talented and able of our youth. I have recently sent out inquiries to the various cities of the United States and obtained answers to several questions relating to class intervals.

Four hundred and sixteen cities have reported regarding the class intervals of their pupils in the twelve years of elementary and secondary instruction. More than half of these cities reported that the intervals are less than a year in the lowest grade, a smaller number report intervals of less than a year for all the classes in the elementary schools. Only 238 report a school year as the interval between classes in the highest grade of the elementary schools. In the high school or secondary instruction about one-sixth of the cities have shorter intervals than a year. Two hundred and forty out of 416 cities report decidedly that it is better to make the intervals between classes as small as can be done and secure classes of the normal standard in size, say twenty to thirty pupils in each.

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Two hundred and thirty-eight cities out of 416 report that it is the natural effect of classifying with intervals of a year or more between classes that the bright pupils are held back and not given work enough to develop their capacity, and that the teacher is obliged to expend the greater part of his time on the slow and less competent pupils.

Two hundred cities out of the 416 answer decidedly that this system discourages the less mature and the sluggish minds of the class, while it wastes the opportunities of the bright minds.

Two hundred and thirty-three cities out of 416 report that under the system of year-long intervals between classes the progress of the whole school is kept down to the pace of the average pupils, and in some cases to that of the slowest and weakest pupils.

Now, in the rural schools in those States where much has been done to extend the methods of city schools into the country, graded courses of study have been made out and there has been an attempt at classification.

Much benefit has undoubtedly arisen from the preparation of a course of study. But much injury has resulted from the attempt at classification. The teachers have been benefited by a course of study showing the average amount to be expected from pupils in a given grade through the fact that teachers who find themselves doing less work than that laid down in the grade have had occasion to question themselves regarding the efficiency of their methods, and this has led to improvement. On the other hand, those who have found that they were taking classes over more ground than the course of study required have had occasion to question the thoroughness with which they have been teaching the branches of study, and these have likewise been much profited by having their attention called to the normal amount. This, of course, is under the supposition that the superintendents and directors of education have set down, in their course of study, the actual average amount which could reasonably be expected of pupils.

Another very important advantage of a printed course of study, always provided that the course is well arranged, is this, that the country school teacher has in mind the proper branches which go to make up an elementary education. and can see how these branches should be co-ordinated, in what order taken up and what branches should go together.

But in the matter of classification, the tendency of grading country schools has led to the habit of bringing together, in one class, pupils one, two and three years apart in their grade of advancement, just for the sake of making classes of sufficient size. This has greatly damaged the work done in arithmetic and grammar.

The method adopted in many rural schools of allowing pupils to belong to one grade in one branch and another grade in another has not by any means wholly corrected this evil, for it has happened that that the highest class in arithmetic or grammar or geography, as the case may be, has in it pupils differing by one, two or three years' work from the lowest pupils. Of course, the system of grading in different classes in different subjects is a much better plan than the rigid grading which is practicable only for city schools.

In the old ungraded school the higher pupils often made classes of one individual each. The consequence was that the teacher had but very little time, five or six minutes perhaps, for discussing the merits of a lesson learned by the pupil. The teacher became a sort of overseer who looked out that each one in his school labored with due industry, and on occasions helped the pupil over difficult places. But the teacher could do, under such circumstances, very little in the way of teaching the proper methods of study. Grading and classification in schools has permitted much more time to be given to the recitation and to the teaching of proper

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methods of study. But where the classification has been poor and the teacher has been obliged to expend most of his time in goading on the laggard members of the class, it must be acknowledged that most of the benefit derived from the increase of time devoted to recitations has been lost or wasted.

HON. HENRY RAAB, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Ill.—If all teachers were properly prepared and educated for their work, the ends of education of the individual would be best served by a plan like this: When children have attained the age of six years, from fifteen to twenty of them are placed under a teacher who educates them until their fourteenth year. But, the world is not rich enough yet to follow this plan. The next best plan, provided the teacher's position is permanent, is to let one teacher educate the children of a district from the age of six to that of fourteen, having charge of all from their entering school to their final promotion. This is the so-called ungraded school as we have it still in rural districts. In villages and towns, where the number of children is too great to be instructed by one teacher, division of labor has to take place, and each teacher has charge of the education of only a part of this course. It becomes necessary then to fix the amount of work and time of the school period which each teacher has in charge, *i. e.*, to formulate a course of study.

With the growth of cities the school had to be graded, and courses of study extending over the eight grades of primary school work had to be worked out. This has been done somewhat in the same manner as the work in factories had to be assigned, as if we were dealing with matter, not with mind. We have worked out courses of study, prescribing carefully how much is to be done in each branch by the quarter, the month; yea, even the week. Not satisfied with this, we introduced a system of monthly or quarterly written examinations, in order to gauge the pupil's proficiency and express it in per cents.

After thus making the school work mechanical, and reducing the teachers to mere mechanics, we wonder how it is that the results are so inadequate; that the form merely, and not the substance is acquired by the children. When the teacher instructs by the text-book, and conducts the recitation by written question slips, we are astonished that the pupils can not express themselves in vigorous, good English; when composition writing is almost unknown in the courses, that they can not write an essay in the mother tongue.

Now it is proposed, also, to grade the rural schools, and to formulate courses of study for them in the same manner as we did for city school systems. My opinion is, that courses of study should, under all circumstances, be broad and elastic, suggestive rather than directive, even in city schools. In the country school, when the length of term is so different, the ages of pupils so varying, the course of study should give no more than the ends and aims, the results to be obtained, in long intervals, and not prescribe minutely for every quarter or month the attainments in every branch. The whole question, however, will be solved satisfactorily when the State insists that the teachers in the public schools must be educated in State normal schools; when a mere high school certificate, or a license based upon proficiency in scholarship is no longer a claim to be employed as teacher; when maturity of intellect and character will be the prerequisites for the teacher's position.

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SUPERVISION OF COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

BY HON. D. J. WALLER, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, PENNSYLVANIA.

When men sang,

> He who by the plow would thrive,
> Himself must either hold or drive;

a closer supervision of country schools by a judicious specialist was as improbable as a gang plow. The presence of a superintendent was then desired chiefly to prevent the exemplification of the truth, that "When the cat's away, the mice will play." But since those days organization has become a characteristic of industrial and of social, as well as of military life and of civil government. When each neighborhood had a school isolated from all others, men had not learned that, while on a farm of 500 acres it cost seventy cents to raise a bushel of wheat, it cost only forty-five cents on one of 50,000 acres. Now, economy in its highest, broadest sense demands for country as well as city schools not uniformity, but unity; courses of study, methods, the classification of pupils, the fixing of the requirement of teachers, the financial administration of schools, including the choice of grounds and erection and care of buildings,—all demand organization.

ORGANIZATION NECESSITATES SUPERVISION.

Until majorities in school boards are experts in school affairs, and willing to neglect private business to attend to that entailed by the position they hold, they will have to choose one to represent them in this work.

The features distinguishing the problem of supervision of country schools from that of city schools are, that the limit of the field is not defined, the resources for carrying on the work are less abundant, salaries of teachers are lower, terms are shorter, graded schools are fewer, the work in the boards and in the schools is far less systematic, directors are less experienced in public business, teachers are less permanent, schools are smaller and at greater distances from one another, the influence of the superintendent upon the directors is less, and the desire to secure cheap schools is stronger. How to secure efficient supervision under these circumstances is the problem.

THE DEFINING OF THE FIELD IS IMPORTANT.

It must be according to divisions easily recognized, because the united fields must cover the entire State. The field must be large

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enough to warrant the payment of such a salary as will secure a superintendent qualified for the position, and to give the dignity and influence that such an official should have. It should be large enough to supply the money and the number of workers necessary for successful conventions or institutes in order to stir up the people and create a strong, healthy sentiment in favor of good schools. On the other hand, the field must not be so large as to prevent the superintendent from having a personal knowledge of all its parts, and of the force engaged in it. The county meets these conditions more nearly than any other division. There should, therefore, be county superintendents.

The qualifications of this officer will in a great measure determine the quality of the schools. He should be a man of unquestioned morality, whose motives are known to be pure; one who will not tolerate the suggestion of trading teachers' certificates for votes, or pander to men who would work the schools for gain or who think more of the money paid in school taxes than of their children. He should be a man of courage, and, at the same time, of common sense, having broad educational views; one who will make it part of his business to raise the ideal of education in his county, and who, without fear of failure of re-election, will use all the means afforded by his office to lead the people and the boards to better schools. Strange as it may seem, it takes more courage to face the people after a vigorous, clean, faithful administration than it does to ask their suffrages after a penurious, truckling, unprogressive one.

The superintendent, in addition to being a man of such high moral character as will enable him to command the confidence of the public, should have two other qualifications. He should possess some measure of scholarship. No one should be eligible who does not possess a teacher's certificate of a high grade, issued at least one year before the election, or a college diploma. He should also be experienced in school affairs. Success in teaching, or in superintending, within three years of election should be regarded as essential, for the superintendent is the educational expert in the county. He is expected to know the salaries paid, the number of permanent certificates, and the number of schools to be supplied in the county. He, therefore, is well qualified to fix the standard for the lower certificates or licenses, so as to obtain the best teachers possible under the circumstances. Consequently, he should have sole authority to license the teachers who do not receive permanent certificates, and should have a voice in the awarding of certificates of all grades. He should be the responsible head, determining the qualifications of the great body of teachers in his county. He should be the adviser of both teachers and directors, or committeemen. He should visit the

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schools in person to note their excellences and their deficiences. He should gather the teachers and the public in convention or institute, that they may be stimulated in interest and that branches needing discussion may be presented by special instructors. The county superintendent should not have control of the salaries, of the employment of teachers, of the selection of books, of the plan or location of schoolhouses, or of any other local measure involving the expenditure of money. His power should be limited to the exclusion of unfit candidates for teaching, but his advice should be sought and freely given upon all such questions.

He should be an officer of the State. He should hold a commission from the State, should be paid out of the State treasury, and should report statedly to the State Department of Schools.

He should have a term of at least three years, so that he may carry out his plans and give consistency to the administration of affairs, and should be eligible to re-election.

The way he should be chosen is important. In order to keep the people in touch with school affairs, the office should be an elective and not an appointive office. In order to avoid the influence of political parties and to secure electors best fitted to make a choice, it is well to have the superintendent chosen by a *viva voce* vote of the majority in a convention of the whole number of directors or committeemen in the county. His compensation should be based on the amount of work to be done, which varies with the number of schools, the length of term, and the extent of territory. In Pennsylvania his salary cannot be less than $800 dollars. In counties having over 290 schools, or 1,200 square miles of territory, or a school term extending seven and a half months, it must be at least $1,500, and no more than $2,000 may be paid by the State; but the convention of directors which elects the superintendent may vote any additional sum, and it must be taken from the share of the county in the annual State appropriation.

In 1892, of the sixty-six county superintendents, five received less than $1,000; fifteen, $1,000; eighteen, $1,500; six, between $1,500 and $2,000; seven, $2,000; three, more than $2,000 and less than $4,000; and one, $4,000.

It is obvious that in many counties close supervision is by this means impossible. The remedy for this difficulty is not to be found in subdivision of the county and the election of an independent superintendent in each subdivision, because this necessarily reduces the salary, results in the election of inferior men, and so divides the educational force of the county as to diminish the number of teachers and the amount of money available for institutes, destroying the enthusiasm peculiar to the larger bodies. The distinguishing feature of the

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county superintendency, that of being the office of an expert of high attainments and extended experience, with a salary somewhat in keeping with the requirements, must be preserved. The need of closer supervision must be met by assistants. Not less than twenty nor more than seventy-five schools should be allotted to each. They should have such attainments in scholarship and in experience as are required of superintendents. Let these assist in holding examinations of teachers when required to do so by the superintendent. Let them visit and thoroughly inspect the schools and report monthly to the directors or commissioners and to the superintendent, respectively, upon affairs belonging to their work, making recommendations and giving statistics as may be required. Let them direct in the art of teaching and instruct in the science, thus keeping in touch with the teachers, directors or committeemen and superintendents. By this means the advantages of close supervision may be secured without losing those which come from having an educational director for the whole county, giving unity and vigor to the whole work. These assistants should be elected for three years by the directors or committeemen within the subdivision, and should be paid, not from the State fund, as the others, but from the funds of the districts electing them. This difference is important, because if the salaries were paid by the State while the subdivision remain to be made by the people, the number of assistants would become unnecessarily large and the drafts upon the State treasury would be enormous. Furthermore, as this is an agency not vital to a system of free schools, but highly promotive of its efficiency, it is but just that the people, having control and enjoying the benefit of the increase in efficiency, should bear this part of the burden. These assistants, like county superintendents, should be removable by a majority vote of the directors only on complaint, duly made and proven, of incompetency, negligence or immorality.

While any system of supervision will depend for its success upon the men chosen for the work, it is believed that the system herein outlined meets the conditions of the problem more successfully than any other plan for country schools. It gives a uniform standing to those engaged in the work throughout the State, and provides adequate means for their support without making them a burden upon their several constituencies, and thus diminishing their acceptability. It does not interfere with that local control that is always the life of good schools, while it reduces to a minimum the disadvantages arising from a want of technical knowledge and skill on the part of the local authorities. It provides a competent examiner for teachers of low grade and a counselor for all. It promotes organization, con-

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solidation and the pursuit of an extended course of study. It is favorable to longer terms and better salaries for teachers.

Furthermore, the annual county institutes throughout Pennsylvania are uniformly limited in size only by the capacity of the largest halls that can be obtained, and the people, besides paying an average local tax of nine mills on the dollar, heartily approve of the annual appropriation of $5,000,000 to the public schools by the general assembly, in addition to the sums appropriated for the salaries of the county superintendents, for the twelve State normal schools, for the State College, and for the salaries and expenses of the State Department of Public Instruction, aggregating last year $650,000, a total annual appropriation for education from the treasury of $5,650,000. The general public interest in education manifested by this unparalleled attendance upon teachers' institutes and by this unprecedented appropriation is directly traceable to the system of county superintendency herein outlined, which has been in successful operation in Pennsylvania since 1854.

DISCUSSION.

HON. J. W. DICKINSON, Secretary Massachusetts Board of Education.—I take it for granted that the supervision of the country schools is very much like the supervision of the city schools, in so far as the kind of service is concerned.

The county supervisor as well as the city supervisor should have the delegated authority to nominate the school teachers that are to be employed; to make out courses of studies that are to be adopted; to direct the teachers in their method of teaching; to select the text-books that are to be used; to provide a good supply of all necessary means of teaching; to secure a regular attendance of the children upon the schools; to see that the schoolhouses are in good order and are provided with all things necessary for the well-being of the schools. The authority to do these things, or to order them to be done, should be granted to country and to city superintendents alike. The great problem to solve in relation to country supervision is: How shall it be supported? The small towns are poor and are already burdened with taxes. They are required to support their schools, and this is more than they can do well. A way has been contrived in our commonwealth by which the rural towns, as well as the cities and the larger towns, may employ skilled and special supervision. The first law providing for the appointment of superintendents of schools in the State was passed in 1854. This was a permissive law granting authority to the towns to appoint school superintendents to act as agents of the school boards. Eighty-nine towns have availed themselves of the provisions of the law of 1854. In 1870 a law was passed permitting two or more towns to unite for the purpose of employing a union superintendent. Twelve towns in all have taken advantage of this permissive act to form themselves in districts of two towns each.

The laws of 1854 and of 1870 made no provision for assistance by the State in the support of the superintendent appointed. In 1888 a law was passed permitting

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all towns with a valuation of taxable property not exceeding $2,500,000 to unite in districts containing not over fifty schools nor less than thirty for the employment of a school superintendent.

This law of 1888 provided that every district thus formed shall receive from the State the sum of $1,000, and that one-half of this sum shall aid in the payment of the salary of the superintendent and the remaining half shall be paid to the towns comprising the district, to aid them in the payment of the salaries of their teachers. The towns must together raise $750, to be added to the $500 appropriated by the State. One hundred and nine towns have accepted the provisions of this law, so that now we have under special supervision the public schools of 210 of the 352 towns of the State. Eighty-five and eight-tenths per cent of all the school children in the commonwealth are now in schools under special supervision. The results of this supervision in the small towns already appear in the increased attendance of the children upon the schools, in the introduction of improved courses of studies, in better methods of teaching, in the improved character of the teaching force, and in the intense interest the people feel in the success of their public schools.

We have now thirty-five districts formed under the law of 1888, and the remaining towns are all discussing the advantages of more intelligent supervision of their schools, and are moving to secure them.

The efficient causes that produce the schools are the people that make the laws which govern the schools, that choose the teachers, that support the schools and furnish them with living material to be educated. They are the school boards who are chosen by the people, and afterwards are united in their action by the laws under which they act in organizing the schools and in administering their affairs. They are the superintendents chosen by the school boards to act as their agents in doing what the members of the school boards have neither the time nor the preparation to do well. They are the teachers whose duty it is to present objects and subjects to the learners' minds that they may acquire knowledge and information, and method of study, and mental development; and who are to direct the children to the formation of good moral habits. And lastly, they are the children who are to be trained into that state of intelligence which is the foundation of an orderly public and private life. These are the causes that produce the schools, and the highest success in school affairs requires that each distinct cause should observe its place and its proper relations to the other causes.

The committee or the school board should be the medium between the superintendent and the people. The superintendent should not go to the people for the accomplishment of his ends. The superintendent should be the medium between the committee and the teachers. The teachers should go to the superintendent for their instructions, and not to the school boards. The school committee should hold relations to the superintendents, but not directly with the schools. The teacher should be the medium between his schools and the superintendent. The superintendent should never take the school he visits out of the hands of the teacher and conduct its exercises himself. He should give his criticisms and directions to the teachers in private. These relations which the different departments of our school management bear to one another are not generally observed, and confusion and antagonism are too often the results.

MR. JOHN MACDONALD, Topeka, Kan.—Rural supervision suffers because of the vicious environing influences of politicians. The rural superintendent, like Bunyan's pilgrim on his way from the City of Destruction to the Celestial City, struggles through all sorts of besetting troubles—fightings without and fears within—toward excellence.

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Because of the method of election, incompetent persons are often injected into the superintendent's office. Officials who are required to do expert work should not be elected directly by the people, but by committees selected for that purpose; in other words, by boards of education. It is somewhat amusing to hear city superintendents, who are themselves elected by boards numbering from six to twenty members, strongly urging that county superintendents should be elected by the people.

In twenty-five or thirty States of this Union county superintendents are not required to have any qualifications. They need not be able to read or write. Qualifications should be required of every official who is expected to do expert work.

Pennsylvania and Indiana have the best methods for selecting county superintendents; but it by no means follows that the States named are doing the best work. Kansas, with a lamentably defective school system, has the best schools.

In some States, county supervision is complicated with the making and changing of districts, and with much other work wholly foreign to supervision. The work of the superintendent should be to inspire teachers and people to go from high to higher; to lead children to the crowning slope of a complete manhood and womanhood.

SOURCES OF SUPPLY OF TEACHERS IN CITY SCHOOLS.

BY AARON GOVE, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DENVER, COLO.

At the annual meeting of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association in November, 1849, Charles Northend of Salem presented his paper on a subject kindred to the one assigned me. At the meeting of the same body, October, 1868, Dr. Henry Barnard performed a similar task. Mr. Daniel Hagar again undertook it in 1877. In reading the proceedings of those meetings and the names of the participants, some of whom are still living and acting, others dead, but as I believe still acting—names largely of my own personal friends or acquaintances—I hesitate to write further on the subject of sources of supply of teachers for city schools.

A review of educational gatherings throughout our country for the past twenty years demonstrates, that few meetings have occurred wherein indirectly, if not directly, the subject before us has not been considered. Notwithstanding the thought and consideration already for forty years bestowed upon it, in the light of later experience, observation and progress, I quite agree with the executive of the department in the propriety of re-opening the discussion.

While the average teaching life of woman in America is not to exceed three and one-half years, without data, I presume the life of the city teacher to be but little longer. A popular source of supply

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is the city normal school, the output of which, unless well scattered over a large extent of country, fails to accomplish the full measure of its power.

The conditions decree that the girls in the schools to-day must be the teachers of to-morrow. This is not time or place to bewail the shortness of their professional life. I am not sure that I care to do so. As I remember my association and acquaintances, it is a fair question to ask whether the average unmarried woman teacher over forty years of age be superior or equal to the average younger one. The value of professional experience is frequently lessened by the idiosyncrasies of advancing age. The old school mistress does not now, and never has, occupied the place in educational history that the old schoolmaster does. The Emma Willards and Elizabeth Peabodys are few; the Arnolds, Barnards, Northends, Hydes, Pages, Tweeds, Brooks and Hagars are many. And so it may not be a misfortune, after all, that the throng of young women so soon are called from the teacher's platform to higher and nobler duties for which they were created.

The girls, and they are the source of supply to which the text refers, after completing the high school course seek for and obtain positions. The better to fit them for the few years of public service, training in normal schools is urged. This training having been obtained, they are rightfully deemed superior and are preferred. This in the face of the fact that many high school and grammar school girls, when once in harness, distance in power their older sisters in the school-room.

Accepting the conclusion that the maintenance and support of training schools for teachers is a necessity, as well as a public duty, I wish to urge that an effort be made amongst us to encourage the transfer of the product of the city normal school to duty in a city other than that where the training is obtained.

Permit me to allude to the uncouth and not quite applicable illustration of the stock-raiser. His herd is maintained at its greatest efficiency and value only by the regular and persistent introduction of new blood. The ranchman's range of thousands of acres and hundreds of thousands of horses, cattle and sheep depreciate in quality and value if confined within permanent "side lines."

It has been said of a large interior city that of the names of over 1,000 teachers borne upon the roll, nearly 800 were born, bred and educated within that school district. The schools of that city are fair, even good; the notorious critic of the "Forum" to the contrary notwithstanding. But who shall say how much better the results, had an interchange of graduates of city normal schools occurred?

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For the management of the schools, and especially for the superintendent, this common source of supply is exceedingly comfortable and dangerous; comfortable, for he is so well informed as to what is doing and how it is doing in the hundreds of rooms officered by teachers who were trained from the kindergarten up under his own supervision that personal observation and inspection is unnecessary, hence often omitted; dangerous, for, as I have already intimated, the entire establishment is wearing monthly and yearly deeper and deeper into the grooves and ruts of precedent and habit.

The reliance of the community as to the betterment of their schools is upon the disposition of the superintendent to inform himself well and truly both from the printed page and by frequent journeys of inspection to other and often far away towns; particularly by the latter means.

A recent space contributor writes that from school reports and superintendent's essays upon their respective administrations one can learn but little truth about the schools. I am willing to add to that that the reader learns much that is misleading.

When the corps of teachers in a city is composed of representatives of many and widely separated parts of the country, not excluding foreign countries (for England and Germany, and especially France, have latterly made extraordinary progress in pedagogical science), and when that body of teachers assemble from time to time, as they must under all well regulated and efficient school systems, out of the various and varied presentations and diverse views portrayed by earnest and vigorous discussions must issue conclusions healthful for the schools.

For a comfortable, easy and uneventful, unprogressive administration, the superintendent would better officer his school-rooms with the product of the schools of his own city.

The other plan will make much friction, create dissensions, cause experimenting, and seem to mar (what is to-day the great danger) a beautiful and harmonious system (the thing to avoid); beauty, harmony, quiet and peace being nowhere "in place" except at the cemetery.

I am informed as to the obstacles that exist in the execution of a plan that shall cause the girls of one city to make a home in another; the domestic reasons are abundant; financial reasons are many; the family must remain intact. While I do not believe that any great or sudden revolution on this line can be effected, I realize that a united sentiment in this Department of Superintendence would tend to promote an interchange of the sort indicated. Marble, Tarbell, Seaver, Lane, Jones and Long would indirectly learn of each other and not from reports. Fall River, New Haven, Albany,

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Minneapolis, San Francisco and Denver, each could have a little of the good of the other, and no one be a loser.

The best and surest post-graduate course for a normal school graduate is a season in charge of a country school. Elements necessary for the teacher's character can be acquired there, some of which cannot be obtained elsewhere. Dependence upon a principal is a weakness seldom overcome by her who never has been obliged to take responsibility. Most of the best teachers of to-day are those who remember the discipline obtained by the trials and tortures of managing a country school and associating with scores of all sorts of parents and committees, any one of whom believed he knew better how to conduct that school than did the teacher.

WHAT CAN BE DONE TO INCREASE THE EFFICIENCY OF TEACHERS IN ACTUAL SERVICE?

SUPT. THOMAS M. BALLIET, SPRINGFIELD, MASS.

I think it was Charles Lamb who divided the human race into two classes, money borrowers and money lenders. Teachers may be divided crudely into two classes, the efficient and the inefficient. As the propensity to borrow or to lend is met with in different degrees, so one finds different degrees of efficiency and inefficiency among teachers. In the days before the fifteenth amendment, when we were not yet as a nation color blind in politics, it is said that a vote-soliciting politician walked up to a rather fair mulatto on election day and asked him, "Are you a colored man?" "No, sah," was the reply, "I'se bo'n dat way." Now, there are inefficient teachers who were "bo'n dat way," and for them I see no hope, even if they are in actual service, as many of them are. Superintendent Greenwood, who is to read the next paper, will, no doubt, tell us what to do with them.

But what can be done for teachers who have the inborn qualities essential to success, and yet are only partially successful? They may be hampered by the want of thorough scholarship. If so, then a course of reading and study may be suggested by the superintendent which will enable them to make up in part for the lack of good academic training in early life. Summer schools, such as have sprung up in many parts of our country, are doing every year a great deal for such teachers. A word of counsel from the superintendent in regard to the choice of studies may make attendance at these schools additionally profitable.

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The most serious limitation, as a rule, of teachers who are not wholly successful, is want of thorough professional training. What can be done for them in this respect?

There are at least three things that can be done:

1. The superintendent can lay out a course of reading in pedagogics for them, meet them from time to time in a body, discuss with them what has been read, and supplement this discussion with such additional information and comments as may serve to throw light on the line of thought pursued.

2. In the second place, there ought to be a city normal school in every city of any considerable size, as indeed there is now in nearly all our larger cities, for the purpose of training young recruits for the teacher's ranks. In this school there ought to be, besides the regular class for young "undergraduates," also a class for "experienced teachers." All such teachers as are not doing satisfactory work by reason of deficient professional training ought to be required to take a year's leave of absence, go to the normal school, and be "made over."

3. In the third place, the work of supervision ought to have for its chief aim the professional training of teachers. In the past, school supervision has occupied itself too much with the machinery of the system, and with matters of secondary importance. The superintendent has often expended most of his time and energy in looking after the erection or repairing of school buildings, their heating and ventilation, the purchasing and distributing of books and supplies, and in doing cheap clerical work. Many a superintendent has allowed his time to be absorbed in such work to an extent that has made it impossible for him to give much attention to the pedagogical phase of the work supposed to be in his charge. He has become an expert in schoolhouse sanitation, perhaps in schoolhouse architecture; he is, no doubt, an efficient superintendent of janitors and of school buildings, but not a superintendent of teachers and of schools. It is entirely correct to say that, theoretically, a superintendent of schools ought to be an expert in all these things, and in education besides; practically, no such superintendent has ever been found, and it is not likely that any such will ever be found.

The result of burdening the superintendent of schools with such work (which, although important in its way, is, after all, secondary to the educational work of the schools) has been, that if real expert supervision in any line of work was needed a "special teacher," or "special supervisor," had to be elected to do it. In this way we have to-day in most cities a "supervisor of drawing," a "supervisor of music," a "supervisor of physical culture," a "supervisor of primary

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schools," and in some a "supervisor of science teaching." These supervisors are needed, not always because the superintendent has not sufficient time to direct the work himself in these lines, but because he is incompetent to do it. In short, he is not an expert in the strictly educational work of the schools.

Now, I hold that the first duty of a superintendent is to be an educational expert, to give the board of education expert counsel in regard to the strictly educational work of the schools, and to teach the teachers how to teach. As long as he is not able to do this, either for lack of time or of knowledge, he has no right to devote any large part of his time to such matters as have been mentioned. Other persons can be hired to attend to them whose time is not worth as much as his is, or ought to be.

Schools are never going to be reformed by a wholesale discharge of incompetent teachers, and for two reasons: First, because in cities in which there are many such teachers, salaries are so low that it would be impossible to secure competent teachers to take their places. Secondly, in such cities the educational sentiment is always low, and the schools are entangled—often hopelessly entangled—in politics, so that other considerations than merit and demerit determine the appointment of teachers. But it ought to be said in this connection that the ward politician is often not the most embarrassing obstacle in the way of an earnest school committee who endeavors conscientiously to discharge at the same time both its duty and its incompetent teachers. The minister of the gospel, the deacon and the elder, whose sympathy for an incompetent "Christian woman," who happens to be a member of their fold, runs away with their judgment, often block the way of reform more effectually than the politician. I believe that more incompetent teachers are kept in their positions through church influence than through the influence of politics.

This being the fact, the best that can be hoped for is that the most glaring cases of incompetency be dismissed and the rest receive systematic training.

To accomplish this, the superintendent and his corps of assistants must organize themselves into a teaching body; their chief work must be to give systematic instruction at stated times to the teachers in their charge, in the science and art of teaching, and to follow up this instruction by helpful criticism and private suggestion in the schools. There ought to be every year a series of lectures on educational psychology. This subject lies at the very basis of pedagogics, and bears the same relation to it that anatomy and physiology do to the science and art of medicine. Physiological psychology has produced results within the last two decades which will before many

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years entirely revolutionize pedagogics. The results obtained in the attempts to localize the functions of the brain are sufficiently definite and certain to warrant some very important conclusions in regard to the nature and activity of the so-called "faculties" of the mind, and they throw a flood of light on the problem of manual training. The strong opposition to this newcomer in the schools, so recent that the echoes of it have scarcely yet died away, was based on an obsolete psychology which still forms the basis of all the current books on the science of teaching. The facts which have been brought to light in comparatively recent years by Kussmaul, by Wernicke and by Charcot and his followers, in regard to aphasia, furnish a scientific basis for the pedagogical study of the problems involved in teaching a child to speak, read and write his mother tongue, as well as for those involved in the teaching of foreign languages.

The recent investigations into the nature of volition by Exner, Muensterberg and others, and its relation to thought and habit, give a foundation for the solution of the problems of moral culture which psychology had never before been able to furnish to pedagogics. The investigations into the time-relations of mental phenomena have not yet produced results of much consequence, as far as their bearing on the science of education is concerned.

No one can to-day either study or teach pedagogics without considerable familiarity with the results of modern psychology and physiology, and anyone who would give professional training to teachers in actual service must present them in a clear and intelligible way and point out in detail their application to the work of the school-room.

In addition to this instruction in psychology, there must be systematic instruction in the methods of teaching the various branches of the school curriculum. It has been my experience that merely discussing general principles is not sufficient; I find it necessary in my own work to discuss quite minutely the details of methods, and even devices, and to refer these details at every point to general principles as their scientific basis.

There is a delusion prevalent among educators at the present time, that the discussion of devices and of details of method is petty; that the scientific educator ought not to condescend to it, but ought to study and teach the general principles of education. Now, it has been wickedly said that no one despises a pun except he who cannot make one, and I fancy many a man who can write a bright magazine article on some general principles of teaching would be quite helpless if he were asked by some unsophisticated young teacher to take a class of children and show the application of it all to the actual work of teaching.

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A first-class teacher usually passes through three stages—a sort of pedagogical metamorphosis. In the first stage, he notes happy devices used by other teachers, and reproduces them with Chinese fidelity in his own school. In the second stage, he reads some book on the general principles of education; begins to talk about passing from the concrete to the abstract, from the simple to the complex, from the whole to the parts, from the particular to the general; about teaching ideas before words; and in his school keeps on teaching words before ideas, and passing from the general to the particular, from the parts to the whole, from the complex to the simple, and from the abstract to the concrete, steadily raising ignorance to the second power. This is the stage in which normal schools which have no practice departments leave the large majority of their students at graduation.

When a man of good academic training, who has also, at the same time, some acquaintance with the history of speculative philosophy, reaches this stage in pedagogical growth, he is often mistaken for a profound philosophic thinker on education. If he knows but enough of Hegelian or Kantian phraseology to make himself unintelligible, his reputation is made—provided he stays away from the school-room and escapes its tests. It is easy to make water appear deep by stirring up a little mud, and it is difficult to realize that a spring may be thirty feet deep, if the water is so clear that you can see a nickel at the bottom.

But there is a third stage reached by the best teacher. Whilst in the first stage he sees only disconnected devices and blindly imitates them, and in the second stage sees through a glass darkly general principles in their general or "abstract" form, in this third stage he recognizes general principles in devices, and is able to view, work out and apply devices in the light of general principles. It is easy to see a disconnected fact; it is not very difficult for an intelligent mind to see a general truth in its abstract form; but to promptly recognize universal truths in single facts, and to view such facts in the light of universal truths, is a kind of thinking which comparatively few minds can do with facility. If you examine the literature in our educational papers, and even that in our most pretentious educational magazines, you will find that most of it corresponds in character to the first two stages; most of the books written in English on pedagogics belong to the second stage, and much of the work in the practice department of many State and city normal schools does not go beyond the first.

Let him who thinks lightly of devices remember that a device is simply an application of a principle to a particular case, that every application of a principle is an interpretation of it, and that he who

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cannot apply a principle, or give detailed directions as to how it must be applied, does not comprehend the principle. It would seem to follow from this, that he who has never taught public schools himself is not competent to teach others how to teach public schools, and that it is exceedingly unfortunate if he holds a position in which he cannot do his duty without doing the impossible.

But to return to the thought from which I have digressed. The superintendent and his assistants ought to give detailed instruction in methods of teaching, the grading of the work, and the mode of preparing the lessons in each study taught in the schools.

To make this work effective, teachers will have to meet in sections not exceeding 150 or 200. For some of the work the number ought not to be above fifty. In large cities a considerable force of assistants is needed, and the city must be divided into districts small enough to prevent the meetings from being too large.

It is essential that the superintendent himself come in personal contact as often as possible with all the teachers of the city. By a carefully arranged series of meetings he can speak to all the teachers from four to five times a year in our largest cities, and in the smaller ones much more frequently.

It is essential, too, that the superintendent and his assistants spend a very large part of their time in the schools, partly to give individual criticism and help to teachers, but especially to keep themselves thoroughly informed of the details of the teaching, and of the teachers' weaknesses and needs; else the teachers' meetings become dull and unprofitable. It is also desirable that the superintendent and his assistants do actual teaching of classes from time to time, both to illustrate their suggestions to teachers and to keep in close and sympathetic touch with the children.

The mode of school supervision which contents itself with issuing commands and sending printed directions from the central office, and with gathering statistics and writing reports, will soon be a thing of the past. The superintendent of the future will be a trained expert; who will be, in fact as well as in name, a director of education; who will have, not only the ability to lead in thought, but also the power to inspire enthusiasm and life—even to raise the dead when politicians will not permit him to bury them. He will be recognized by the school board, not as their clerk, but as their counselor in educational matters, whose advice they will accept as they would accept the legal advice of their attorney. He will make the course of study, select the text-books and supplies, appoint the teachers, determine the methods of teaching to be followed in the schools, and instruct, both personally and through his assistants, the teachers in his charge in the science and art of teaching, and will hold office during good behavior, and be removable only for cause through the courts.

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WHAT SHALL BE DONE WITH NON-PROGRESSIVE AND RETROGRESSIVE TEACHERS?

BY SUPT. J. M. GREENWOOD, KANSAS CITY, MO.

The literal significance of the word progressive is to step or move forward, of retrogressive is to step or move backward, and non-progressive implies that passive condition of mind in which the teacher fights a losing battle in trying to keep up with the march of events by consuming a continually decreasing intellectual capital.

Before attempting to answer the inquiry so pertinently stated in the subject proposed, it is necessary to ascertain, if possible, how a teacher may become either non-progressive or retrogressive as contra-distinguished from that state which is called progressive.

Under what physical or intellectual conditions, then, is a teacher liable to become non-progressive or retrogressive? Are these conditions, if they exist, physiological, psychological, or a combination of both? Does the profession of teaching necessitate any such condition or conditions *per se?* To observe an effect that is widespread and far-reaching in its consequences is a sure indication of a producing cause somewhere.

There is also a popular impression that teaching has a narrowing effect on most minds; in other words, that after a few years' work in the school-room the teacher drops insensibly into a very limited sphere of intellectual life. This is the usual rule, to which there are some exceptions in every institution dedicated to learning.

The law that obtains in learning a trade, so far as the physiological effect can be determined, is not very different from that in the expanding, strengthening and solidifying of those channels in the brain along which intelligence cuts its way and then acts.

After the blacksmith has once learned his trade, he is rendered unfit to learn other trades requiring finer qualities of artistic execution. Working with heavy tools measurably debars one from handling skillfully those tools needed in all the lighter and more refined occupations. The movements of the muscles at first in learning any trade are slow and directly under the control of the will; but with practice, the painful and careful movements are made with more ease and less attention, till eventually the muscles are simply set in motion, and the movements are practically automatic, or have changed into habit.

This clue furnishes an adequate explanation, doubtless, of those stationary and retrogressive states into which so many teachers

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unconsciously force themselves. Not only this, but the habits of mind and mind activity, whether of children or adults, engendered by routine work requiring little or no mental effort, produce mind atrophy. All students of mental activity, from whatever side the subject is approached, agree in this: that what was at first hard to learn, hard to assimilate, and harder still to reproduce, by passing it through the mind till it is firmly fixed there, becomes largely a matter of habit. The earlier writers dwelt upon it as a principle of association; the later, as habit or automatic action. The teacher who goes over the same class work year after year contracts mental habits that dwarf, cramp and deaden intellectual activity by focusing it on small bits of the subjects taught. To concentrate the attention is a narrowing process, not only in regard to the scope of the subject-matter, but through the channels along which the thought lines run. Figuratively speaking, habitual mental activity within a limited range cuts mechanically, and perhaps chemically, deep channels in the brain substance itself, and the longer these channels are used the more fixed they become, so that, eventually, it is next to impossible to change their direction or the quality of the thought. To use continuously one set of muscles involves at least a premature breakdown, and consequently an early death. This fact is now recognized by all clear-sighted teachers of physical culture, whether of animals or human beings. The best physical specimens of enduring manhood or womanhood, and those capable of doing the most work and keeping it up for the greatest number of years, are those whose varied exercise had called into play every set of muscles of the body and developed all of them proportionately. During the working hours, it is not cessation from all labor so much that is required as it is a resting of one set of muscles and the working of another set. Change is the law that prolongs life. Moreover, the same law holds true to a greater extent concerning the nerve and brain forces. It is not the work in the school-room as such that produces "mind-cramp" in the teacher, but the concentration of attention to a very restricted limit in one single-line direction. Evidently this kind of mind-action, so confined in its operation, while intensely exercising one chain of brain cells allows all the others to solidify and destroy their power of responding to proper stimuli. When the process by frequent repetition becomes virtually automatic the case is slightly different from that in which a person has learned the alphabet, the multiplication table or a nursery rhyme. Here the mind retraces with perfect ease, while in lesson hearing and lesson thinking the brain channels are worn deeper and deeper by constant attention, depending upon the physiological fact that brain centers and neural action are permanently modified by different kinds of mental

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activity. This is the cause of those mental conditions which are to be changed entirely, or greatly modified. To throw the neural currents out of gear, and to set cross-currents to work, cutting other thought channels, is the only way to break up the monotony of the teacher's life. To utilize as much of the brain surface as is possible and to set as many different counter currents into active operation appears to be the only rational solution of this question.

What has now been stated clears the way for dealing with the subject in a practical manner, namely, by putting in motion those forces which will cause a re-adjustment of the nerve cells and by opening up new lines of investigation. It is observed that a few old teachers are always young, but the number is small. Such teachers never die at the top. The early deaths, however, intellectually speaking, is only a fraction less than plus infinity. When the brain channels, or gullies, are so deeply carved out, and the walls are case-hardened, so to speak, counter currents of thought at work on the brain itself are about as effective as sheet lightning is in a cloud that has passed; a mere light flashing on the surface and nothing more. When one has passed into this stage of intellectual fossilization, nothing short of volcanic or dynamic action will produce any appreciable effect, and then perhaps only a temporary flicker.

REMEDIES.

Skillful indeed is he who can apply the proper curatives to a morbid condition of the human mind that is more fatal than "Addison's disease" is to the bodily tissues. And here, without attempting generalizations, the writer will state his own experience with teachers under a variety of conditions both favorable and unfavorable.

It is a favorite practice among the older members of a religious congregation to put the younger members into active church work in some form or other; it matters little what it is, so they are doing something. With teachers, however, an outline of progressive work should be purposely planned, and then carried forward for the accomplishment of definite results. The first kind of help is that of ascertaining information as to the teacher's knowledge of the branches taught, and also what knowledge the teacher possesses of other secondary branches, or of those usually pursued in the highest institutions of learning. This information is best ascertained at recess, noon, or in conversation at the superintendent's office. Such conversations should be brought about in an informal way and ought to be conducted as a free interchange of ideas, touching the subjects under consideration. Much, during such interviews, will come to the surface, showing the tastes and inclinations of the teacher. All this can be conveniently classed as sub-conscious help. An interest in the

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special work of others has a strong element of encouragement connected with it, and after one interview, it can be deepened by suitable inquiries from time to time touching progress made. Should the superintendent be wider read than the teacher, which is sometimes the case, then can he still further direct the teacher to additional sources of information. The idea that is here uppermost in any mind is, to have each teacher always forging ahead, adding new capital, as it were, to the ready cash capital on hand. No two teachers will work exactly alike along the same lines. New work of some kind for every teacher is absolutely necessary, and it is always better retained if the worker forms the habit or practice of telling it over to some one of an evening; or if there is no one to talk to, then to think it over item by item in the order in which it was acquired. If there be those who are engaged in similar work, it were better for them to form a club for study, and meet once a week and talk over matters, compare notes, and reconcile, or widen, differences.

The second means of improving teachers is that of monthly or some other regular meetings, in which as many as possible take part in the proceedings. These gatherings are usually of a professional or semi-professional character. Yet, by a judicious selection of topics, including a wide range of subjects, such meetings, if not turned into mere "verbal preachings at the teachers," are productive of great good. The real danger to be apprehended from them is that of doling out instructions and directions in regard to grade work—nearly all of which is forgotten before the teachers leave the hall. A kind of mental inertia is developed in many teachers' meetings, which is responsible for much of the "brain cramp" found in too many city school systems. This species of disease may be robbed of its most malignant form, if the superintendent will tell his teachers each month of the best new books he has read on subjects bearing somewhat on the work they are doing. Also, a few good, active, progressive teachers in one school will set all the others to thinking. By selecting the most alert in each school, a little leaven will leaven the whole lump. The fear of being left in the dust of the procession is a spur if wisely directed. Teachers ought not to be kept on the jump, or in a high state of enthusiasm, but rather on the think-side of all questions.

A third source of energy, and that through which the most successful force is generated and applied to any corps of teachers, is that of a well-organized literary and philosophical society. Here are grouped the strongest intellects of the schools. It is more than a mere pedagogical society, for in it topics of all kinds are read and discussed. There is hardly a phase of intellectual work in the whole circle of the sciences, law, medicine, theology and lit-

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erature, that is not laid under contribution in one form or another in such an organization. About two subjects should be studied each year. At the present time, in our organization, the British constitution, taking Hallam, Dicey, Bagehot and Gneist as texts, is the topic, after which the labor problem will be attacked and cut into fragments for the remainder of the school year. These meetings are informal, except at each session some one person previously selected gives a review of the lesson as treated in the text. After this review a free discussion is had, and all who are so disposed take part. This body is composed of all persons in the city who delight in such exercises, such as teachers, lawyers, doctors, ministers, money cranks, single tax advocates, and what not, all are represented—a free lance contest. Of course, the influence of such a body, say, of seventy-five or a hundred persons, engaged in a struggle for information, is a tremendous power in any community.

After all that can be done, the poor and decrepit remain with us. Some natures are so constituted that they mature early and progress comes to a standstill ahead of time. For such there is no hope. When that stage of petrifaction is reached, a funeral is in order. The interest of the children demand it, and the superintendent should order it upon the grounds of "military necessity."

With the average teacher, signs of decay set in from the third to the fifth year. Others, more vigorous, hold out ten or twelve years; but the ranks are greatly thinned. At twenty, a few stragglers still improving, and on to thirty, forty, yea, even at fifty, there are growing souls. They used nearly all the powers God gave them.

Counter currents, excitations of larger brain areas, less preach, less machine drill, with grades not more than ten weeks apart, more elasticity in regard to thought, methods and devices, more contact with vigorous outside forces, less mechanism and more intelligence, will help non-progressive and retrogressive teachers. But the breathing dead—those who have passed "the last chance,"—let us bury silently, reverently and peacefully,—the last sad rites to the early departed.

DISCUSSION.

J. C. GREENOUGH, Principal of the State Normal School, Westfield, Mass. —Those in charge of the schools of a city or town, as superintendents and committees, should furnish opportunities to teachers to progress. The means of additional knowledge should be put within the reach of those engaged in teaching. If the public library of the town fails to furnish helpful books, superintendents and committees should take means to provide them. They should also see to it

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that the teachers have time and strength to avail themselves of the means of culture and professional advancement. Some teachers are so overworked that if they go through with the required routine faithfully, there is no time or energy left to spend in gaining additional culture or professional knowledge and skill. Some teachers are supervised in so narrow a manner and with so little individual encouragement that all endeavors for personal and professional improvement are cramped and chilled. Teachers in their class work are in large degree isolated from the enthusiastic encouragement of fellow workers. Teachers need opportunity for intellectual advancement. They need inspiration.

A. G. BOYDEN, Principal of Normal School, Bridgewater, Mass.—There are those who enter the school-room, saying, "I will simply do what is required," who feel that they have done their whole duty, according to their business contract, if they secure regular attendance, keep good order and hear their pupils recite their lessons. They "keep school."

Others come to their work seeking to present subjects as clearly and fully as possible, who feel that they have done their whole duty when they have so presented each subject in the school program, and if the pupils do not learn it is their own fault.

There are others whose aim is to secure an all-round development of the child. Their thought is focused upon the action of the pupil's mind, their constant endeavor is to adapt their teaching to the needs of the child so as to bring up the boy and the girl to the stature of full manhood and womanhood.

It should be the constant effort of superintendents and principals to induce all teachers to focus their thought upon the child to secure for him the best development of all his powers and the complete command of himself. The course of studies should be adapted to this end. Pupils should be trained to observe, to think; to express their thought in good English, orally and in writing; to govern themselves by the higher principles of action which spring from their moral and spiritual being. The study of nature should prepare the way for the proper use of books. The slavery to the text-book should be abolished. The pupil should be trained to think for himself.

THE VALUE OF LITERATURE IN MORAL TRAINING.

BY PRESIDENT CHARLES DE GARMO, SWARTHMORE COLLEGE PENNSYLVANIA.

Has literature a value in moral training? The answer to the question depends upon two things: first, our idea of what constitutes moral training; and, second, our notion of what constitutes literature. It is quite possible that, when measured by either or both of the standards that we may have, literature as a factor in moral training may be regarded as little more than an impertinence. Some of us lay all the stress in our direct moral training upon the inculcation of maxims of moral conduct and their enforcement by authority. We have first the maxims and discipline of the home, then those of the school, and then such as arise in the Church and State. Finally,

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the words conscience and duty are appealed to as internal obedience to the will of God manifested in his Word. Such a view of moral training would find small use for literature or any other unauthoritative content of knowledge. Its motto is, "This is the law, obey it, or suffer the consequences." This is a simple system, for it requires no insight into the development of motives, ideals or dispositions. The schoolmaster has only to reveal the law, and then enforce it. Nor need he vex himself about any refinement of methods in moral education. He may calmly give his mind to sharpening the wits of his pupils, leaving it to whom it may concern to look further after their moral welfare.

There are, on the other hand, people who see no real truth in literature. They are, for the most part, matter-of-fact men and women, who never recognize a truth unless it is dressed in homespun. To them fairy stories are lies, while the higher forms of literature are only fanciful devices for representing the unreal. To a man who sees no more truth in Lowell's "Vision of Sir Launfal" than in "Baron Munchhausen," literature is not likely to appeal as an important factor in moral training. Its more harmless forms might do to amuse the children, but it would be strange to suppose that it has any appreciable value as a moral force.

Few educational men will deny that good maxims and proper authority well enforced are indispensable factors in moral training, yet there are strong reasons for claiming that they are not the only ones.

Even supposing authority to be well enforced, there is still a wide range of conduct in which the child may be bad without suffering the rigors of the law. He may, for instance, as a child, be harsh or even cruel in his treatment of animals or other children. He may be greedy, surly, selfish, discontented; he may be obscene in his language, and a pollution to the whole neighborhood. When he becomes a man, he may give way to one after another of a whole catalogue of vices; he may, for example, become a tyrannical husband and father, a worthless or injurious citizen; and yet from infancy to manhood never suffer seriously from the retributions of violated human law. It seems evident that the disposition of the child is an element in moral training that cannot be ignored. While authority should make the child live up to standards that he himself may not yet have reached, instruction should at the same time be developing within him right disposition. We may drive a child up to some of our own ideals, but we can only lead him to his own. Potent as well directed authority is in moral training, it may still exhaust all its devices yet fail to touch the heart or disposition of the child.

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The present paper assumes, therefore, that we need to change the emphasis somewhat in moral training, or at least to add a new element. It is quite true that we now develop character in the schools, but we need to do it so that the results shall be somewhat different from what they are.

Perhaps, in an abstract sort of way, our pupils may be said to be fairly intelligent as to what is right and wrong in conduct, yet the present wide-spread interest in school ethics seems to indicate that we are not quite satisfied with an intellectual apprehension of moral relations.

The special function of authority in its enforcement of rules of conduct lies in the fact that it tends to make a desired line of action habitual with the child. The idea of habit is necessarily associated with that of character, so that whatever means we may employ for the development of ideals, we shall still have to rely on authority to help transform them into moral habits. Habits alone, however, are not an armor of proof for the soul, for good ones may decay and bad ones grow. If the heart has never been warmed for a line of conduct, there is danger of a moral relapse as soon as the pressure of authority is withdrawn. A widow's son may thus become a tower of strength and comfort to his mother, or a heart-breaking burden. The insufficiency of our present direct moral training seems to lie mostly in the feebleness of its effect upon the disposition of the pupil and upon the formation of warmly conceived ideals. This being the case, we need to discover the best means of awakening a sympathetic interest in adequate ideals of conduct and of securing a proper disposition towards them. There is a tendency just now to give the children systematic lessons on morals from little books on ethical instruction. I can but regard this as an inadequate method, for it is only an accentuation of our fondness for imparting maxims. It tends to a premature, abnormal self-consciousness on the part of the child. It fastens to a stick the flower that should grow from the stalk. However valuable introspection may be in the psychologist, it is of small account in the moral growth of the child; for it is food that nourishes, not reflections on hygiene. The same is true in the school-room. The matter of the daily lessons should be of such a character and so presented that it will furnish ample means of sustenance for the child's moral nature. The chief thought, therefore, that I wish, at this point, to offer for your consideration is that our main line of advance in moral training lies, not so much in the inculcation of more maxims or a more vigorous exercise of authority as in the better utilization of the ethical content of the curriculum of studies, and especially of literature.

It may be a strange thought to us that the ordinary subject-matter of secular instruction is regarded as having a high value in

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bringing about these ends. Yet I am persuaded that our surprise arises from the fact that we have not been in the habit of looking to such sources for any moral potency. If, however, we are willing to examine the content of these studies, and at the same time reconstruct to some extent our conceptions of the psychology of moral training, I am persuaded that we shall open up a new and fruitful field for the cultivation of the moral aspects of the mind.

To influence a child's disposition favorably toward right moral purposes, we must have a subject-matter of instruction that has a distinct ethical content, capable of easy apprehension and of appealing strongly to the child's natural interest.

If through our instruction we can awaken his interest in moral ideals and arouse his enthusiasm for them in their concrete shape, it seems evident that we shall enlist his active sympathy for certain desirable lines of thought to which otherwise his mind might have remained closed. Suppose, for illustration, the reading of a story, say "Little Lord Fauntleroy," sets up a childish admiration for a manly little chap who always thought of others before he did of himself. It does not follow, of course, that the child will be able to throw off selfishness, but at any rate his disposition towards unselfishness has received a favorable impulse. The teacher or parent now finds an ally in the child's own mind. His understanding for certain moral relations has been quickened; this line of unselfish conduct is associated with a boy for whom admiration has been aroused. And, after all, who does not know that a boy seeks to imitate what in his eyes is big and manly? If he likes to swagger, brag, smoke, chew or swear, this liking can usually be traced to some other boy whom he admires.

We shall see, I think, as we go on, that literature is admirably adapted for fixing the attention of children to plain cases of right and wrong conduct, of leading them to unbiased moral judgments, and, most of all, of awakening their sympathetic admiration for worthy ideals.

No other subjects taught in the school are so rich in moral content as history and literature, for these portray especially the exercise of the will, in which all morality inheres. History portrays the exercise of the will largely in its organized, institutional manifestations; literature reveals it more in its individual forms. History is particularly valuable in developing the sentiment of patriotism, since it deals mostly with men in their relations to their country; but literature has a much wider range, for it exhibits every phase of all chief moral ideas. In the first place, not being hampered by limitations of time, place or causal relations, it adapts itself perfectly to every grade of intelligence, from the kindergarten to the university.

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It is equally unrestricted in its choice of subjects, being free to treat any phase of morality. Furthermore, literature has one immense advantage, in that it always deals with wholes. No good story ever needs a sequel, for it is all told. It is rounded up, closed, completed, whether its length is a volume or a paragraph. It is to the fact that literature deals with ethical wholes that much of its adaptability to all classes of minds is due. Not being restricted to matter of fact, literature is enabled to portray its lessons under the most variegated and pleasing forms. The imagination is always at its service, so that the most commonplace truths may appear again and again with all the freshness of original creation.

What instrument for reaching the disposition and better moral judgment of the child could be more perfect than this of literature, with its complete range of moral ideals, its perfect adaptability to every age and state of mind, and its imaginative treatment of each topic as an ethical whole?

The fundamental ethical virtues are not numerous. The chief ones are: (1) truthfulness; (2) prudence; (3) good will, with its various aspects such as kindness, benevolence, charity, fidelity, goodness, generosity; (4) further regard for property and other legal rights; (5) requital for good and bad actions; and (6) the altruistic conception of promoting self through service to others. Over against this list of virtues we find the corresponding faults, such as lying; imprudence; ill-will and its variations, like cruelty, malevolence, hard-heartedness, treachery and selfishness; injustice and avarice; ingratitude and revenge; and finally the desire to benefit self through the injury of others. All these ideas are closely portrayed in elementary literary forms, and may be brought to the consciousness of the child in such a way that his mind will be enlisted on the right side.

As practical schoolmen we are interested in knowing how to select the literature most effective for ethical purposes, and in considering the most effective methods of presentation. Taking up the second topic first, it is clear that for the first two or three years of school life our main methods of teaching literature to children must be by narration and oral reading on the part of the teacher. When the pupils can understand by reading what they could otherwise grasp through narration, the latter may be gradually discontinued, though it will always possess a subtle personal element that reading cannot contribute. We have now two efficient means at our disposal, viz., the class and outside individual reading. The school at this stage should accordingly be supplied with suitable material for class use, and with a small select library of approved books. In the high school the reading class may merge gradually into the class for the study of the masterpieces of American and English literature, while

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the reading matter of the library may take a more extended range. The means at our disposal, then, are narration and oral reading by the teacher in early primary grades; class supplementary and individual reading by the pupils in intermediate and grammar grades, and literary study and use of the library for the high school.

But even after we are persuaded that literature furnishes a valuable means for moral training, much remains to be determined as to the character of that which is of most value for this purpose. I suppose one may say of all primitive literature, as of primitive life in general, that it emphasizes the mechanical principle of requital, of reward for right, and retribution for wrong action. The Old Testament is a treasure house of illustrations for this idea. The righteous are preserved even in the fiery furnace and the lion's den, while the wicked are slain, often directly at the hand of Jehovah. Job's friends cannot be persuaded that his afflictions do not spring from faults secretly committed. This doctrine of the mechanical return of the deed upon the doer is very prominent in most child literature, having its origin in the primitive life of peoples. The same doctrine has received modern recognition in Spenser's system of natural consequences, now a popular theory of school government. Professor Patten in his monograph on "Economic Causes of Moral Progress" has clearly shown the negative effect of this kind of moral training. It seeks rather to reduce the pleasures of evil-doing by showing its ultimate pain than to build up positively a group of much greater pleasures which is made possible through the inhibition of the strong, isolated pleasures that may be associated with wrong-doing. It is probable that all will recognize the danger of emphasizing the idea of direct retribution too much with the very young. In the first place, nurses often keep the minds of their charges in a state of terror for years by filling their imaginations with direful pictures of bears and goblins which will come to devour them if bad. On the other hand, finding that vengeance does not inevitably pursue wrong-doing, they may become skeptical of its reality. A little boy, reproved by his playfellow for not saying his prayers, remarked: "I am not going to pray to-night. I did not pray last night, and I shall not to-morrow night, and then if God Almighty does not kill me, I'm never going to pray again."

Yet, notwithstanding these dangers from exaggeration, a limited use of this negative element in literature is allowable and even useful with children. We live so close to a system of natural rewards and punishments, and the demand for adequate requital for deeds is so spontaneous in our nature, that any literature which should wholly ignore the idea of retribution would be defective. We may, therefore, I think, select a somewhat large amount of literature

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with this negative aspect from fairy tales, myths, fables and folk-lore for the use in the early grades. With judgment in the selection, we can give the child the joy he always feels in drinking at these primitive fountains, yet protect him from any morbid or unethical tendencies.

Nor should we forget, in this connection, that it is of considerable advantage to a child to pass through important epochs of human experience in imagination. By so doing he may hit upon ideals toward which to work, that might not otherwise have occurred to him; or seeing a deed in its whole round of consequences, what otherwise might have seemed desirable may lose its charm or even become repulsive.

On the other hand, however, I am persuaded that ideals are formed and the heart warmed for them much more efficiently through the positive phases of literature. Few children are scared or allured into permanent goodness. Instead, therefore, of laying so much emphasis on the reduction of the pleasure of evil-doing through the threat of future punishment, or of encouraging the child to think that he can buy an exact equivalent of immediate good by doing a right action, it seems to me we should lay more stress upon the possibility of enjoying a much larger group of associated pleasures by resisting temptation to enjoy the strong but isolated ones that may arise temporarily from wrong-doing. Miss Harrison told us last year at Brooklyn about a little miss who came to the kindergarten dressed in silks and spangles, and whose pride at first kept her from entering into the games with the other children. The next day, however, she gave up this isolated enjoyment in order to participate in a much larger group of pleasures of a social nature, and she no longer objected to cooking a dinner, at least in imagination, for plain Tommie. Such a surrender of an isolated and unworthy satisfaction for a larger group of more wholesome pleasures was worth much more for this child's character than a lecture on the sin of pride would have been.

Not denying, therefore, all moral potency to the great body of classical literature that emphasizes the negative side of conduct so much, and which leads us to expect mechanical requital of deeds, I wish to urge the evident fact that a body of literature may be selected for elementary and high schools which shall lead the child, according to his growing strength, to appreciate and to desire more and more a progressive series of groups of social pleasures whose combined attractiveness is so great that the isolated pleasures growing out of sensuousness, selfishness and pride shall be forgotten or easily discarded.

Such a systematic arrangement of literary matter would exhibit all the chief phases of good and evil, beginning with the simplest situ-

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ations in which a small group of pleasures should outweigh the immediate satisfaction associated with a wrong action and advancing to larger and larger groups, until all the great phases of organized society were brought in. At the bottom of such a scale I should place the fable, which emphasizes the difference between a long-sighted and short-sighted selfishness, yet does not go beyond prudential motives. Such maxims as, "Honesty is the best policy," spring from the teachings of the fable. This is a purely natural or economic standpoint, in which retribution or reward follow as natural consequents. Do not parade in a lion's skin lest the people find out that you are an ass. The fable of "The Sun and the Wind" shows that success comes with gentleness rather than with violence. If a man is prudent, brave, self-reliant, modest, unselfish, he will succeed better than he will if he gives way to the opposite faults. The lesson of the fable seems to be that virtue will pay a larger dividend than vice. An excellent discussion of this topic is found in Felix Adler's "Moral Instruction of Children."

Next above this utilitarian stage of literature I place folk stories and fairy tales. They develop a much richer imagination than the fable, and though containing much of the primitive idea of retribution as an inevitable consequence of evil-doing, they yet contain a much larger positive element, for ethical ideas are now presented as moral ends, while complementary groups of pleasures tend to displace the temptation to wrong. As Mr. Adler points out, the marchen or fairy tale is especially adapted to bring children into close, sympathetic communion with the world of nature. To the child whose body is himself and to whom motion is the sign of life, what can be more natural than to regard animals as human beings in disguise? If now the story develops a sympathetic disposition in the child for all animals, there is much less chance for subsequent cruelty and insensibility toward them. The story of Snow-white and Red-rose, who entertain a black bear that afterward turns out to be a prince in disguise, begins the same sort of training for the disposition that is contained in a special form in the story entitled "Black Beauty." Who can tell how much this book alone has done in making men mindful of the useless suffering inflicted upon this, the noblest of their friends among animals? The worthy fairy tale also engenders sensibility toward many beautiful ideals. If allowed to have its true influence, it will often shed a sort of halo over the sorriest physical conditions, giving the strength to endure to many a tortured little soul, like Mrs. Burnett's Sara Crewe.

Leaving the realm of the fairy tale we come to a vast field of imaginative literature having a widely varying content, yet portraying for the most part the relations between people simply as individuals.

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"Little Lord Fauntleroy" is an illustration. By rejecting selfishness, this little fellow enjoys a wide circle of pleasures from which he would otherwise be largely shut off. "Robinson Crusoe" develops the industrial instincts of the child, for he is as much interested in the making of pottery as he is in the foot-print on the sand. It takes my boys two or three years to pass through this stage in which they seek to do all that "Robinson" did. The "Arabian Nights" have no particular ethical content, yet they shadow forth in the oriental imagination what we may easily bring to pass. Aladdin rubbed his lamp and the genii appeared and transported him through the air to distant places. There was one Aladdin then; now every man may be an Aladdin. We need but to reach the hand into the pocket, take out the modern lamp that we call money, rub it, and still more powerful spirits will transport us rapidly across the continent in a palace car. The "Seven Little Sisters," by Jane Andrews, gives the child his primary lesson in cosmopolitanism. Among the books that develop the hero spirit are the Grecian classics, which show up courage as an individual trait, while such books as "Tom Brown at Rugby," "Tom Brown at Oxford," and Farrar's "St. Winnifred" give ample opportunity for the young to come face to face with manliness in every form, and in such a way that the reader's sympathies are almost sure to be on the right side.

When we come to the manifold relations in which the individual stands to the home, we have also a wide range of literature. Indian stories of the right kind show the defense of the home against the savage. In Cooper the hero is a white man who has learned all the skill and strategy of the savage, and who enlists the best of the Indians on the right side. In Louisa M. Alcott's "Little Women" we see how the complementary home pleasures far outweigh the satisfaction that comes from any form of selfishness, so that the wise mother helps all her daughters to master their faults, that they may live in accordance with the higher thought. In a similar way, stories of the sea picture the man braving every sort of danger for the good of the ship, the little community in which he lives. It is a primitive form of patriotism, familiarizing the boy with the idea that after all the noblest thing of all is to serve a worthy cause. Such authors as Scott form an easy transition to the highest forms of institutional literature, in which the individual enters into the most manifold relations with the social world, finding himself in home, church, state and society. Shakespeare is, of course, our greatest institutional dramatist. In his works we have a picture of all the chief relations, good and bad, in which a man can stand to his fellows in their organized capacity. As a rule, Shakespeare's treatment of the collision between individual and social or political

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institutions is ethically sound, though in the tragedies the return of the deed upon the doer often reminds us of ancient doctrines of retribution. In the comedies, however, the principle of grace has full dominion.

Recapitulating, now, the doctrines of this paper, we find them to be as follows:

1. The inculcation of maxims and the enforcement of authority constitute but one factor in moral training, the latter having the establishment of right habits as its chief function.

2. It is of especial importance in moral education that a right attitude of mind or permanent right disposition toward moral ideals should be secured, and this can be done through the presentation of concrete cases of conduct in such a way as to win the sympathetic interest of the child for the right, causing him to pass unbiased moral judgments, and to conceive higher moral ideals.

3. Literature is perhaps our most potent means of securing these ends, since it presents under imaginative forms and in ethical wholes the entire range of moral situation, and is, moreover, properly adapted to every stage of intellect and cast of mind.

4. The negative or retributive side of literature, though granted a place, is not to be emphasized so much as the positive or social side, since it is, in general, better for the mind to renounce evil for the sake of higher ideals and the unalloyed pleasures they bring, than to forego it from the fear of punishment.

5. Finally, if literature is to exercise its best influence on the minds and hearts of children, we need to select a large amount of the positive kind, which helps the child discard the lower, isolated pleasures connected with a wrong or selfish act for a higher complement of enjoyments associated with a worthy line of conduct. In this way the heart is warmed for the good rather than terrified at the results of the bad.

The works named in this connection are to be regarded merely as types and illustrations. A full course of literature of this kind is still to be arranged by those who believe in the idea and who have daily access to the children.

HISTORY AS AN AID TO MORAL CULTURE.

BY CHAS. M. ANDREWS, PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, BRYN MAWR COLLEGE, PENNSYLVANIA.

You have asked me to speak to you to-night on the moral importance of the study of history. As a subject new to general discussion, it is evident that no tangible result can be attained until we are

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agreed on our conception of what history is and what history means. We must, first of all, lay down certain general statements in order to establish our premises before we reach any definite conclusions. In so doing I shall take that conception of history which is purest and best, and shall treat that conception in terms adapted to the full man, not to the child. I shall draw my lines broadly instead of in detail, inasmuch as we are not sufficiently agreed as to whether history is of any value for moral culture to determine with too great exactness the lines of its moral influence. Indeed, the moral influence of no subject can be defined with mathematical precision. First, as to our meaning of history.

"History," says Lingard, "is little more than a picture of the miseries inflicted upon the multitude by the passions of certain men." "It is a field of carnage," said the Compte de Maistre. "It is but a convenient fable," said Bernard de Bouvier de Fontanelle. Such a view, to the student of moral development, can offer little comfort or hope for the continued promotion of historical studies. Moral culture finds little support from a subject which teaches that the world is always evil; that man is but the sport of the forces of nature, an aimless actor in an aimless world. Discouragement, pessimism, fatalism, will be the only reward of the student who is dominated by this doctrine. And this will be the inevitable result so long as history is but the record of war and diplomacy, of the rise and fall of governments, or of the political activities of single men. Professor Seeley is certainly wrong in limiting history to the growth of political governments and in narrowing its field to the political life of man.

Schopenhauer's difficulty lay deeper. To him history was but an interesting narrative, with no underlying meaning, no bearing upon the present life of man. He objected to a philosophy of history, and his conception of art and poetry led him to place these far ahead of history as moral teachers. He saw no good save in the ideals; in art, which was the embodiment of the ideal; in poetry, which seemed the voice of the nobler inner life. There was no comfort for him in the biography of humanity, and from his standpoint he was incapable of a broader view. The facts of history, the mere events of the day, the year or the century, taken in isolation, whether treated as story or colored to attract attention, are hardly a factor in the moral life of man. The moral influence of a subject can be sought for only when that subject is treated as a whole; it cannot be found in any one of its parts taken as a type. The details taken in isolation too often exist apart from one age; they furnish few analogies according to which we can regulate our moral activities. They have been treated as unreal, a treatment to which Niebuhr so strongly objected,

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as furnishing only an occasional likeness, poor at best, of profit to the present man. Thus, the value of history has been depreciated, cheapened, perverted, even by those who have not denied its importance. The world, which has been too long content to condemn history as needless for the political and ethical struggles of to-day, will come to realize what the few have seen and have said with too little publicity, that no books, no philosophical schemes, no ideal Utopias, can be read with more profit to the present generation than that book of the ages which contains the experiences of man.

To the mind of the student of to-day the thought of history carries with it two fundamental truths, without which history cannot be conceived; two objects for which all are searching. One is the immediate truth, the accurately observed fact, which is the object and result of all historical investigation, without which we can build no philosophical structure, the absence of which in the systems of Hegel and Compte has vitiated so many of their conclusions. As Bissel* says: "False premises must lead to false conclusions. Imaginary facts must lead to false philosophy, and false philosophy must lead to bad government and to bad morality, public and private." A first condition of our study is, that the history whose influence we are examining be true.

Upon this foundation of true fact we build the second, the final truth, which is the philosophy of history, the logic of the immediate, which is the ultimate truth. We cannot speak of the *rationale* of historical romance. The historical novel offers little basis for moral instruction. The philosophy of history can be built out of no other material than the facts, exact as the most rigid search can make them. Here lies the first and broadest distinction which can be drawn between the influence of history and literature. In history we are dealing with realities, with the actual relations and struggles of man with man and nation with nation. We are studying life in its best sense, not as it might have been, not as it ought to have been, but as it has been. We discard fiction on the one side; we avoid idealism on the other. A fiction may have an influence, but it is the influence and not the fiction which is the historical fact. An ideal may be the best product of an age, but it cannot be treated as history. In these ideals we see the influence of literature in creating higher conceptions of man's place and work. History does not antagonize this; it supplements it, makes it more germane to the conditions under which we live, because we of to-day are a part of humanity, are living in the midst of a new historical era. Each era, each phase of humanity's life, speaks to us through the best thoughts

*"Essays on Historical Truth," p. 40.

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which it has had, but it also speaks to us with equal power, if with less conscious purpose, through the activities in which it has been engaged—the form, however molded, which these activities have taken and the relation of these activities to the past, present and future. History, in this sense, is the study of the growth and development of humanity, considered not merely in its relation to the individual life but as an organic whole, made up of nations, races, societies and families, the interrelation of whose actions form a constant struggle to promote the happiness of all, to further the political, economic and spiritual good of each of its members, to enlarge man's faculties and his capacity for using them, to bring him into a truer conception of his place in government, his duty to God and his fellowmen, to make more equable the social organization of which he is a part and to make more harmonious the international activities which result from its relations of state with state and people with people. The thoughts and principles of to-day are the heritage of that past in which man with all his rudeness, wickedness and bigotry has been building somewhat for the benefit of those who were to follow. The heritage bequeathed to us is the sum of the best which the centuries have produced.

It is a commentary upon the growing importance of the study of history that in matters of law and government, in economics, in finances, and in other phases of our present order, students and practical men are examining the records of the past in order to discover what such can tell of failure and success. When practical men turn to history we may be sure that it is for practical reasons, and much modern experimenting is based upon historical investigation. If this be true in more material matters, equally true is it with the moral and ethical life, and the application of the historical method to the subject of ethics and morality leads to some definite conclusions of value here. It has been well said that history is the telescope and microscope of social man, in that it opens new worlds for comparison with the present life, stationary as that life seems to be to one who looks no further than his eye can see.

With this inception of that large and true thought of the relation of humanity to all the influences which have made it human, our view regarding a changeless moral standard has undergone a transformation. Men of past days cannot be judged because they failed to attain to our present conception of moral duty or failed to conform to our present standard of moral law. We might as well condemn them for failure to grasp and apply the principles of liberty, representation or constitutional government. Judgment, interpretation, exegesis, have all been perverted by the vicious application of a changeless code of morality, a conception which is inherited from

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the static stage of historical study. Our own knowledge of our moral and ethical duties is in part the result of our historical growth, and the study of history alone can teach this. To understand even yet incompletely the slow progress of man toward a higher moral and ethical life is a first step in the comprehension of that life and its obligations. It is a definite advantage of history as an aid to moral culture. To understand where we are relative to the moral life of the past is itself a moral gain. Literature cannot teach it; the ideals of an age are not the realities of an age. The moral standards of a people appear not so much in their thoughts as in their acts, furthered or retarded as they too often are by their selfish interest. Study the history of slavery, of serfdom, of charity and philanthrophy, even of war, and it will be seen that never was the dignity of man greater, never the scope of our moral duty more wide than it is to-day. The existence of present evil is not a negation of this; rather does it show that we are more conscious of our defects and are studying them with more attention. It may also show that we are sanctioning many social and industrial evils as grievous to the present life as was serfdom to the mediæval. Morally we of to-day see deeper, farther and truer, taking society as a whole, than before the French Revolution, or even before the Civil War.

This will be of further moral value. It will react upon our own conception of the past; it will enable us to judge more leniently, more fairly and dispassionately of those characters and movements, over-appreciated as well as over-condemned, which have had a part in humanizing our lives. It will liberalize our thoughts; it will enable us to judge men in the light of their own age, under the influence of a social order and of moral ideas which are the result of a mental scenery different in many ways from ours. No man in the past can be judged by an absolute standard. We must study fairly the circumstances; we must estimate justly the relation of what they did to the influences bearing upon them. Thus the study of history will make the large man less combative in maintaining positive opinions, less dogmatic in asserting them. If he interprets the deeds of men of a past age with more charity, so will he judge those of the present generation with cautiousness, realizing that it is given to no single man to determine all the influences which must be taken into account. Such a result must be a moral gain.

Furthermore, in an age when thoughtful men are concerned with the future of humanity, it is fundamental to safe and conservative progress that our moral standard be a practical one; a standard always in advance of the fulfillment of its conditions, yet capable of application to the problems which the workings of the social machinery are constantly showing to us. The moral convictions of

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an age are, fortunately, not easily altered. They are held back by the weight of years, bound by the tenacious adherence of an inherited set of moral ideas. Sometimes such inheritance is hostile to progress. though we may not speak lightly of a worn-out moral standard, unless it is, by virtue of its limitations, manifestly hostile to healthy moral life. On the other hand, we may find an equal danger in attempting to obey an ideal standard, based on no considerations of practical life. In either case, there is danger to a sound moral order in a system which cannot adapt itself to the practical needs of society. History checks a narrow morality, and teaches us to be cautious in an enforced application of one that is too ideal. It enables us to take a long look into the moral life of the past. It teaches us not ideals, but the practicability of ideals; the living up to the highest standards of which man is at the moment capable. Morally speaking, man should always be pressing hard against the limitations of the life which surround him.

But the moral lesson deducible from this is not complete unless we study man, not merely as an individual in active life, or as the mouthpiece of the best thoughts of an age, but also as a member of society; that is, man in the mass. This may mean mass organized, society; mass disorganized, the crowd. "He who has not observed man acting in a crowd," says Lavallee,* "does not know the whole man. Here under the influence of enthusiasm or terror, infatuation or prejudice, strange traits and qualities appear." The revolutions of Europe show the truth of Lavallee's remark. It is a strange type of man, but no less man, who stood behind the barricades of Paris, fought in the streets of Palermo or shot down the hostages at the Cemetery Pere la Chaise. But man in the mass is also man as a member of society. The social organism is made up of responsible individuals, and the morality of the social group will be the resultant of the moral purposes of its members. The moral spirit of a nation has become since the Renaissance a growing factor in history; the larger the group the more definitely can we determine the law which governs its moral actions. Literature tells us of the voices of single men, speaking often in isolation, neglected thoughts, thrice-laureled to-day. The statute books show us too often the attempts of single men or bodies of men to lead and give the stamp to public opinion. History says that it has been the slow-growing determination of the people, not in isolation, but in wholes, stimulated it may be by single men, which has finally wrought out their destiny. It says that those who most disdain the moral standards are bound to take eventual account of the moral sentiments of a people, and that continued attack along moral lines will succeed in the end. As Seward said

*"Moralite dans l' Histoire," Paris, 1892.

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in 1850: "Has any government ever succeeded in changing the moral convictions of its people by force?" Although I recognize fully the place of the personal in history, nevertheless the individual, who is not supported by the spirit of the age which called him into existence, will do little that is immediate and practical to stimulate the advance of human progress. This sense of the power of a common moral purpose gives encouragement to a life which, in isolation, seems to be, as Job says, "of few days and full of trouble." To act upon this knowledge of our relation to society would be to cultivate unselfishness, a spirit of altruism, a sense of duty necessary for the increase of such common moral purpose, which, when formed, as history shows, becomes a real, a tangible factor in practical life.

But there is a further encouragement to the cultivation of higher moral ideas in the individual and an unselfish co-operation in the building up of a higher moral standard. History teaches that in the long course of man's development the good has survived. Evil has had its place and has done its work, but while the immediate force may be great its results have not accumulated. The good—that is, those elements serviceable for the development of man's higher nature—survives and lives; the evil burns itself away. The heritage which has come down to us is a goodly heritage, because its elements are pure, refined, artistic and inspiring. While this is true of the work of individuals, even more remarkably is it true of the eventual results of great historical struggles. Confused though the periods of such struggle may be; dominated though they are by the worst elements to which they have given birth; and always in the immediate results contributors of evil rather than good to humanity; nevertheless no careful or thoughtful student can fail to see that the good in the end has triumphed; that the moral sense has become keener, the humanities more active, the capacities enlarged. Whether we study the Crusades, the Renaissance and Reformation, or the French Revolution, the same result is clear. Each movement has been a fiery ordeal out of which has come only good to humanity. The disturbance has been great, but the experience has made men morally better.

Such considerations encourage the moral life of to-day. They encourage in the single individual a truer conception of his place and his work. They lead to the belief that even his single efforts will have a moral weight as part of a combined movement, which in its increase becomes a dominant factor in a political and material world. As with individuals, so with nations. History shows that no nation can develop in isolation. Moral co-operation must be international as well as social.

But such efforts, unless conditioned by further laws which history brings to light, will be misapplied and wasted. If history announces

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that the result of earnest moral effort is successful in the end, so does it declare that the object sought for should be reasonable, practicable and necessary, and that the means employed to attain such ends should be justifiable as the end is justifiable. Nowhere is the futility of misapplied effort better seen than in the matter of experiments in political and social life. Our statute books are full of dead legislative material. History is full of futile experiments, futile because they were either reactionary or too ideal; full of political philosophies,—Utopian schemes; some erratic, some noble, some wretched vaporings of diseased minds. The imperial schemes of Napoleon have vanished from sight; the constitution of Locke lived a weary life of thirty years; that of Gorges died at birth. The philosophy of Mazzini, noble as much of it was and influential as were some of the principles which it set forth, existed only as a philosopher's scheme, while the promoter failed to grasp the truth that a plan of government must have its roots deep-planted in the past history of the people to whom it is given. Fourier and Proudhon were historically mad if they thought to reconstruct the social organism upon a collection of phalanxes or on a basis of anarchism. But why multiply instances. When will theorists and idealists learn that the organization of society cannot be remodeled according to the views of any one man or body of men.

If the end must be practicable, so must the means. History makes it clear that when the energies are immorally directed, when deceit, subterfuge and force are employed, that results are produced more dangerous and destructive to a healthy moral purpose than could the end have been for good. There are undoubted exceptions to this, but it is a universal truth that an immoral act cannot be for the good of humanity—cannot further the cause of right and justice.

If these are lessons which history teaches, surely we may ascribe to its study a high place as an aid to moral culture. Much of this literature cannot accomplish, because it does not treat of realities and has not the range of views which history possesses. History studies man not only in his every activity, but it studies these activities through the whole period of man's career. It studies the beginning and the end, the cause and the result, the immediate and the general. The study of the complications of a single age, of a single life often leads to the belief in the victory of evil over good, of passions over peace, of injustice over justice. It is the broader view, not of single men and single nations, but of all men and all nations, that confirms our faith that practice and morality do triumph in the end; that all attempts to suppress the free exercise by man of all his faculties, within the limits of a just and necessary law, have failed. Civilization is conquering barbarism, nature and the physical

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forces have given way before the intellectual forces, peace and justice are growing stronger in the struggle with war and violence, while liberty of thought, of speech, of equality before God and the law, have won their victory over the spirit of repression.

Never was there a time when the careful and sympathetic study of history was more needed than now. We are living in a material age; in an age when the exact sciences are gaining a deserved prominence because of their utility for the health and wealth of man. There is a growing danger that the mere interest in material good will absorb the mind and attention of those who make up society. The study of history shows that it has not been the material interests which have ruled the world; that wealth cannot teach us of the moral development of nations or the ideas of right and wrong. It may, on the other hand, do much to weaken both. With the economic growth of the country, with the satisfaction of so many of our political and social demands there has not come, as had been hoped, that subordination of the baser side of humanity to the high political aspirations which sought the regeneration of mankind. The history of this century shows that material prosperity and political freedom cannot alone give true happiness and moral probity. At a time when the material and the intellectual are threatening to dominate there is need of rousing to an equal, even greater, activity the religious, moral and ethical as well. The men of to-day accumulating wealth and dispensing it bountifully must not merely distribute it for society, but their aims must be high, purposive and moral. The single individual seeking the happiness, the hopefulness, of all must stimulate his moral and religious nature, must enlarge his sympathies, stifle his passions and seek out practically and definitely the moral needs of his fellow-men. And society has a soul and spirit as well. "The attempt to give a moral direction to the social body," says Professor Todd,* "is miserable quackery unless refined historical and philosophical insight has guided the pen in making out the prescription." The periods of history which show the supremacy of intellect without morals, of material interests without religion, are among the saddest which the historian has to contemplate. The defects of the Renaissance can but impress the thoughtful mind. Its intellectual brilliancy, relieved by no moral enlightenment, was destructive to the land of its origin. The work of the humanists has long ceased to influence the world. Rome and Athens in their decadence were cities where religion and morality were dying. The Reign of Terror marks the dominance of passion, a period of political chaos, without order, religious or moral.

*"Morals in History," "International Journal of Ethics." Vol. I., p. 223.

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The under currents and tendencies of every age lie deeply hidden. Some, it is true, can be foreseen by thoughtful minds at once, others time alone can bring to the discernment of all. In the present age, with its manifold complexity of interests, its selfish concern in affairs, immediate and material, its mind clogged with the entanglements of every day life, it is necessary that we have for our guide that study which tells us of what has been. History alone can furnish that perspective, those points of comparison, which are so needed in judging what we have done and where we now are. It gives a meaning to our present perplexities; it gives proportions to the affairs of to-day; it makes it possible to determine the character and direction of our present progress.

In two other respects may we see a distinct moral gain from the right study of history. A people which has faith in a conservative view of human progress will, in the first place, be more instinct with a spirit of optimism. Not a shallow and thoughtless optimism, but an optimism courageous and hopeful. To hold the theory of chance in history is evidence of a mental disease; the inability to see a development in human affairs is evidence of a mental blindness, which can but lead to pessimism and indifference. Optimism makes us brave for the struggle of life. Can pessimism be a source of moral strength to humanity, can indifference be a motive power to the performance of better things, or can the world profit from a theory which relegates all things to the hazard of a series of loose, discontinuous and independent events? Optimism is bred of a higher conception of history than that of the influence of physical forces, and progress looks to a higher guidance than that of humanity alone.

While optimism is a moral gain to society, humility, moderation and patience are all equally beneficial, and each in a measure is an outcome of a thoughtful and sympathetic reading of history. Humility is the absence of vain-glorying and self-conceit, in recognizing the importance of other nationalities, in realizing how much each is indebted to the others through a better comprehension of the influences by which each has risen to eminence. Jingoism does not thrive on a thoughtful study of history, however much it may flourish on one that is superficial. Moderation results from our endeavor to avoid extremes, to hesitate before passing judgment, to avoid the attitude of an alarmist on the one side or of an indifferentist on the other. Patience comes from a willingness to wait hopefully, never seized with despair, which history forbids, knowing that, as that which is best in the past has survived, so that which is best in the present will gain the day the sooner, if, instead of isolating ourselves from society and our fellow-men, we co-operate intelligently according to the standard which is the best that the age has produced.

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In yet another way does the study of history teach humility. The static conception of history often leads to the inference that a social order can be changed at will to an exaggerated view of man's free action in molding the future as he wills. The dynamic conception teaches that free will in society, similar to though weaker than in man, is limited by the impetus of past forces, by the inertia of social and economic tendencies, which we may almost call the laws of social progress. Of these, man in the past has been far more unconscious than in the present, for the social organism then existing was not introspective. Even now we find it difficult to determine what are the forces which are urging humanity forward, still more to determine what direction they will take. History shows that whereas men have planned to accomplish one thing, the forces thereby set in motion have brought results entirely different. The failures of history, from the standpoint of those co-operating, have proved the successes of history from the standpoint of later generations. Alexander, the Crusaders, Louis XIV. in revoking the edict of Nantes, Napoleon in building a European empire, failed to accomplish their immediate purpose, but from the standpoint of tre present each builded better than he knew. This may well lessen the confidence of the individual in the absolute value of his own work. It may make him hopeful in moderation, optimistic without vanity.

If I seem to be speaking as if the study of history were a panacea for much that is needed in the moral of man and the nation, I do so intentionally. History has been misunderstood, misstudied, mistaught. Its value as a living factor in the life of to-day will increase only as the philosophy and logic of our subject is recognized and is brought down from the books of the philosopher and taught in a fashion tempered to the mind of the pupil, young or old, especially to those who are to be the teachers and thinkers of a coming generation. Bossuet declared that history was useful for kings only, for sovereigns alone need to know of past events in order to govern rightly. We may echo his words, and emphasize the need of history for our sovereign body, which is the people. A people which is to govern itself must be a people educated in the conditions of its growth. The history of this century in France teaches us many lessons regarding the evils of an extension of the suffrage to a people where ignorance was more universal than knowledge.* We are threatened with

*A French writer, commenting in 1857 upon the causes of the *coup d'etat*, significantly remarks: "That which is wanting in modern society is, I regret to say, a moral sense. Let a man [Napoleon III.] be successful by illegitimate means, provided that his success be thoroughly proved, and no one cares to blame him. The *fait accompli* is given the dignity of right." Following this, as a commentary on the causes which made such a political crime possible, is this sentence: "Unfortunately the study of history is not to-day popular: one is inclined to think that it is considered superfluous." ("*Planche, de la Moralité de l'Histoire*," in the "Revue d. d. Mondes," 15 Mai, 1857, p. 328.)

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no such dangers, but there are reasons why the study of history should be given its place of importance in all schemes for popular education. A people with a sound knowledge of the facts regarding its own development and that of other peoples will offer a strong foundation for a democratic government, but no stronger than is necessary for the best development of the people's life.

Thus far I have discussed the value of history for the student or non-professional reader only. Two other phases of its moral influence may be briefly noted—the writing of history and the teaching of history. A heavy responsibility rests upon those special students in the cultivation of those qualifications which best fit them to create and impart. History stands in some respects quite apart from other branches of science. Like them it is the search for truth, itself a moral lesson. Unlike them, it deals with human activities. It demands qualities of a high order to discover, understand, co-ordinate and present the multifarious facts, the ambiguous statements and contradictory evidences which confront every investigator into the events of the past times. It teaches, in the first place, thoroughness. The world is the critic. Careless and superficial work will be shot-riddled before it has passed the gauntlet awaiting it. It demands a judicious weighing of evidence, a balancing of probabilities, the separation of the true from the false, the probable from the improbable. The historian is not a lawyer defending a brief; he is a judge hearing all the evidence. It demands thoughtfulness a hundred times repeated in the formation of an opinion, a searching of the mind to discover lingering prepossessions which bias the judgment, befog the imagination and weaken the estimate. It demands an impartiality which is free from partisanship, from religious, political and racial prejudice; an impartiality which is not indifference, but which is warmed with a ready sympathy for the deserts of all. It demands a keen insight into the moral tendencies of an age, with the influences which are acting upon mankind; some, the slow moving forces of a past activity, according to which many a man is to be judged, others, the equally slow moving forces of a newer life and thought, which impel another class of men to a different activity. Youth and age, religious environment and political ambition are all to be accounted for in determining a man's place and work. Such requirements impose upon the writer of history a moral training of a high order. The effect of such a writer, of the work which he produces, will be morally beneficial to the leader who feels his influence and admires the qualities which he has shown. To educate oneself to judge history is to cultivate some of the best of the moral virtues.

Finally, for the teacher as well, the same careful self-training is necessary. In one sense the teacher is, as the writer is, a judge; but

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in another, a deeper responsibility lies here. The one appeals to the more mature man, the other exercises an influence at an age when the mind of the learner is plastic, easily led, roused by enthusiasm, quick to receive impressions. Here accuracy and detail are in all respects valuable, but optimism, hopefulness and enthusiasm are more permanently potent. To no one is the conception of unity, continuity and universality more necessary. To inculcate a carpical, skeptical, pessimistic spirit is injurious in its immediate, dangerous in its ultimate, consequences. The teacher must himself cultivate, in order to generate in others, those moral qualities of fairness and justice which history engenders and which thoughtful boys or girls understand and appreciate. Such students will be slower to judge, quicker to act in the right. The youth of one generation become the voters of the next, and the moral training of one age prepares the way for moral success in the future.

Thus, from whatever point of view we examine it, the study of history will do something for the moral side of man's nature. It may be summed up in a single quotation from a recent French writer, already mentioned,* whose conception of the value of history is far-reaching and true: "(The study of history) opens our eyes, enlarges our horizon, bids us look, not only on this or that people, but on humanity as a whole. It frees us from the narrowness of religious and party biases; it strengthens our moral nature, in that it prevents us from being blinded to the good points of any. It renders our patriotism more ardent and firm, in that it is larger, clearer, better kept in check against the perils of its own enthusiasm. It will work usefully for the establishment of peace based upon justice, the maintenance of concord between nations. The philosophy of history assigns to history its true place, its true meaning; it will prepare a moral code, not, indeed, of man alone, but of social man; not, indeed, of man, but of humanity."

DISCUSSION.

FRANCIS BELLAMY, Editor of "Youth's Companion."—It is often said that the successful teaching of history is its presentation as a series of pictures. It should be said with equal truth that the successful teaching of history is its presentation as a series of moral ideas.

*Lavallee.

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We are not dealing, however, with theories. The question is, at least it seems so to my layman's mind: How may the teacher teach history so that its moral lessons may have a grip? In making the suggestions I have in mind I ought to be appalled at facing this audience of specialists upon their own field. Perhaps, however, the fact that I know so little about education is the best reason why I should try to speak; I know how thoroughly many of my own instructors in history failed upon me. History seems to me an unbroken succession of moral ideas: the ethical principle is the chief key to the understanding of history. The truism of history repeating itself rests upon the permanency of moral fact; therefore I have long believed that the first thing a teacher ought to look for in his teaching of history is the succession of moral ideas back of all the events; and that he should use these ideas as a series of pegs on which to hang all the occurrences of the period he is describing.

The superintendent, for instance, knows that a certain teacher is about to begin a class in Greek history. He sits down himself and discovers the line of moral principles which protrude in the period to be studied. He goes to the instructor of the class and makes sure that the teacher comprehends these leading points and feels their force; he impresses upon the teacher the driving necessity of hanging his instruction upon these facts. The dates and minor occurrences are sure to be forgotten, but these ethical ideas can be made to stick.

Thus, for example, here is the principle of individualism in Greek life. When the history of Persia is opened it is men in masses that we meet; morasses of indistinguishable humanity. But in every picture and event in Greek life it is the individual that stands out. The Agora is the meeting of individuals; the little Greek armies are great because every shield represents an individual opinion; statesmen are in the ranks. Individualism is the explanation of the glory of Greece. Again, still in Greek history, we are impressed with the Hellenic regard for the processes of law. Personal violence was scarcely ever resorted to in Athens to avenge offenses of which the law took any cognizance. There is not a nation to-day in which so much dependence is placed upon due processes of law as among the Greeks.

You remember one of Demosthenes' greatest orations was in legal prosecution of a man who had boxed the orator's ears. Yet Demosthenes was of soldier-like stuff and had served in the ranks. Another pregnant ethical principle was the Greek sense of citizenship with its responsibilities. The Greek felt himself born into his city as he was born into his family. Civic virtues were esteemed with the highest regard; the alacrity with which he entered upon the performance of his duties to the city stands in instructive contrast to the modern indifference of American citizens to the way in which their municipalities are governed. Then, still further, this municipal spirit of the Greeks was at the expense of national spirit. Here, in the Greek lack of unity, of cohesiveness, is another important lesson. The great deficiency of Greece was national patriotism. When it might have been a strong federal power, petty independencies made it a mob of democracies. The true Hellenism never came until the political glory of Greece had departed. Now, each of these facts are essential to an understanding of Greek life, while their moral bearing upon the civic culture of to-day is of tremendous importance. It matters little whether the exact date of the battle of Marathon is remembered; but it matters everything whether the spirit which made Marathon mean more than a thousand other frays is understood.

Or, suppose that it is the Elizabethan epoch of English history that is being studied; the precise date of the destruction of the Armada may be forgotten, but

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the living teacher can make his class thrill with the thought that the defeat of the Armada was due to the English people taking the matter into their own hands while their queen in her penuriousness seemed to be doing her best to sap England's power of resistance; and, indeed, that the real glory of the Elizabethan age was due least of all to Elizabeth herself, but most of all to the fact that the English people were then, for the first time, finding themselves, feeling their own power, and stretching out their hands towards the destiny of the Anglo-Saxon race.

I never knew why the history of the Dutch Republic was not made a part of the course in our American schools. Certainly no history of any foreign country has so close a relation to American institutions as that of the Netherlands. How a teacher with the spirit of his subject born in him, after a reading of Motley, could impress even a dull class with the moral qualities of that little Dutch Republic! As contrasted with the centrifugal forces which ruined Greece, how stirring is the spectacle of the centralizing impulses of the Dutch States; what a lesson of federal patriotism; and how direct was its influence upon the same kind of spirit which has made our many States one nation indivisible, with liberty and justice for all. Again, no lesson in statesmanship surpasses that afforded by the picture of William of Orange with his Fabian policy of delay, patiently enduring the offenses of Spain until Philip II. should put himself so completely in the wrong that the moral sentiment of Europe and of history would be on the side of the Netherlands. What an ideal of masterly statesmanship for the youth who are to command the coming years.

Our own history, of course, teems with these moral issues. I am convinced the chief reason that our American history is so generally the *bete noir* of the curriculum is that it is conducted with but little reference to the moral principles which alone can explain it. Of what interest, for instance, does the brief reference to old Cotton Mather possess for the pupil? Let it be understood, however, that Cotton Mather stood as the protest of the old ecclesiastical order of New England against the rising spirit within the church of free inquiry which young Harvard was then expressing, and Cotton Mather begins to stamp himself upon the imagination and memory.

Thus it seems to me that the only true way to teach history is to present it in its moral aspects, to hang its occurrences and names upon the moral issues and moral facts of each succeeding age. It must appeal to the sentiment if it is to be successfully taught, but it can only appeal to the sentiment as it appeals to the conscience.

I wish to pay my tribute to William Carey Morey, still college teacher of history, who was the first man who made history a living thing to my imagination. Our first freshman day in Livy was devoted by him, not to the text, but to a superb picturing of the moral place which Rome filled in history. If Rome before that day had been but a name, from that day she never ceased to be a throbbing inspiration to every young man who listened.

It depends entirely upon the teacher whether history is to have this moral value or not. In the hands of some, no doubt, the teaching of history can never be made to rise above the deadness of dates and names. But what superintendent can tell how many teachers are waiting to receive from him a strong suggestion of the moral power that history may have? Some that are now without promise may prove more responsive than he expects.

PROFESSOR JAMES SETH of Brown University said that he considered the indirect method of moral teaching much better than the direct. To teach school children a theory of ethics would probably make them either moral prigs or moral skeptics. While all education was in its nature ethical, appealing to the will and

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resulting in the formation of character, such subjects as history and literature were especially full of moral suggestion. Both were pictorial and exhibited the movement of moral forces, the one on the wider stage of the State, the other on the narrower scale of individual life. Both were fitted to inculcate the lesson of reverence for what was great in the past of the race and for the eternal ideals of mankind.

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DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

RICHMOND MEETING.

REPORT OF PROCEEDINGS.

FIRST, DAY.—TUESDAY FEB. 20, 1894

MORNING SESSION.

The Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association held its first meeting at 10 A. M in the Young Men's Christian Association building of the city of Richmond, Va.

The meeting was called to order by Dr. D. L. Kiehle, President of the department. Prayer was offered by the Rev. Moses D. Hoge, D. D. Addresses of welcome were then delivered by Hon. John E. Massey, State Superintendent of Virginia, Hon. J. Taylor Ellyson, Mayor of the city of Richmond, and Hon. R. Taylor Scott, Attorney General of the State of Virginia.

To these addresses, response was made by President Kiehle in behalf of the department.

After the addresses and response, President Kiehle stated that he had assumed the responsibility of employing a stenographer to report the proceedings of the department, and requested the department to indorse the action and to make provision for his payment and the printing of the Proceedings. On motion, the President and Secretary of the department were instructed to arrange with the National Association for the payment of the stenographer for his services and the publication of the Proceedings of the meeting; and, also, if possible, the Proceedings of the meeting held in Boston, the previous year.

The President announced the committees as follows:

On Resolutions— Nathan C. Schaeffer, State Superintendent of Pennsylvania; Henry L. Raab, State Superintendent of Illinois; Dr. C. A. McMurry, Normal, Ill.; L. H. Jones, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis, Ind.; E. A. Steere, State Superintendent of Montana.

On Nominations— Supt. N. C. Dougherty, Peoria, Ill.; Dr. W. J. Milne, Albany, N. Y.; Supt. F. A. Fitzpatrick, Omaha, Neb.; State Supt. J. R. Preston, Jackson, Miss.; Supt. Wm. F. Fox, Richmond, Va.

Superintendent Fox of the Richmond city schools invited the members of the department to visit the city schools at their leisure, and in behalf of the State Board of Education and the School Board of Richmond, announced that an entertainment would be given the following evening at Masonic Hall in honor of the members of the department.

Miss Ellen G. Reveley and Mr. Henry C. Muckley of Cleveland then read papers upon "Enriching the Course in the Elementary Schools," the former referring particularly to primary grades, the latter to grammar grades. Discussion

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of these papers was opened by William B. Powell of Washington, D. C., followed by Henry A. Wise of Baltimore, W. H. Maxwell of Brooklyn, N. Y., Miss Reveley, Mr. Muckley and A. S. Draper of Cleveland.

The department then adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The session of the afternoon was called to order by President Kiehle at 2:30 o'clock.

Francis W. Parker, Principal Normal School, Englewood, Ill., read a paper upon "The Improvement of Teachers Now in the Schools." The discussion was opened by Richard G. Boone, Principal State Normal School, Ypsilanti, Mich., and was continued by Supt. J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.; State Supt. W. W. Pendergast of Minnesota; Supt. J. A. Reinhart, Paterson, N. J.; Supt. O. T. Bright, Chicago; Supt. F. A. Fitzpatrick, Omaha, Neb.; Zalmon Richards, Washington; Prof. C. A. McMurry, Normal, Ill.; Supt. A. B. Blodgett, Syracuse, N. Y.; Supt. A. G. Lane, Chicago; Supt. C. W. Cole, Albany, N. Y.; Supt. H. P. Emerson, Buffalo; Miss Corinne Harrison, Norfolk, Va.; and James L. Hughes, Inspector of Schools, Toronto.

Session adjourned.

EVENING SESSION.

The evening session was called to order at 8 o'clock. Papers were read by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler of Columbia College, N. Y., and Prof. Richard Jones of Swarthmore College, Pennsylvania. Discussion of papers was opened by Dr. W. T. Harris, who was followed in conclusion by Col. F. W. Parker.

SECOND DAY.—WEDNESDAY, FEB. 21, 1894.

MORNING SESSION.

The session of the morning was called to order by President Kiehle at 11 A. M. to which hour the adjournment had been made.

On account of unavoidable absence by reason of sickness of Melvil Dewey, Secretary of the University of the State of New York, his paper upon "The Library and the Public Schools" was omitted. After prayer had been offered by the Rev. Dr. W. W. Landrum, the paper of the morning was read by James L. Hughes, Inspector of the Public Schools of Toronto, upon "The Kindergarten in Its Relation to the Public School System." Discussion of Mr. Hughes' paper was participated in by Principal J. A. Green of the New Jersey State Normal School; A. J. Rankin, Superintendent of Schools, Superior City, Wis.; Supt. Wm. L. Barringer, Newark, N. J.; Supt. P. P. Claxton, Goldsboro, N. C.; Supt. J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.; Supt. S. T. Dutton, Brookline, Mass.; Miss Corinne Harrison, Norfolk, Va.; N. C. Schaeffer, State Superintendent, Harrisburgh, Pa.; Dr. James Macalister, President Drexel Institute, Philadelphia; and State Supt. W. N. Sheats, Tallahassee, Fla.

The session then adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The meeting was called to order by the President at 2:30 o'clock. On motion, it was agreed to proceed to the consideration of the place of the next meeting. Superintendent Maxwell moved the selection of Cleveland. After an invitation from

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Mr. W. E. Robinson, Superintendent of Public Schools, to go to Detroit, the department, without dissent, voted for Cleveland.

Dr. W. T. Harris then read his paper upon "The Curriculum for Secondary Schools." Discussion of this paper was participated in by W. H. Maxwell of Brooklyn; A. B. Nightingale of Chicago; Charles De Garmo of Swarthmore College, Pennsylvania; J. M. Greenwood of Missouri; and Dr. W. T. Harris. During the discussion Hon. J. M. L. Curry of Richmond, the agent of the Peabody and Slater funds, was introduced to the department.

The session then adjourned.

EVENING SESSION.

Upon the opening of the evening session, President Kiehle reported that the special committee, to which had been referred the matter of the publication of the Proceedings, had conferred with the Executive Committee and the Board of Trustees of the National Association. He stated that the matter of publication was wholly a financial one; but that, if the members of the department would now pay in their membership fees, instead of waiting until July, the same would be used for the publication of the report.

Dr. John Eaton, ex-United States Commissioner of Education, and President James Macalister of Philadelphia, then read papers upon "Education at the Columbian Exposition," the former upon the special theme, "The Educational Contribution of the Exhibit," and the latter upon "The Educational Contribution of the International Congress of Education." After a brief discussion of these papers by Supt. Albert G. Lane of Chicago, the department adjourned, to accept the invitation that had been extended in behalf of the Board of Education of the city of Richmond and State Board of Education of Virginia to a banquet given in the Masonic Temple.

THIRD DAY.—THURSDAY, FEB. 22, 1894.

MORNING SESSION.

The department convened at 10 o'clock. Hon. John E. Massey invoked the divine blessing. Dr. Massey then announced that the Governor of Virginia, having been too ill to be in attendance upon any of the meetings, extended to the members of the department an invitation to call upon him in his office in the capitol at 1:30 o'clock.

Hon. John Eaton offered resolutions, expressing the appreciation of the department upon the reappointment of the Hon. W. T. Harris to the office of Commissioner of Education and Dr. W. N. Hailmann to the Superintendency of Indian Schools, which were referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Mr. S. S. Parr, Superintendent of City Schools, St. Cloud, Minn., then read a paper upon "The Improvement of Teachers in Rural Schools." This paper was discussed by Dr. John E. Massey of Virginia and J. R. Preston, State Superintendent of Education of Mississippi.

Mr. Edwin P. Seaver, Superintendent of Public Schools of Boston, read a paper upon "The Care of Truants and Incorrigibles." The discussion was opened by Supt. W. E. Robinson of Detroit, followed by Supt. R. E. Denfeld of Duluth.

Department then adjourned.

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AFTERNOON SESSION.

Upon the opening of this session Supt. O. T. Bright of Cook Co., Illinois, offered the following resolutions:

Resolved (1) That in the preparation of the next program of this department not more than one paper shall be allowed on any one topic. (2) That no paper shall exceed thirty minutes in length, and that said thirty minutes shall include all digressions of the reader. (3) That no person shall be designated to discuss the paper. (4) That no person shall occupy more than six minutes in discussion unless by unanimous consent, and in no case shall be allowed more than ten minutes.

In behalf of these resolutions Mr. Bright offered some pertinent remarks, and was followed by President Kiehle, Dr. Massey, Mr. Rickoff and Dr. Macalister.

The resolutions were adopted.

Mr. Sheats of Florida then presented an invitation to the department to hold the next meeting, or some future meeting, in his State. The invitation was supported by a plea that all winter sessions should be held in the South, in which the special attractions of Florida were set forth.

The Committee on Nominations presented the following names as officers of the department for the ensuing year.

President—Wm. H. Maxwell, Superintendent of Schools, Brooklyn, N. Y.
First Vice President– O. T. Corson, State Commissioner of Common Schools, Columbus, Ohio.
Second Vice President– Wm. L. Fox, Superintendent of Public Schools, Richmond, Va.
Secretary—James M. Carlisle, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Austin, Tex.

Report adopted.

Dr. Wm. R. Harper, President of the Chicago University, being unable to be present, President Charles De Garmo addressed the department upon the announced theme, "The University in Its Relation to the Teaching Profession." This address was discussed by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, Professor of Pedagogy, Columbia College, N. Y.; F. Treudley, Superintendent of Schools, Youngstown, Ohio; Edward R. Shaw, Professor of Pedagogy in the University of the City of New York; C. A. McMurry, Professor of Pedagogy, Normal, Ill.; Dr. W. T. Harris, Dr. N. C. Schaeffer, Supt. W. M. Maxwell and Supt. J. M. Greenwood.

After the report of the Committee on Resolutions by the Chairman, Dr. Schaeffer, the department adjourned.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS.

Whereas, The Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association has been holding another of its series of annual sessions, showing much progress in the science and art of pedagogy; therefore be it

Resolved, That, inasmuch as education depends primarily upon the play of mind upon mind and soul upon soul, we urge more extensive and careful preparation of those intending to teach, as well as the improvement of the teachers now in the schools, as the first condition of enriching the courses of study in all grades of the schools.

Resolved, That, in the opinion of this department, the kindergarten as a part of the public school system would shorten and enrich the entire course of instruction in elementary and secondary schools, and tend to broaden and deepen the character of the future citizen; and that we recommend the establishment of kindergartens in localities where public opinion favors their introduction and properly prepared kindergartners can be obtained; and that we further recommend to the the individual States the enactment of laws permitting the school authorities to introduce the kindergarten as a part of the public school system, and to the normal schools the establishment of kindergarten classes in connection with their work.

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Resolved, That we hereby emphasize our estimate of the able and valuable report of the Committee of Ten, and urge its careful study by all the teachers and school officials of the land.

Resolved, That we view with deep satisfaction the efforts of universities to found chairs of psychology and education, for the purpose of establishing a sound theory of instruction in all classes of schools. The great body of teachers constantly emerging from our higher institutions of learning should have abundant opportunity, while pursuing their courses, to acquaint themselves with the best practical ideas and theories on teaching. Our whole educational system is in striking need of scholarly and practical schoolmen who may devote their entire attention to the history and psychology of education and to a scientific study of our schools and courses of study.

Resolved, That the comparative lessons learned at the World's Columbian Exposition should stimulate the teachers to study comparatively what is good in systems of education of our own and other nations, and to adopt the best for the youth of the United States.

Resolved, That an inquiry into the educational movements in Europe shows clearly that their problems are the same as ours. In some fields of educational theory and practice they have had longer and fuller experience than we, and it behooves us to acquaint ourselves with their books and reports and to study their institutions in a liberal and receptive spirit.

Resolved, That, in the judgment of this Department of Superintendence, each State should provide by law for the proper lighting, heating and ventilation of all public school buildings, and that the minimum amount of air supplied for each pupil shall not be less than 1,500 cubic feet per hour.

Resolved, That we take great pleasure in the fact that Hon. Hoke Smith, Secretary of the Interior, and President Cleveland have recognized the able, faithful and efficient administration of the United States Bureau of Education under Dr. W. T. Harris, and have retained his services.

Resolved, That we also take satisfaction in the fact that in making a change in the office of Superintendent of Indian Schools, they have selected a well-known, life-long educator, Dr. W. N. Hailmann; and further, that they have given definiteness to the office and guarded its duties and responsibilities with appropriate regulations.

Resolved, That we express our high appreciation of the warm and hospitable reception given us in the capital city of the Old Dominion, and tender our thanks to the press for the full reports of the proceedings and discussions of the department, to the citizens, and especially to the State and local Boards of Education and to the City Superintendent of Schools and his teachers and co-laborers for the many kindnesses and courtesies shown us during the session.

Resolved, That we shall go to our homes rejoicing that we have been upon the historic soil of Virginia, and cherishing the friendships and associations which were formed during these sessions of the department.

NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER,
HENRY RAAB,
C. A. MCMURRY,
E. A. STEERE,
Committee.

EVENING SESSION.

The final meeting of the department was called to order by President Kiehle at 8 o'clock.

Lawton B. Evans, Superintendent of Schools of Augusta, Ga., and J. M. Carlisle, State Superintendent of Education of Texas, read papers upon "The South and Its Problems." Discussion was then engaged in by J. H. Phillips, Superintendent of Schools of Birmingham, Ala., Col. F. W. Parker, Supt. J. M. Greenwood and Supt. J. F. Preston.

These being concluded and a vote of thanks having been extended to the officers of the department, President Kiehle, after a few fitting remarks, adjourned the department *sine die*.

F. TREUDLEY,
Secretary.

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PAPERS AND DISCUSSION.

ENRICHING THE COURSE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS —FIRST TO FOURTH GRADES.

BY MISS ELLEN G. REVELEY, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

In the discussion of this theme let us look backward to the reforms urged by Comenius and Locke.

Three hundred years ago Comenius recommended a course of study for children from six to twelve years of age. Learning the mother tongue well, he considered most important. Composition and memorizing hymns and texts were to be given special attention. Besides ciphering, pupils were to learn to measure and weigh. The study of the geography of their native land was emphasized. Ideas of astronomy were to be gained by observing the motions of the stars. Physics was to be taught to impart a notion of the forces of nature. General history was to make the children acquainted with the world of social and political action. Music was to be practiced first in popular airs and afterwards as an art. A general knowledge of arts and handicrafts was advocated. Moral lessons based on illustrations were commended.

Locke recommended that a correct use of English be attained by reading interesting story books. He proposed that children, even at an early age, should often tell stories of something they know, and that older pupils write on familiar topics without notes. He favored drawing, and suggested a manual trade, but more for pleasure than for practical life.

When we compare these ideas of the sixteenth century with nineteenth century courses of study, may we not exclaim, with Paul: "Not as though I had already attained, either were already perfect, but I follow after."

Without attempting to trace the progress of educational thought to the present, we cannot forbear to speak of three great changes which have been wrought:

1. That girls now have the same advantage as boys in our schools.

2. That attendance at school is compulsory in many commonwealths.

3. That there is a widespread and increasing interest in the subject of enriching the courses of our common schools.

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The appointment of the committee on secondary school studies and the exhaustive report made is a proof of the growing interest. President of universities, school superintendents and supervisors of primary instruction are alike actively interested in the enrichment of courses of study.

Nor is the subject confined to the schools. Women who are foremost in the promotion of temperance, mothers who are studying their children from a scientific point of view, psychologists who are making the mind of the child an objective study; indeed, most persons interested in social and economic progress are awake to the tremendous influence of early education. Not long ago an article on education could hardly gain an entrance to the leading magazines of the day; now it is rare that a month's issue of even the foremost does not contain a paper on some phase of educational thought. For instance, the "Popular Science Monthly" for November has two articles, the "Forum" for December contains two, the "Arena" for January has one.

All thoughtful persons are asking: Are the schools doing the things they should do as they ought? All intelligent citizens are looking for the results of school education, as manifested in the present condition of community.

Great forces at work in the world's progress have prepared the way for enriching the course of study in the schools. Science has unfolded the mysteries of nature at a rapid rate, while the schools have plodded on in the formalities of arithmetic and the technicalities of English grammar. Science has presented nature in new and most interesting aspects and revealed hidden powers which control the universe. No sooner has a natural force been discovered than invention and capital have combined to apply it as an economic factor in civilization. And wide-awake men and women are asking: Why did I not know earlier the nature of these forces? Why shall the children of to-day not become acquainted with the activities of nature as revealed in natural science?

Scientific study of the child mind is another impelling power to provide an enriched course of study. Studies must be fitted to the mental activities of children. Scientific study of children is the force that will control education in the future, and he who neglects its acquaintance will be numbered with relics.

What a power the teachers of our country might become were they all students of nature, both in its material and its physical aspects! What hope would there not be for our schools were teachers able to apply such knowledge in the art of teaching. The power of steam or of electricity as applied in the material world is as nothing compared with the power of such teaching applied to mind.

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Growing interest in the history of our country is another force that urges us to enrich the course. One great cause for this interest in the schools is the belief that to inculcate early lessons of patriotism is to preserve the form and integrity of our republican institutions. It is claimed that to teach history to the young is to make them, as Milton says, "steadfast pillars of the State."

The cheapness of books makes it possible to use choice literature in our schools as reading matter. Testimony from Howells concerning the early influence of the writings of Goldsmith and Irving on his after-life is recent and conclusive. He says: "The reading that does one good, and lasting good, is the reading that one does for pleasure, and simply and unselfishly, as children do." It is said that the early training of Miss Peabody gave her a passion for reading and an inextinguishable appetite for knowledge. This was gained mainly by reading the English classics and by studies in English composition.

A great reform in the kind of reading of children has been effected in the last decade, and this reform has been brought about by the schools, aided by public libraries. It is a pleasure to be able to say that there is no greater educational power for good in the city of Cleveland than our public library.

A few well established principles will serve as guides in enriching a course of study.

1. Science has developed the idea that the schools must be able to awaken a desire for first-hand knowledge. The thing itself must be first studied, and not books about the thing.

2. That such things shall be studied as are of natural interest to children. The author of "The Scientific Method with Children" says: "School superintendents are gradually feeling their way down to where the children are."

3. That the results of observation be expressed in language both spoken and written.

4. That the work of enrichment must begin with the first hour of school life.

5. That the subjects begun in the first year be given ample opportunity for free growth as the pupils progress from year to year.

6. In making a course of study we must consider the pupils who will leave school early. The schools should be able to create a taste for study and power to continue to be life-long students.

The plan of the primary course of study in the Cleveland schools embraces:

1. Cultivation of the senses, in order to quicken perception and awaken power to observe.

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2. Nature studies:
   (a) Observation of Nature leading to physics and astronomy.
   (b) Observation of plants leading to botany.
   (c) Studies in natural history leading to zoology.
   (d) Studies of the human body leading to anatomy, physiology and hygiene.

3. Studies of the physical features of the earth's exterior, climate, life, etc., leading to geography.

4. Commemoration days and narration of historical events, leading to history.

5. Studies of choice selections from literature both in prose and poetry.

6. Exercises in written language, leading to composition.

7. Practice in reading, including the powers of the letters.

8. Practice in spelling, capitalization and syllabication carefully applied in written exercises in all studies.

9. The fundamental processes of number, and every application of arithmetical computation in its elements.

10. Practice in drawing, with a view of developing the spontaneous power of the child in the expression of thought.

Note.—The four aims of drawing are laid down in the assignment as follows:
   (1) Comprehension of the radical difference between relative real and relative picture position.
   (2) Development of the imaginative faculties.
   (3) Understanding of three-dimension drawing.
   (4) Eye and hand training.

11. Studies in form, including modeling, stick laying, designing, sewing and construction.

12. Practice in penmanship, aiming at legibility and rapidity.

13. Cultivation of musical power of expression. This is accomplished by imitation exercises and by personal study and execution.

14. Moral lessons, developing ideas of right relations between man and animal life and between man and man.

FIRST YEAR ASSIGNMENT.

USE OF THE SENSES.—Objective development of ideas about what we learn by sight, by touch, etc.

NATURE.—Observations of forms of water—snow, ice, hail, etc.

Observations of seed-sowing; germination; the simple parts of plants and their uses.

Observations of the characteristics of domestic animals—the cat and the dog.

Observations of the human body; its general structure, so far as children can observe parts and their functions; use and care of the skin, etc.

GEOGRAPHY.—The weather, sunshiny days, rainy days; spring and its sights; winter and its storms; familiar occupations of mankind.

HISTORY.—Thanksgiving Day; Washington's birthday; the flag of our country, its colors and pattern.

LITERATURE.—Stories of Hiawatha's childhood, and of Eva, in "Little People of the Snow."

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READING.—Thought exercises based on observation lessons, two first readers, phonic, word and sentence methods.

WRITTEN RECORDS OF OBSERVATIONS.—Introducing spelling and capitals.

NUMBER.—Objective, pictured, abstracted and memorized. Studies through ten. Parts of numbers, as halves, fourths, thirds, sixths. Dimensions—the linear, square and cubic inch applied in measuring and associated with form lessons. Quantity—the pint, the quart. Value—the cent, the nickel, the dime. Time—the day, the week, names of days of the week.

In the best schools this work is conducted with as little formality as possible. A kindergarten school in the practice department of the normal training school has been the means of introducing kindergarten games and songs into some of the first grade schools.

Except natural history and plant lessons, nothing in this first year gives more pleasure than the stories from literature already mentioned. These are frequently illustrated. The little ones are shown pictures of the dear faces of Longfellow and Bryant, and the children often speak their names with love. It may not be out of place to state, that in at least four centers of our city teachers of the first grade have organized "story teller's clubs," to gain greater power by practice in telling original stories to their pupils.

Great latitude is given first grade teachers in adapting methods to conditions of schools. Through the course of study as explained all formal discipline has disappeared, and no pupils are more really self-directing than these little people of the first year.

SECOND YEAR ASSIGNMENT.

NATURE.—Continued observation of water, formation of vapor-clouds and cloudy days.

Observance of roots, their shapes and uses; stems, leaf buds and leaves; parts of a flower and functions of each; how plants grow.

Characteristics of insects; study of the bee and its products.

Domestic animals—the cow, the horse. Children relate stories about animals. Selections read to pupils from "Black Beauty." Picture of Rosa Bonheur's "Horse Fair."

Human Body Lessons—Location and function of the most important internal organs and their relation to our life emphasized.

GEOGRAPHY.—"Seven Little Sisters" read by teacher; stimulation of imagination about this "Wonderful Ball." Familiar occupations of mankind.

HISTORY.—Commemoration of historical events. Stories of the settlement of Plymouth, preparatory to Thanksgiving.

LITERATURE.—Story of Eva re-read, then parts reproduced. Poems learned relating to historical days.

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READING.—Phonics and use of diacritical marks emphasized; two readers.

SPELLING.—Written and oral; words spelled always used in sentences; dictation, applications of punctuation, syllabication, etc.

WRITTEN LANGUAGE.—Records of observation of nature; original sentences relating to any object studied; reproduction.

NUMBER.—Combinations making basis of arithmetical tables; objective use of fractional parts; continued application of measures of dimension and of quantity; learning to tell time by the clock; simple reductions familiar in the experience of children; names of months and seasons.

FORM LESSONS.—Paper folding, cutting, designing, pasting, sewing and construction illustrative of geometrical forms.

MORAL LESSONS.—Deduced from the story of Eva, "Seven Little Sisters." Christmas opportunities to make others happy.

At the close of the second year in the school the child has acquired freer and more correct habits of observation. He is more familiar with the meaning of the forms of nature about him; he has gained power to see the parts and uses of plant, leaf, flower and fruit; he has learned the characteristics of the domestic animals and knows reasons why he should treat them kindly; he has childish acquaintance with his own body; he has gained some notions of other countries and the customs of their inhabitants in "Seven Little Sisters;" he knows something about Washington, the Puritans, and the meaning of Memorial Day; he is familiar with some of the choicest productions of Longfellow and Bryant.

He can write legibly his own thoughts; he can read fluently; he can sing simple songs written in musical notation; he is able to picture from the object and from his own imagination; he is familiar with all the combinations that will afterward enter into computation in arithmetic, and has a fundamental idea of several arithmetical processes.

The child having acquired freer and better habits of observation, the power of drawing correct inferences from recorded observations has been increased, if the method of study has been scientific and the teacher's aim in directing that study has been right.

THIRD YEAR ASSIGNMENT.

NATURE.—The sun shining; where the sun appears to rise and set; apparent course of the sun across the sky.

Observations of plants to develop clear ideas of the growth from seed to fruit; the order, system and plan.

Study of a few familiar birds, their eggs and nests.

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Human Body Lessons.—First use of anatomical charts; ideas of system developed.

GEOGRAPHY.—Use of globe; causes of day and night; rotation of the earth. Use of sand pans to illustrate ideas of the brook, the river, the lake, the hill, the mountain.

Position of the larger land and water masses, as shown on globe and on map of hemispheres. Location of Lake Erie, Ohio and North America noted.

HISTORY.—Narratives concerning the discovery of America; Indian life; colonial life in Virginia, Massachusetts, New York and Pennsylvania; incidents of the battles of Lexington and Concord; Bunker Hill; the Declaration of Independence; liberty bell; Washington at Valley Forge.

LITERATURE.—Mrs. Heman's "Landing of the Pilgrims;" "Paul Revere's Ride;" selections from Eliza Cook's "Washington;" sketch of the life of Henry W. Longfellow.

Selections from Dickens' "Christmas Stories;" sketch of the life of Dickens.

WRITTEN LANGUAGE.—Letter writing; record of nature lessons, history and geography lessons in the form of letters; correct use of punctuation, abbreviations and syllabication applied in writing letters and narratives.

READING.—Two readers; continued application of the phonic system.

SPELLING.—Oral and written lessons; correct spelling aimed at in all written exercises.

NUMBER.—Processes systematized in tables; increased practice in reasoning; all the fundamental processes used except such as require long division; work in measurement, reduction, dividing units into equal parts, etc., continued. First ideas of money paid for the use of money.

FORM.—Continued practice in folding, cutting, pasting, to illustrate geometrical solids.

FOURTH YEAR ASSIGNMENT.

NATURE.—Coal—Its uses; what it is; how it was made; kinds found in Ohio; characteristics of each.

Cotton—What it is; where it grows; how it grows; its uses.

Plants—Grasses, wheat, oats, corn, rice. What a grass is; uses; comparison of meadow grass and grains; where each grows most abundantly; climate suited to them; manner of harvesting.

Fishes—Their home; structure; characteristics; varieties found in Lake Erie.

Human Body Lessons—Ideas of different systems, as the digestive; our responsibility for the proper care and growth of the body in choosing proper food and drink, exercise, etc.

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GEOGRAPHY.—Descriptive—Immediate vicinity; idea of slope prominent; idea of State developed; study of Ohio; study of United States.

HISTORY.—Adoption of the Constitution; admission of Ohio into the Union; growth of the nation; stories of progress and invention; stories of the Civil War.

LITERATURE.—Memory work—Preamble of the Constitution; patriotic sentiments of Patrick Henry, Webster, Lincoln. Columbian year sentiment, "I pledge allegiance to my flag," etc. "Barbara Fritchie;" one poem of Alice or Phœbe Cary. Lowell's "What is so Rare as a Day in June?"

Selections read by teacher from "Uncle Tom's Cabin" and Miss Alcott's "Hospital Sketches."

Brief outline of the life of Whittier, Lowell, Miss Cary.

READING.—One reader. Supplementary Reading—Andersen's "Stories," Burroughs' "Sharp Eyes and Birds and Bees," Dunton's "Our Own Country," King's "The Land We Live In," Giberne's "Among the Stars," Hawthorne's "Tales of the White Hills," "Tanglewood Tales," and "True Stories of New England," Holmes' "My Hunt after the Captain," Edgeworth's "Waste Not, Want Not," Scudder's "Fable and Folk Stories."

LANGUAGE.—Constant attention given to correct use of punctuation, etc.; business letters, bills, etc.; reproduction exercises.

ARITHMETIC.—First use of a book; all fundamental processes; United States money; merchant's bills; objective work in addition, subtraction, multiplication and division of fractions; money paid for the use of dollars for years and fractional parts of the same; objective work in finding area of square, of rectangle; reductions of denominate numbers.

At the end of the fourth year of school life, pupils have "some knowledge of the order and system which prevails in nature;" they have begun to comprehend something of the plan of common plants, of their reproduction and growth and of the general uses and gross structure of their parts." (See *Report on Natural History, of Committee on Secondary School Studies.*) They have learned to observe animal life and have some knowledge of vertebrates, as of the human body, the domestics animals, birds and fishes; they know the characteristics of insects and worms, and types of each. These animal studies are carried on by means of observation of structures as a whole. Should not all children be taught to respect and cherish life?

In geography, they have learned to observe the immediate physical features of their environment, especially of slope. They have watched the rising and setting of the sun, and its apparent path across the sky. They have learned about home industries. They

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have passed from the study of the district in which they live to the study of the State. By means of maps and modeling in relief, they have gained a knowledge of its surface, watershed, rivers, etc. From Ohio they have advanced to the study of the United States as a whole. They have been taught to read from the map its great physical features, the trend of mountain ranges, and the direction and extent of river systems. From the products of vegetation in the markets, they have been taught to locate belts of vegetable life in the entire country and to associate vegetation and climate. From the coal and other minerals in their own locality, as well as those brought to our city for manufacture, as copper and iron, they have learned to locate the chief minerals found in the United States.

They have learned the location of groups of States, as North Atlantic, South Atlantic, etc., but they know only the surroundings or boundary of their own State. They have taken journeys across the continent by rail and down the great rivers.

Besides maps and globes, each school building is supplied with a sufficient number of molding pans and sand, so that every child who studies geography may make his own relief maps. All illustrate their lessons by map drawing. Our teachers testify that the study of geography is a delight to their pupils.

But the study of history is no less pleasurable. At the close of the fourth year the pupils know the outlines of our country's history, the discovery by Columbus, stories of the settlement of Virginia and Massachusetts as typical colonies, and stories of the Revolutionary War. They have learned about the formation of the Union, the admission of Ohio and the growth of the nation; they are acquainted with incidents of the last war, and are familiar with the names of Grant, Sheridan and "Stonewall" Jackson. No study reaches a certain class of boys as does history. It seems to establish sympathetic relations between them and the teacher. It is difficult for a foreign-born child to leave the fourth grade of our schools without being naturalized by this study. Neither historical text-books nor reading books are used by the pupils; narration, pictures selected, and maps and pictures drawn by the teacher are the means she employs to teach history.

LITERATURE.—In the third and fourth years pupils memorize Mrs. Heman's "Landing of the Pilgrims," selections from Eliza Cook's "Washington," patriotic sentiments from Patrick Henry, Webster, Lincoln, etc.; the preamble of the Constitution, and the Columbian year sentiment, "I pledge allegiance to my flag." They also learn one poem by Alice or Phœbe Cary, and reproduce parts of "Paul Revere's Ride." The teacher reads selections from "Uncle Tom's Cabin" and Miss Alcott's "Hospital Sketches." Thus, literature work illustrates

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and strengthens the history. They learn about the life of Whittier, Lowell, Miss Cary and Miss Alcott. Before Christmas, Dickens' "Christmas Stories" are read to them, and they then learn about Dickens.

To further cultivate the taste and enrich the nature work, quotations concerning flowers, birds, etc., from standard authors, are memorized.

READING.—The fourth grade is the first in which supplementary reading, in the form of stories, is placed in the hands of pupils. We wish it might be used a year sooner. In this grade the children of each school read the following authors: Burroughs, Miss Edgeworth, Hawthorne, Holmes and Scudder. Miss Giberne's "Among the Stars," Dunton's "Our Own Country" and King's "The Land We Live In" supplement the astronomy and geography work. One school reader is used.

ARITHMETIC.—During four years the pupils have learned the meaning and application of the four fundamental rules; the addition, subtraction, multiplication and division of equal parts of a unit taught objectively; simple reductions; use and application of United States money, and of money paid for the use of money. It is the aim of the course to familiarize them with all the processes commonly used in ordinary life. But the reasoning required is simple and the numbers used are comparatively small.

DRAWING.—Perhaps no subject has developed greater power during this four years' course than drawing. By this means they have gained perception of form and relation. They have become able to picture geographical features and historical incidents. By this training of the hand and eye, the products of their imagination are manifested. The work is often crude, but it represents power to do.

Since the present school year opened every child of the 30,000 in our primary schools has been engaged in the work of manual training. Already excellent results are manifest, and much is hoped from a continuous course.

A delineation of this primary course would be imperfect were it not said, that its enrichment began in the superintendency of Andrew J. Rickoff, whose influence in our schools will never be lost.

The American nation in honoring the discovery of our country gave a great object lesson. Who would attempt to predict the influence of the Columbian exhibit upon the youth of our time? What industry and energy and strivings of teachers for the best education of the children were shown in the Columbian exhibit! The spirit of the American age spoke to us from hamlet, town and city. It claimed that a liberal education for every boy and girl be afforded

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in our common schools by means of an enriched course. Is not the time propitious for the leaders of educational thought to propose and present a suggestive enriched course for elementary schools? Such a report, together with the able one already issued for secondary schools, would make a harmonious whole.

ENRICHING THE COURSE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS —FIFTH TO EIGHTH GRADES.

BY HENRY C. MUCKLEY, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

Without any preliminary remarks I shall try to set forth in this brief paper:

(1) What additions our course of study have received which may properly be called an enrichment of it. (2) The method pursued in the presentation of these new things. (3) At what cost in the way of equipment and supplies. (4) Whether these additions form a close and organic union with the rest of the course, or whether they are foreign to it. (5) What has been done to help our teachers in this work.

May I be permitted, however, before taking up this formal part of my paper to illustrate the general purpose of this whole enrichment. We had the pleasure the other day of securing for our schools fifty microscopes. Eighteen of these will be placed in our high schools, where the pupils will make individual use of them in studying zoology and botany. One will be placed in every building containing an eighth grade school. The teachers of every grade are to be free to use these instruments, as an occasional exercise to aid in the work in insect life or in plant study, sometimes as a mere diversion; some things which enter as a higher kind of play into the school may be wonderfully productive of good. "It is not the intention of sportive instruction," says Jean Paul, "that the child be spared effort or delivered from it, but that thereby a passion should be awakened in him which should both necessitate and facilitate the strongest exertion." The children will thus receive glimpses of the things of which they could otherwise know but little. They will not at present have any ready mounted objects to look at, but will examine such common things as hairs of various animals, blood discs drawn from their own fingers, scales from the wing of a butterfly, and other parts of insects; parts of flowers, as pollen grains, anthers, pistils, and sections of stems and roots; the interesting life from the ponds; crystals of various salts, raw fibers and fabrics of cotton and

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silk; fibers of muscular tissue and the circulation of blood in the foot of the frog; such things as are not too far away from the child itself. By means of these microscopes we have widened the visual angle of our 40,000 school children 140 diameters. To widen for our pupils their field of vision in all directions, not merely as regards the small things revealed by the microscope, but as regards, also, the things which lie around and above and within them; to place them in right relation to the whole world of matter, energy and life, ever growing more and more complex, seems to me the scope and purpose of enriching our courses of study. Before dismissing what I have thus to say incidentally about the microscopes, I will say that we have secured instruments of good quality, with a one-half inch objective, divisible for lower powers, a one-inch eye-piece, some needful accessories, as tweezers, scissors, etc., for less than sixteen dollars apiece. Our microscopes, then, are at the same time a part of our new work and a type of it.

I shall now take up the main points of my subject, and in order that there may not be too abrupt a break from the paper to which we have just listened, will begin with the fifth and sixth grades. Into these grades we have first of all extended our supplementary reading matter. Many of the excellent books known as the "Riverside Literature Series" had been in use for some time in our seventh and eighth grades. About one year ago, through the zeal of the late Dr. Paul E. Lauer, then supervisor of English in our schools, our list of supplementary reading books was greatly enlarged and adapted to the four upper grades. At the beginning of the present year a further addition was made, and our fourth grade supplied with books. We have now a collection comprising 200 sets of books, of from twenty to forty-five in a set, and representing about fifty authors.

Among these books are to be found works on fiction, poetry, history, biography, geography, science, mythology, humor and travel, while fairy stories and fables have not been forgotten. We have tried to touch every side of child life; to furnish books which would show him his relations to other people, to the world upon which he lives, to his country, his home, his school; to give him respect and reverence for the past and an abiding faith in the future. This literature is used for the purposes of oral reading, and as a basis for language and composition work. The mechanical operation of distributing these books to our schools is facilitated by having for each set of books a neat telescope box. The books thus packed are sent out from the central office, remaining at the various schools to which they are sent for a period of six weeks, when they are collected and re-distributed, thus making it possible for each grade to read six different books in the course of the year. Our recent additions to this litera-

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ture have cost about $2,500. Of the value and influence of these books in our schools I have no space to speak. They have made themselves indispensable. Our best books are most in demand. Stoddard's "Life of Lincoln" is almost invariably demanded for two periods, while "The Fairy Land of Science" and "The Tenants of an Old Farm" are universal favorites. So much for our supplementary reading in the sixth and seventh grades.

We have further enlarged the work in these grades in the teaching of history, animals, industries and plants. A careful outline of these subjects has been prepared in our assignment of work for the guidance of the teacher. The work is given orally for the most part. The teacher talks history with her pupils; not the philosophy of history, but the interesting things which, well presented, are as fascinating as fiction, with the added charm of being true. The period covered in the fifth grade extends from the earliest discoveries to the Civil War; in the sixth grade from the Revolution to the present time.

Lessons in animals comprise a study of the dog, horse, wolf, deer, seal, alligator, whale, eagle, condor, elephant, lion, camel, tiger, Cashmere goat, kangaroo and hippopotamus. Lessons in industries touch first upon the great industries of our own city, ship-building, iron and steel working, book-making, etc. When practicable, the establishments are visited by the pupils, accompanied by the teacher. It must be understood that in all these lessons the pupils have the fullest opportunity to talk and ask questions.

Plant study is reserved for the spring months. Pupils are to study trees found in our parks and along our streets; to learn their names, times and modes of flowering, the offices of the different parts; to watch the change in appearance as spring advances, etc. One written lesson a week is demanded upon the subject under consideration. The pupil is not to be hampered in this written exercise, but is to write freely upon anything he may choose. At the end of the month a more formal written exercise is demanded, in which the pupil shall follow some outline placed upon the blackboard by the teacher.

In speaking of the geography work in the fifth and sixth grades, I am reminded that our course has been enriched, not only by the introduction into it of matters which for the present we may call new, but also by introducing better methods in the teaching of subjects of study which are old.

In our assignment of work the teachers are referred for aid in teaching geography to Lockyer's "Astronomy," King's "This Continent of Ours," Shaler's "Story of Our Continent," Guyot's "Physical Geography" and Dunton's "Our American Neighbors." Mathematical

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and physical geography are taught ten minutes daily during two terms of the year. Children are required to watch the changing altitude of the sun and to note its daily path. They make excursions when practicable into the country, and observe the forms of relief and the effects of the action of water. The world in its physical aspects is but an extension of what may be seen within a radius of a few miles. There are elevations and depressions; streams with small tributaries, forming a drainage system; low plains, deltas and estuaries, rocks, different kinds of soil, vegetation and animals. From these things, which are near to the child and in which he feels a lively interest, he is led to build up a picture of the continents. There is soul in all this. When the mind of a child is brought into close relation to great Mother Nature, there will be growth of both mind and heart. Nature touches us everywhere, and fills and furnishes us with all things needful to noble manhood and womanhood, if we but place ourselves in her way. No idea of a hill developed in a school-room by means of sand can take the place of what a boy knows about a hill who has climbed one. Our formal study of geography ends with the sixth year. Through the seventh and eighth grades it is connected with history.

Manual training work, which now extends in unbroken continuity from the lowest primary through the high schools, is represented in our lower grammar grades by sewing for the girls and knife work for the boys. These are taught in the rooms by the regular teachers, assisted and directed by the supervisors of these departments.

What seems marvelous to me is the readiness and ease with which teachers have adapted themselves to these new things. Sewing is supposed to be within the range of accomplishments of most ladies, and it is not surprising that they should show themselves able to instruct in the use of scissors and needles and the cutting and making of simple garments; but that ladies should almost immediately develop into skilled teachers in the use of rule, square, gauge, compass, pencil and knife seems almost as great a miracle as the springing of Minerva fully grown from the brow of Jupiter.

The cost of the original equipment for the knife work was $200; for the sewing a merely nominal amount. I must say, however, that thus far this work has not been introduced throughout our entire system, affecting only six of our main buildings. It is the purpose to extend this to every fifth and sixth grade in the city just as soon as financially practicable.

I shall now dismiss the two lower grammar grades. I am well aware that there is much in the enrichment of work in these two grades that eludes expression. The increase in the power of the teacher, by reason of the fact that in some work, notably in history,

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animals, industries and plants, she must develop the subject and lead her pupils without the immediate use of the text-book, and the closer relations of sympathy thus brought about between teacher and pupils are incidental, though by no means insignificant, features of this work. I should say, perhaps, that our work in arithmetic in all the grammar grades has been enriched by taking away what seemed a wasteful and ridiculous excess; as the addition, subtraction, multiplication and division of compound numbers, stocks and bonds, present worth, marine and life insurance, three cases in interest, annual and compound interest, compound proportion, bankruptcy, general average and partnership with time. Our supervisor of arithmetic has recently compiled problems suitable for all grades from the third up. The problems for each grade, numbering between three and four hundred, form a separate pamphlet. Enough of these pamphlets have been printed to furnish one to every child. The problems themselves were furnished by the teachers of the different grades at the request of the supervisor, whose work consisted in selecting and compiling such as would best meet the requirements. In this way our teachers have been relieved of the drudgery of writing daily lists of problems upon the blackboard, and our pupils have the problems in the more natural form of the printed page and where they can adapt them to their own eyesight. Mental arithmetic receives the recognition which its importance demands. In short, the work in arithmetic is more consistent and more in harmony with the other subjects in our course.

In our seventh and eighth grades, we have simply carried forward the lines of work laid down in previous grades; new names have been given to things and some modification in methods of presentation. But no one thing can be found in our eighth grade the promise of which is not found in our first. Our first year's course is like a wide-angled lens, bringing the broad field of nature to a clear focus upon the child's mind. Our eighth grade course is no wider in its angle: it simply has a deeper penetration.

I may first speak of physiology. This subject, which in previous grades is taught mainly with reference to the child's own bodily well-being, is in all the grammar grades more or less, but especially in the two upper ones, studied for the knowledge and discipline which it brings. Simple dissections are made of muscles of front leg of the sheep, showing their origin and insertion, the tendons, connective tissue, ligaments and joints. The microscope furnishes means for the closer inspection of muscular fiber.

Dissections are also made of the heart of the beef or sheep, demonstrating the valves, cavities and walls. Each pupil finds his own pulse in at least five different places. In brief, the pupil is

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directed to his own body and to the bodies of animals having tissues like his own.

This work is entirely practical; teachers do it willingly and well, and I may safely say that there is nothing in the way of charts or manikins which can take the place of this simple work in dissection. No vivisection is allowed, though children may carefully fasten a frog upon a board and watch the charming sight of the circulation. This can be done without any serious inconvenience to the frog.

In a number of our schools teachers have tested in a rough way the strength of tendons and bones.

Supplementing the work in the sixth grade in physical geography, we have introduced into the seventh and eighth grades observational astronomy. In our assignment of work we have marked out some simple observations extending through the months of September, October and November. The pupils were required to make a series of twenty observations, one every four days, at exactly noon, in order to find whether the altitude of the sun changes. They were directed just how to do this by means of the shadow pole set up in the school yard, or by observing the shadow of the window sill upon the school-room floor, in cases where the room was upon the south side of the building. They were, also, by setting up two stakes which should be in line with a certain star in the south at exactly 9 P. M., to find, by twenty observations, one every four days, at exactly the same time, whether the stars are farther east or west on subsequent evenings. They were to find out whether the stars maintain the same relative position to one another. They were to begin on a certain evening, being new moon, and watch our satellite for twenty-nine consecutive evenings. They were encouraged to get up in the morning in time for that magnificent astronomical display, the sunrise, and to describe in writing the appearance of the heavens and the earth on that occasion. They traced the constellations, learned the more conspicuous groups, the location of the North star and those stars which mark the place in the heavens of the equator and ecliptic. They met on pleasant evenings with their teachers, in many instances with a telescope rented for the occasion, through which they could view the more interesting telescopic objects. I am of the opinion that it is entirely practicable for a city like Cleveland to have in connection with her public schools at least ten telescopes of about three and one-half inch object glass, equatorially mounted and provided with the most modern improvements. These telescopes would not cost more than two hundred dollars apiece. They could be so distributed that any one building could have the use of one for a period of six weeks during the course of the year.

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Teachers could readily learn how to use them, and not only the school children but their parents as well could be delighted and instructed. It would be a means of strengthening the sympathy between the home and the school; it would be an uplift to the entire city.

Even without these telescopes our work in astronomy this year served to awaken considerable interest in the home. Children would talk about things, and parents in many instances would accompany their children to their place of meeting in the evening and enjoy with them the study of the stars.

That the interest taken in this was not that of a mere passing fancy is attested by the fact, that although we are not at this time of the year doing any systematic work in this subject, the children are of themselves doing, in many instances, as much as during the previous months. "What bright star is that just over head at six o'clock in the morning?" asked a boy not long ago in a school which I was visiting. There was a discreet silence maintained by the teacher, while I had to confess that for many consecutive mornings I had been at that hour oblivious even to the existence of such a star.

The special value which we attach to our observation work is to be found in the length of time covered by it. Eighty days bring about a great change in the declination of the sun and the general aspect of the heavens at any particular time of night, and the fact that the observations come four days apart, except in the case of the moon, makes it possible for the young observer to see some marked change. The rude method of observation has value in showing that much may be learned without the use of expensive apparatus. The familiarity which is thus acquired with the daily and nightly phenomena of the heavens will be of incalculable advantage when the pupils take up the more formal study of astronomy in the high school.

There are many things brought into our elementary work in astronomy which cannot be immediately observed: the solar system, gravitation, meteors, comets, eclipses and transits, telescopes, old notions of the solar system. The great names in the history of astronomy: Ptolemy, Galileo, Copernicus, Kepler, Newton, La Place, and Kirchoff and the Herschels, are some of the things the teachers and pupils are to talk about.

It is arranged to have our seventh grade astronomy come in the fall and the eighth in the spring, thus completing as nearly as possible the entire circuit of the heavens. Two periods a week are allowed regularly for this work. Written lessons based upon observations, but in which the imagination shall have full liberty, are fre-

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quently demanded of the pupils. This subject has proven a prolific source for language work and composition.

During the winter months we have undertaken some work in elementary physics. We have provided each of our thirty-four main buildings with a neat hardwood case six feet high, two and one-half feet wide and sixteen inches deep, to hold some needful things to be used by the teacher and pupils in this work. Each set of apparatus contains the following:

From the wholesale drug store: two pounds iron filings, two pounds mercury, one-fourth ounce graduate, one-fourth pound beeswax, one large glass tube closed at end, two small glass tubes, one retort stand, two test tubes, two ounces ammonia, two ounces sulphuric acid, two ounces nitric acid, two ounces hydrochloric acid (muriatic), one stick sealing wax, two thirty-two ounce Florence flasks (flat-bottomed), two sixteen ounce Florence flasks (round bottomed), eight rubber stopples, one dispensary scale with weights, one nest of (2) beakers, two and one-half yards rubber tubing, one quart alcohol, one chemical thermometer, one spirit lamp, two student lamp chimneys, one package aniline blue, one large wide-mouthed bottle, one small wide-mouthed bottle, one piece rubber dam, one small phial, one mortar and pestle (glass), one glass funnel.

From the hardware store: two bar magnets, one forty-foot tape measure, one three-cornered file, one square foot asbestos paper, two spring balances, one magnetic compass, one tin pan, one bar iron (eight inches long) for conduction experiment; one bar copper (eight inches long), for conduction experiment; one single pulley, two double pulleys, thirty feet cotton cord for pulleys, one brass rod with plate on top for electroscope, one piece wire gauze, one piece cotton wick for spirit lamps, one piece glass rod for electrical experiment.

From china store: one large glass dish, one small tumbler.

From the optician: one magnifying glass.

From a dealer in artists' supplies: one book gold leaf for electroscope.

From the wholesale jeweler: one bundle of elder pith.

From glass dealers: two pieces plate glass, two glass mirrors.

From variety store: five wooden balls, five glass marbles.

The manual training schools have also made for us a large frame, six feet high by three and one-half feet wide, grooved wooden bars and levers.

With this apparatus very many of the principles of elementary physics can be illustrated. The properties of matter; the conditions of matter; force—attraction and repulsion, gravitation; velocity—accelerated, retarded and uniform; motion—the pendulum, energy, simple machines; the air—its composition, weight and pressure;

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water—its composition, weight and buoyant power, and specific gravity; also, experiments in sound, heat, magnetism and frictional electricity.

In the presentation of this subject the teacher is expected to begin where the children are, and lead them to the understanding of general principles. Such experiments as will aid in this are made by the teacher with the help of her pupils. Blank books are kept by the pupils in which are recorded the lessons given, together with neat drawings of the apparatus used. Experiments made at home are brought to school and time given for their reproduction and explanation. Without this apparatus our work in this line would be a comparative failure. If, as King John said, "the right of means to do ill deeds makes ill deeds done," it must be equally true that the presence of means in a school-room to do good deeds will be equally productive of this accomplishment.

The apparatus may be used by any teacher in any grade to illustrate what may come up in the reading of literature. If, *e. g.* the "Fairy Land of Science" falls to a certain teacher in the sixth grade, it will add greatly to the interest in the book if the teacher can bring such apparatus as will make clear what is there read.

The cost of our apparatus per set, including the case, was about twenty-five dollars.

This does not seem a great expenditure, and we have reason to believe that it has been a very wise one. Teachers who never before made a single experiment for themselves, to say nothing of manipulating apparatus before their pupils, have set to work with a willingness and energy that augurs success for this feature of our new work. We believe, also, that this elementary science work will hold our boys in the grammar schools and send more of them to the high schools.

As our astronomy work sent the children to look directly at the objects of their study, so our botany work sends them to plants and flowers. Some little idea is to be given of classification, but the great thing is that our children shall know where the wild flowers grow and shall learn to love them. The rose family will be taken up in the seventh grade and pretty thoroughly studied. Collections of woods will be encouraged. Already, in some rooms, over forty varieties have been collected. Leaves will be compared and collected, some microscopic plants examined—all of which things, are they not written in the books of our assignment of work? Our seventh grade botany will be taken in the spring months and the eighth grade in the fall, thus enabling us to follow up the grand procession of the plants throughout the entire year.

Our manual training in the seventh and eighth grades consists of cooking for the girls and shop-work for the boys. These schools,

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which at present affect only about one-third of our system, are located at two centers to which pupils from adjacent districts must go. The cost for the original equipment for the two cooking schools was $400; for the two shops, $620.

The cost for supplies for the cooking schools is twenty cents a year for each pupil; for the shop work, about ten cents.

We believe heartily in this work. Our cooking schools teach habits of neatness, exactness and economy, not only to the girls but indirectly to many mothers. This whole work of manual training has come to stay. At as early a date as our finances make practicable it will be extended so as to include every boy and girl in our entire city.

I now come to speak of whether this new work has any vital relation with other parts of our course. A few words, only, need be said. Not only does it sustain such a relation to the rest of the subjects, but, also, to the pupils of our schools. When our children ask us for bread we need not give them a stone. Not only are the subjects of physics, astronomy and botany wholesome studies of themselves, but they are used as a means, also, for the development of the language study. Every lesson in science is a lesson in language.

But this is not all. Physics leads to definite quantitative ideas. To the general conception of force there is to be added that of a definite quantity of it—its measurements and the units by which it is to be measured. Progress, here, is from the vague and indefinite to the clear and definite concept. Some definite quantitative idea lies at the basis of every physical problem. Into astronomy, also, which is but physics on a more magnificent scale, there enters this same definiteness ultimately. It will not enter to any great extent in the beginning, but its trend is in that direction. Thus, these subjects, by extending ideas of quantity and number, supplement the subject of arithmetic. Physical geography is largely a question of physics. A few experiments with a spirit lamp, a tin pan with two holes in the bottom, and a couple of lamp chimneys and touch paper, combined with an experiment in the composition of motions, will enable pupils to understand fairly well the subject of winds. The culinary paradox, carefully studied, may give a hint at the explanation of geysers, while with the apparatus in our case we can reproduce in its essential features the intermittent spring. I have often thought that somewhere in our system—perhaps in our high school—there should be a teacher whose business it should be to teach the unification of knowledge—to trace the operations of a given principle through the whole range of natural phenomena. The principles which underlie all the sciences—at least, the physical sciences—are comparatively few. They might be grouped together and their application shown,

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thus opening up the way for the study of philosophy proper, which aims to find one ultimate principle or law in accordance with which all phenomena, whether physical, vital or psychological, manifest themselves.

We believe, then, that our so-called new work is not a foreign and incongruous element in our schools. The alacrity with which teachers have responded to the extra demands made upon their time and energy, the happy and eager interest which the children in our schools manifest in the work, and the logical relation which it bears both to the needs of the children themselves and to the rest of the course, justify the place which has been given it.

As to what has been done to help our teachers all along these new lines, I will say briefly, that, through the very hearty co-operation of City Librarian W. H. Brett, a teachers' library of professional books, comprising 390 volumes, has been added to our public library. A teachers' reading-room, furnished with thirty-five standard periodicals, has been established at our central office.

A course of professional reading has been marked out by our assistent superintendent, containing, not only the names of what seemed to him the most helpful books, but a brief synopsis of the general trend of each book. Each teacher has such a list, which is intended to aid in the selection of the best books.

At our grade meetings, which are held frequently, particularly in the early part of the year, such work is presented by the supervisors as will best aid the teachers in their school-rooms.

In conclusion, let me say, that while we have called some things new we do not wish it to be understood that we think them new in aught save their practical working out in a great system of schools. Many ideas which are often called new are old ideas in process of diffusion among the mass of the people. As I think over the list of names of those who have been at the helm of our school system in Cleveland, I cannot think of one to whom there did not come visions of a brighter day than that in the burden and heat of which he wrought. But we know that, though the times when some new thought can bud are but "as poet's seasons when they flower," yet in the mighty onward march of things—hesitating as this march sometimes is; checked and even beaten back often by adverse circumstances—there come times when the expectations of long years of patient but seemingly fruitless endeavor become realities. To know when these times come, and with strong hand and bold heart to seize upon them and wrest from them the highest good which they have in store, is the part which those must play who are then upon the scene of action. The beneficent change in our municipal government, which centralizes the power in our school administration in the

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heart and mind of one man, has been one of the circumstances which has brought freer light into our schools. It has enabled our school system to perform that necessary function of all living bodies, viz., to adjust its internal relations so as to meet the changing and increasingly complex relations which exist in the world without. This is life. To fail to do this is ultimate death. Along with the introduction into our course of new things, there has come a more wholesome atmosphere into our schools—a more cordial relation between teacher and pupil, without the existence of which the spirit of our work would fail. The only true teaching is conditioned upon the kindly relation in the school-room. But between this kindly relation and the enrichment of our work there is an interdependence, each aiding the other. We scarcely know which comes first or whether both spring co-ordinately from a common cause.

We are simply taking our children lovingly by the hand and leading them in the ways of truth. Children love the truth. We do not expect them to gain any very profound insight into mysteries of Nature, but we do want them at least to touch the hem of her mystic drapery. We remember how the "Pied Piper of Hamelin," by his skillful playing, drew the children of that ancient village after him, leading them, despite the entreaty of their friends, into a dark cave in the side of an ancient mountain. We can do better. If we play skillfully upon the harp of truth, the children will follow us, not into a dark cave in a mountain's side, but up into the free and glorious light of its summit.

DISCUSSION.

WILLIAM B. POWELL, City Superintendent, Washington, D. C.—I have been very greatly interested in the papers read on this subject. I have been pleased specially because I have heard the words "things" and "processes" and "self-helps" a great many times. It is well for us, however, to consider in this connection, that all enriching does not enrich. The agriculturist knows this, or, at least, the scientific man has taught him and is teaching him day by day in the great university at Washington, under the auspices of the government, that enriching does not always enrich.

It is necessary that he who would enrich a course of study should not only know the character of the enriching material, but should know also of the character of the soil that he would enrich and should know definitely the result of putting the two together. Such knowledge can come only by experience. It cannot come at all, as I believe, by discussion or by theorizing. It must come by actually applying the fertilizing material to the soil itself and by studying the product and weighing it in the balance. I believe the schoolmasters of America are doing this kind of work to-day. It is cheering to know that this process is going on.

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I do not believe, I cannot believe, that without some study of the philosophic growth of mind; the lopping off of a few subjects in arithmetic and the introduction of a little geometry and a little algebra will necessarily enrich a course of mathematics. The study of mathematics may be enriched with the present book and with the present course, with all the applications and all the processes retained, if we employ the proper process in the beginning of the teaching of the child.

I fear, too, that the addition of more reading matter to our courses of instruction will not necessarily enrich the learning. We have had experience enough, in the past twenty-five years, with the experiment of putting in supplementary reading matter without getting results. I think that this may be said to be true all over the United States. It will not follow that because we introduce history from reading books in the lower grades we shall enrich the course of study; it will not necessarily follow that, because we introduce a modern language below the high school, we shall therefore enrich the course of study or the learning of the child. It does not follow because we introduce Guyot, or Agassiz, or other noted scientists, for our children to read, that we therefore enrich the learning in geography. Enriching must come primarily from other sources, must come by other processes, if it is to come at all. With the light of the report of the Committee of Ten before me, which report is the crystallization of the advanced thought of the day, what would I do to enrich the course of instruction? I would look about the school, from place to place, up and down the whole course of instruction, including the high school and the lowest primary school, to know how first ideas are given to the children, to know whether by the giving of first ideas their minds are made to readily receive information and to eagerly seek for more information, or whether those processes are such as to make the children's minds dull and wooden. I would seek to know whether first ideas throughout all the grades are taught from things and processes and from personal experiences, and not didactically. I would seek next to see whether the processes and the things and the minds of the children are so related as to make a primary course of instruction consistently related in all its parts. In the absence of those conditions, I, as superintendent of schools, would seek to supply them. In the primary schools the work in the beginnings of all subjects should be with things and with processes. It should be the same in intermediate schools and grammar schools and in high schools. It is impossible to overload a child in a well taught school; no well taught school is overcrowded with work. When beginnings are thus made you may throw a great bulk of reading material upon the grades of the school and the children will enrich themselves. You cannot enrich the learning of a child; he must enrich it himself. The great depository of human knowledge, books, can only be understood through the channels of things and processes. We need to turn our means of teaching right-about-face in seeking the great libraries and the grand books of the world, and approach them through things and processes. We do not need to teach reading; the children will teach themselves. We spend too much time in teaching our children to read. I remember reading, when I was a boy, a lesson in one of the primary readers entitled, "Read, and you will know." A mother, asked by her child certain questions, replied to each: "Read, my son, and you will know." Oh, how that sentiment has affected the teaching of the generations in the wrong direction. If the teacher had said to himself: "Let me lead my children to know, by investigation of original sources, then shall I be sure that they will read," he would have done better teaching all these years.

One of the first things to be considered in the contemplation of this question by the superintendent is the point of view of his teacher. One of his main efforts—that which he should pursue early and late, in season and out of season,

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by all the powers of his persuasion—should be to cause the teacher to view the course of study as one inter-related community of subjects, the correct teaching of one point of which involves the teaching of some points of all the rest of it. Then will he be able to have teaching done that will enrich. When he shall have accomplished this thing he will be able to teach his children so that the work laid down by the Committee of Ten can be done by the children in the schools under his charge.

I hope I will not be understood as saying anything against the introduction of the right kind of literature in the proper place. But this is the point: Suppose I have one set of reading books in schools. What would I prefer to do? Get another set with which to enrich it, or seek to provide the means for teachers of the schools by which they could teach that first set of reading books properly? Why, certainly the latter. We should introduce those things and those processes by which the first reading may be taught properly.

It is not enough that things and processes be provided. It is not enough that the teacher's point of view be changed. These will help. But the teacher must be trained to do the right kind of teaching; he must be trained to lead the child, and must be simply a leader, never a giver; and must be trained so to lead the child that when he acquires knowledge, step by step, he himself will relate it to the known. The whole subject of relation of thought and of relation of things learned is settled when teaching is thus done, and the question of memory is largely disposed of. The child does not need to recall processes; he simply thinks himself into the way of doing things by knowing whence he obtained his ideas, and what he did with them when he obtained them. I am satisfied that the work of our schools may be made such, that not only may geometry and algebra be introduced into the grades below the secondary school, that modern languages may be introduced and understood by the child, but that the great broad field of natural sciences may be understood, and mastered to some extent. I am satisfied that we shall not make our courses burdensome and heavy by doing this, but I am satisfied that when a school is thus taught in the proper way, in properly ventilated and clean school-rooms, that all such education will be an actual source of bodily health to the child and that we shall make the school the proper place for him to attend simply for the sake of obtaining bodily or physical health. Thus will school life be doubly enriched.

HENRY A. WISE, Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore.—Speaking generally, it may be said that the course of study of the primary and grammar schools requires eight years for its completion. It embraces arithmetic, grammar, geography, United States history, reading, physiology, elementary science, drawing and music. By dropping a considerable portion of the work now done in arithmetic, grammar and geography, and introducing in its place instruction in algebra, geometry, physical geography and another language, preferably Latin, a better course could be arranged, both for discipline and knowledge, which would advance the educational career of the pupil about two years. A properly correlated course in mathematics, consisting of arithmetic, algebra, geometry and drawing would not only ground the pupil better, both theoretically and practically, in the subject of arithmetic, but it would also give him a knowledge of the other subjects mentioned which would materially shorten the time now required for him to graduate from college. If another language, Latin for instance, were introduced into the grammar school course to take the place of much of the English grammar now taught, the pupil would acquire a much better knowledge of his own language and the time now required to finish the college course would be considerably shortened. The principle of continuity of purpose and effort must be rigidly observed in the arrangement of a course of study, for the same reason that we must proceed from the known to

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the unknown in teaching. Consequently the disjected, unrelated matter found in many programs of the schools, after omitting what is useless and adding what is desirable, should be arranged into a logical, symmetrical, thoroughly correlated course of instruction. One of the most important things to do in enriching and shortening the primary and grammar school course is to properly correlate the subjects taught, that time may be economized and a logically connected course throughout may be secured. "A little, but well," is a wise maxim when observed within proper limits, but the eight years' course now pursued in the primary and grammar schools is too meager, and conduces to mental debility on account of insufficiency of nourishment. The course of study recommended would require well qualified teachers—teachers much better prepared both in academic training and in the art of teaching, than most of those are who hold places in the schools at this time. The teachers in the schools of France and Germany teach in six years about as much as those in the American schools do in eight, and this difference in their favor is due to the fact that the teachers in those countries are required to be well prepared for their work, not only in academic training, but also in the art of teaching. Before the course referred to can be successfully undertaken, much must be done in the way of more thoroughly preparing the teachers for their work. The normal schools of the country must insist that their matriculates have acquired a good high school education, or better, the degree of B. A. from a good college, before they engage in the work of learning to teach. The question of better teachers is involved in the consideration of any plan proposed for the improvement of the schools. When we have advanced to the point of providing good teachers for the schools, it will be possible to enrich the course and greatly increase the effectiveness and usefulness of the schools.

THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF TEN—ITS USE FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHERS NOW AT WORK IN THE SCHOOLS.

BY COL. FRANCIS W. PARKER, COOK COUNTY NORMAL SCHOOL, ENGLEWOOD, ILL.

The purpose of this paper is not to review or criticise the report, but to make a few suggestions in regard to its use as a basis of study for teachers now at work. The report is fully worthy of careful, prolonged investigation, thought and discussion. In fact, I know of no book upon pedagogics that can be studied so profitably as this concensus of opinion of ninety of the picked schoolmen from all parts of the country, together with the lucid exposition of the Committee of Ten.

The subjects of discussion cover, with some few exceptions, the main questions in the line of educational progress. The most encouraging fact, which is strongly brought out in the report, is the substantial agreement, in regard to the pressing needs of all schools, on the part of the nine committees, indorsed by the Committee of

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Ten. It was found that the university and high school had precisely the same needs as the primary school. The whole report is a complete recognition, in fact, of the immediate wants of education and the necessity of renewed study and more thoughtful application of the truth found. What the 400,000 teachers now at work in the common schools of America require, is a profound feeling that there is something much better for the children than is generally applied at the present time; and that something better may be found by a close and persistent study. We have fully arrived at a period in our common school history when this necessity on the part of all teachers is strikingly apparent. I propose, therefore, to make a few suggestions in regard to the study of this valuable report on the part of all teachers in this country.

First, I would suggest two modes of circulating the report. It should be very carefully indexed, and a complete syllabus of study made for the whole report; and, also, a syllabus for each conference report. The syllabuses should include questions upon the most pregnant subjects, and the correlations of the same ideas in the different conference reports. These should be made ready for the teachers, bound as a whole and in separate numbers, in handy forms for study. Reports in both forms should be made available at a small cost to superintendents, boards of education, teachers, and the public generally. I might add that to each report of each committee could be added a list of the best books bearing upon the topics of the reports.

The time is fully come when teachers' meetings, institutes and associations should be made far more effective. All teachers' institutes should be preceded by careful study of the subjects presented. The teachers should come to the meetings fully prepared to hear discussions and take part in them. For instance, each report of the committees should be in the hands of the teachers for preliminary study. The teachers should come to such meetings with their heads full of questions and their hearts full of experience. In the discussion of a complete report of one of the committees, a member of the committee, or some expert, if possible, should be selected to lead the discussion.

For instance, a superintendent may distribute the report upon natural history among all his teachers, with the announcement that in one month it is to be discussed under the leadership of some expert upon the subject. One-half of the time of the meeting should be taken for general discussion, under the skillful direction of a competent moderator, who has the skill and tact to call out the best from every teacher, who can ask pointed questions, such as the following: (1) What is your opinion of this proposition? (2) What have you

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against it? (3) What do you know about its actual application in school?

One of the most striking features of the report is the demand for the introduction of new studies in the primary and grammar grades. The following paragraphs, taken from different reports, may be made the basis of a very profitable discussion. The conference upon physics, chemistry and astronomy recommends:

1. That the study of simple natural phenomena be introduced into the elementary schools, and that this study, so far as practicable, be pursued by means of experiments carried on by the pupil; also, that in connection therewith, in the upper grades of these schools, practice be given in the use of simple instruments for making physical measurements.

The conference upon the study of natural history passed the following resolution unanimously:

Resolved, That the study of natural history in both the elementary school and the high school should be by direct observational study, with the specimens in the hands of each pupil, and that in the work below the high school no text-book should be used.

The report of this conference is full of suggestions in regard to the teaching of natural history, paragraphs 4 and 5 on page 143 being especially valuable. Geography, although not in name a new study, is in reality new as it is presented by the conference upon geography. The whole description of the subject-matter of geography, beginning on page 211, is most excellent.

It will be noticed that observation, in all the subjects of study in which that mental process can be applied, is repeatedly urged. The Committee of Ten makes a very important suggestion in regard to field study on page 50, paragraph 2.

My suggestion, then, is that the passages above quoted and referred to, be printed as a syllabus, including questions such as these: (1) Should the natural sciences, including botany, zoology, chemistry, physics and physiography, be introduced into the primary schools? (2) Is not the curriculum at present so full that the introduction of new studies would be an imposition upon both teachers and pupils? (3) What is the probable effect of the introduction of these sciences upon pupils? (4) What relation have these sciences to the teaching of reading? (5) What to writing? (6) What to number? (7) What means, apparatus, etc., are necessary for the teaching of these subjects in primary schools? (8) What means are generally at hand, near and around most schoolhouses? (9) What is the chief difficulty in the way of introducing these subjects? (10) If the elementary sciences are properly taught, related to reading, writing and arithmetic, will not the "three R's" be far better learned

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than by teaching them in the old isolated way? (11) If all these subjects should not be introduced at once, in what order should they be introduced? (12) What subjects should be admitted in the first, second and third grades? (13) Discuss methods of teaching elementary science. (14) Should one topic be exhausted before another is taken up? (15) Is the plan of Mr. Jackman, in his "Nature Study," a proper one? (16) In what schools are these subjects now taught? (17) What means shall be taken to instruct the teachers in the new subjects?

Let another topic be the great importance of field study. Then ask such questions as these:

(1) Is the suggestion of President Eliot, that Saturday morning should be taken for this purpose, a good one? (2) Can children learn more under good direction in the field than they can in the school-room? (3) Would it not be a good plan to take at least one day in a week for field study? (4) How should field study be directed? (5) What have you in your vicinity for such study? (6) Have you studied carefully the three reports upon the introduction of physics, chemistry and astronomy? (7) Upon natural history? (8) Upon geography? (9) What suggestions made in these reports are you now applying in school?

History may be taken up in the same way, selecting a few excerpts from the report, such as page 170, paragraph 6; page 167, paragraph 2; page 192, paragraph 30.

It will be noticed that the conference upon history did not advise the introduction of this subject in the first four grades. In the fifth grade, they recommend the elementary studies of biography and mythology. Therefore, make the following a subject of study and discussion:

(1) Is there any good reason why mythology should not be introduced into the first grade, and into the kindergarten? (2) What relation has mythology to history? (3) What is the educative effect of fairy stories? (4) What history can be taught the pupils of the first four grades? (5) What relation has mythology to science? (6) What subjects lie nearest mythology? (7) Should not the history or brief account of the savage and barbarous tribes be introduced in the primary grades; for instance, of the Indians and Eskimos? (8) What relation has the study of history to reading and writing? (9) What is the danger of the exclusive use of a text-book? (10) Can little children be made intensely interested in the study of history? (11) What relation has the study of history to geography and to the natural sciences? (12) What is the relation of history to literature? (13) Cannot all literature be profitably taught in direct relation to the study of history? (14) How can a great interest be

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developed in children in the direction of reading histories and biographies? (15) Have you read the report of the conference upon history? (16) What are the best things that you find in it? (17) To what do you object? (18) What is meant by a "dry and lifeless system of instruction in text-books"? (19) Describe a "rational kind of work" in history. (20) Can a teacher who does not love the study of history teach it? (21) What improvements are you making in your own teaching of this subject?

No school topic has been more discussed during the last quarter of a century than the teaching of technical grammar. The conference upon English has presented us with a clear exposition of the principles and methods of teaching English. I would suggest as a basis for discussion in this direction paragraph 2, page 86, and paragraph 1, page 87.

An important suggestion comes from the conference upon the study of Latin that is pertinent to the teaching of English. It will be found on page 65.

Other important paragraphs are those dealing with the influence of the teacher of English (page 94), and the time and method of teaching formal grammar (page 88).

Using the passages in question, propound these queries:

(1) What changes would you make if these principles and methods were applied in your school? (2) Do you believe the statement "that a student may be taught to speak and write good English without receiving any special instruction in formal grammar"? (3) Please state in detail the benefit to your pupils of teaching technical grammar. (4) Are you sure that their speech and writing are improved thereby? (5) Could the time employed in teaching technical grammar be more profitably employed in teaching other studies? (6) What relation has the teaching of language to all other studies? (7) Which is the more important to children, the study of the elementary sciences, or the study of technical grammar? (8) *Resolved*, that we accept the conclusions of the conference upon English, and will in future comply with the directions therein given.

Fully one-third of the time in the common schools is given up to the study of arithmetic. Therefore, there ought to be great interest in the conference report on mathematics. I would choose the paragraphs on subjects and methods (page 105), on teaching geometry page 23), and on wasted energy (page 18), and would have fully debated the main points that they raise, such as: (1) The omission of unnecessary topics. (2) "The method of teaching should be throughout objective." (3) The waste of time and energy in mathematical teaching. (4) The early introduction of concrete geometry. (5) Is it

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not possible to teach both arithmetic and geometry in direct relation to the sciences, geography and history.

One suggestion of the conference upon modern languages has a direct bearing upon primary education, and furnishes an excellent topic for a teachers' meeting. (See paragraph 2, page 96.)

Ask every teacher to consider these questions: (1) The courses of study now being overcrowded, what could be done in grammar schools with a modern language? (2) Is not the "overcrowding" due to the "quantity" ideal? (3) When the ideal ol "quality" is fully applied, will not there be plenty of time for the new subjects, including one modern language?

The most remarkable showing in nearly all the reports is a very marked tendency toward the modern doctrine of unification or coordination of studies. Truly, the conferences were assemblages of prophets, inasmuch as the future of all education is wrapped up in the evolution of this science of education. "Enriching the course of study" to "quantity" teachers means heaping on burdens too great to be borne. Think of botany, zoology, physics, chemistry, geography, meteorology, mythology, history and art in the primary schools! Add the "three R's" and confusion is confounded. There is only one refuge, and that is "quality" teaching; that teaching which makes the soul the focus of light, in which all the rays are blended. It means a richness and fullness of action for the all-sided development of body, mind and soul. Some of the principal suggestions tending toward the theory of concentration are presented in the report on pages 16, 27, 28, 33, 96, 138 and 199.

There can be no more profitable study for teachers' institutes, clubs and classes, than those that would spring from a close investigation of the theory of concentration. This theory at least presents an excellent working hypothesis to be proved or disproved. Every step in examination will throw new light upon the organic unity of all subjects of study; its application will solve the question of overburdening courses of study. Fortunately, we have a good groundwork of this theory, and considerable experience in its application. I allude to the Herbartian theory, whose disciples are among the most prominent and most progressive educators in America. A study of the Herbartian theory as presented by Stoy, Rein, De Garmo, the two McMurrys and Seeley, and of such books as Lange's "Apperception" and Herbart's "Psychology" is also recommended. Formulate questions for discussion such as:

(1) Is it possible and practicable to teach the first steps of reading under the impulses of the thought acquired in the study of elementary science, myth and history? (2) Can the art of penmanship be

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economically acquired by the expression of thought? In other words, should all writing, including spelling, punctuation and capitalization, be learned through the expression of educative thought? (3) Cannot a knowledge of number be best obtained by applying it to the study of science, geography and history? Or, how far may arithmetic be profitably applied to the teaching of those subjects? (4) Should drawing, painting and modeling, spring out of the necessities for the proper teaching of the sciences, geography and history? (5) What are the relations of geography, geology, mineralogy, physics and chemistry? (6) Can history be properly or profitably taught without teaching geography at the same time? (7) What are the relations of literature to history and to science? (8) Have you practically applied any details of the theory under discussion?

The application of the principles and methods of the conferences demands a thorough revision of the existing courses of study.

There are three kinds of courses of study; one, a course adapted to circumstances; by circumstances is meant the average ability of teachers. Such a course bends upward under the personal power of individuals, and bends down to the weakness of incapables. It is a course by which onward movement is possible. Another course may be called ideal, a course made under the supposition that all teachers are equal to their sacred office. It is a course, not by which, but toward which, teachers may work. President Baker suggests such a course in his brave dissent from the majority. He says:

> The training of "observation, memory, expression, and reasoning (inductive)" is a very important part of education, but is not all of education. The imagination, deductive reasoning, the rich possibilities of emotional life, the education of the will through ethical ideas and correct habit, all are to be considered in a scheme of learning. Ideals are to be added to the scientific method.

A third curriculum may be called a "fixed course," a course that demands fixed methods, inflexible examinations, *en bloc* promotions, a course that admits of no originality, or originality under the penalty of disgrace. There are boards of education that never turn a teacher out unless he ventures to suggest that his soul is his own. Such courses, such drudgery, and such degradation of teachers, prevail in our free land to-day. The conferences demand revision of the courses, and with that, demand reform in teaching. Underneath it all, is the command that teachers shall be allowed to study and apply that which they believe to be true and right.

The first suggestion I have to make in the revision of school courses is that teachers should be required to take an active part in discussions that look toward change; that the primary teachers, for instance, make, by committees, a course of study to be presented

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to the superintendent or board for their consideration; that the reserve of actual experience with children be called upon. The foundation of a good course of study is a clear understanding of the relative values of studies and the average ability of teachers.

One unanimous conclusion of all the conferences, a conclusion without a single dissenting voice, or vote, is worth all the costs and all the pains that were necessary to produce the report. That conclusion is that there should be no such thing as class education. President Eliot is emphatic as to this. He says (page 51):

> The secondary schools of the United States, taken as a whole, do not exist for the purpose of preparing boys and girls for colleges. Only an insignificant percentage of the graduates of these schools go to colleges or scientific schools. Their main function is to prepare for the duties of life that small proportion of all the children in the country—a proportion small in number, but very important to the welfare of the nation—who show themselves able to profit by an education prolonged to the eighteenth year, and whose parents are able to support them while they remain so long at school.

I heard, the other day, one of the most progressive State superintendents of the West deliver an excellent lecture upon "Reforms in School Work," in which he earnestly advised enriching courses of study with elementary science and history. A gentleman stepped upon the platform after the lecture to thank him, and at the same time said: "That is all well enough for the children of the rich, but it won't do for the poor." I would not repeat this remark, if it did not express a rapidly growing sentiment in our large cities. The tendency is to reduce the common schools to charity schools, to give the poor a crumb when justice demands a full loaf. Or, put it upon a lower plane if you will—policy demands the very best that the State affords. Three-fourths of the pupils in large cities leave school before beginning the fifth year; the cry is that we must adapt the course to this sad condition. The mass of children do not leave school on account of poverty; they leave because the street, the shop, and the manufactory are more attractive than the school. If children loved school work, most parents would work their fingers to the bone to keep them there. One hundred educators have firmly declared that there are no preferred classes, no rich and no poor, not one education for college and another for business. Education opens freely for all the way to the best, the noblest manhood, and highest womanhood. There is no reason why one child should study Latin and another be limited to the "three R's." I respectfully recommend the discussion of this decision to all teachers' meetings in the land, to school boards, and to popular conventions.

Between the lines and in the lines—in fact, the entire report is saturated with a demand for educated, cultured, trained teachers. An im-

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perative demand for intelligent study on the part of teachers would raise the average teaching ability immeasurably. Boards of education, supervisors, and the majority of the people, in general, do not require an application of the science of education, or the highest skill in the art of teaching. "What is the use to prepare for work which I shall not be allowed to do?" is a very suggestive question, often heard. It is the solemn truth that the best ability is, too often, suppressed, instead of being encouraged. A vigorous, determined, prolonged demand for efficient teachers would bring the desired result. The present weakness of our schools is owing to the fact that there is very little substantial recognition of the science of education. Teaching is generally looked upon as a business, a trade equal to the skill of artisans only. A change for the better must be brought about in schools themselves, and with teachers now at work, before normal schools and colleges will gird themselves to meet new and imperative demands. The report under consideration has pointed out clearly the way toward the much desired end. Courses of study, examinations, inspections, the basis of promotion, should be, in themselves, the conditions for better teaching; they should indeed demand constant and steady improvement in the highest of arts. The school supervisor should have in mind an ideal of the best, and bravely work toward it. Method should never be prescribed; each teacher should have freedom of choice, to work independently, aided by tactful suggestions and directions. The supervisor should demand educative work or nothing. Under this plan, the vexed question of methods would settle itself. Under this plan, every teacher would make some important contribution, either positive or negative, for the common treasury. Under this plan, too, an intense desire to study on the part of many teachers would be aroused. Here is the supervisor's opportunity. The principal function, and at the same time most potent influence, of a superintendent, is as a teacher of teachers, and for this supreme work he should be indefatigable in preparation. A competent teacher is one who incites his pupils to "work out their own salvation." The same can be said, in a wider sense, of the supervisor who is a teacher of teachers.

The fundamental idea of teachers' meetings is to get each and every teacher to contribute his or her best thought and experience for the good of the whole. This can be done if they are encouraged to answer:

(1) Give the details of your work in reading. (2) What are the principles underlying the method you use? (3) What are the results? (4) How do you propose to improve your work? (5) Where have you found the best work in teaching reading? (6) What is your motive

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in teaching reading? (7) Should there really be two motives in teaching any subject?

Thousands of teachers who now keep silence in teachers' meetings could be easily made efficient teachers of teachers by being drawn out on such questions. The main difficulty with most teachers is, not failure in the use of natural methods, but ignorance of the subjects taught. Ignorance of the subjects taught proves, in turn, that such teachers were not taught by the best methods.

The outcome of this epoch-making report is, that we, as supervisors and teachers of teachers, must give those under our charge the best possible opportunities for study and practice, that we must study courageously and persistently the science of education. Above all, we must believe that unrealized possibilities of human growth constitute the infinite line of progress.

DISCUSSION.

RICHARD G. BOONE, Principal State Normal School, Ypsilanti, Mich.—There seem to me to be two thoroughly distinct questions in the discussion before us. First, with reference to how teachers who are now in the city schools can be improved; and, secondly, how those teachers who are now teaching in the country schools may be improved. I do not at all mean, in making such a distinction, to say that what is good for the one is not also good for the other; but I mean to simply emphasize the fact that the conditions which prevail with the one class are very unlike those with the other. The superintendent in the city has it in his power to meet frequently with his teachers, and so, coming in contact with them, can determine the lines of study to better advantage than is possible in the country districts. I shall, therefore, ask you chiefly to consider what may be done for the improvement of the rural teacher. I do not know that you are all personally interested in this. It seems to me, however, to be the great problem of to-day. Our normal schools are sending out hundreds or thousands of teachers every year who have taken more or less fully completed courses of study, and nine-tenths of these go into the city or village or town schools. In the city there are better opportunities, because there is better equipment for instruction and the improvement of the teachers. But, in the country schools, the county commissioners, superintendents and township directors, etc., are for the most part poorly equipped for doing the work that ought to be done in the way of improving the teaching body. The teachers who are qualified, whether they come from the normal schools, from the colleges, from the pedagogical departments, or from whatever other source of preparation, should be so distributed that in every township in the county there shall be one or two or three out of the eight or ten teachers who can leave their influence, in the associations, in the institutes and in the conferences of various sorts, on those who have not had such equipment. If you will excuse me for a personal reference, I may say, that from twenty-five years of experience with the schools of Indiana, where I know some thousands of teachers, I know of no single

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influence that has been promotive of more good than this coming in contact of the better teachers with the poorer. It gives the latter a larger view, a better insight and a broader horizon by coming in contact with those who stand on a little higher plane, and who have read more, studied more, traveled more and visited more. If our administration of the schools could be so centralized that the county superintendent or the commissioner or the county boards of education or the supervisors would have the power to distribute their teachers, as do the city superintendents, where they are most needed, a large service might be done.

Another thing which I think is needed to improve these teachers is, that for county commissioners, etc., we must have better men. The teachers are poorly qualified; but the superintendents, as their leaders officially, are not in any sense their leaders professionally. It seems unfortunate, and I am sorry it must be said, but in all of these States about us it seems to me that for the most part in the country schools the teachers stand about as high professionally, and possibly absolutely, as do the county commissioners and superintendents. There needs to be some regulation through the State authorities whereby the qualifications of the supervisory officers shall be so prescribed and insisted upon as to make them really fitted to assist in the direction of the improvement of these teachers. But, after all that has been said, it remains that a great deal may be done with these teachers through State and local authority in determining their lines of study. Every teacher should be required during a probationary period (and that may be fixed by you or by others), to carry on some line of continuous study and investigation. There are some cities I know, and some countries as well, where it is provided that every teacher coming into the schools as a new teacher shall be required, for one or two or three years, to carry on, under the direction of the authorities, some line of study, and at the close of each year give in some way indication of what the study has done for her. One teacher, perhaps, entering a village school does not have enough knowledge of physical science to carry on her work. It is possible that she could not do a better thing for herself than to give her whole year to the study of science, and to the ways in which science may be presented to the children, and the conditions under which it is to be given and worked out in the course of study and teaching; so that, at the end of the year, whether the work shall have been the best that may have been done by others or not, it perhaps is the best which she could do. She will, at least, have been broadened because of it.

It is possible that she is unable to do the work in literature; she has not read enough. Let her spend her spare time for the year in reading, carefully and under direction; and it has been done, I assure you, with very great advantage. It is just as true with reference to other subjects. Take the teacher who has not had that geographical knowledge which makes it possible for her to teach geography up to the present state of the science; she has studied the old geography, and she has memorized names and places, seas and gulfs, and bays, and mountains, and capitals, etc., but she does not see the other side. Into her hand may be put any of the necessary books on geography, something that will give her this better view of geographical fact and geographical conditions, and so lead to the cultivation of the geographical sense, so that, when she teaches geography, she will teach it in the light of this better thought.

It equally applies to history. I do not know whether it is true that the teacher acquires a better fitness for giving instruction in United States history by simply studying United States history. History has to do with human conduct. It has to do with conduct in associated relations as they have been worked down into and been made organic in what we call institutional life. Any study of history that gives a teacher better insight into social affairs or a better understanding of what we mean by the personality of men who have built up institutions will make

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her a better teacher of United States history. I do not know that I should say that it is a hindrance to a teacher to have to prepare for examinations under a system for getting licenses to teach. Anything that makes a teacher think better will also fit her the better to pass an examination of any ordinary commissioner or examiner for our State or local licenses.

It seems to me that what we want in this better improvement of teachers, is to let them do some work, any worthy work, as systematically as possible with some sort of oversight by those in charge. Then they will acquire better habits of thinking, they will take a broader view of other subjects, and will be more generous in their recognition of what is knowledge. In that way I should say that in teachers' meetings let there be made an assignment for every teacher, and let her be expected to do her work for the year in as systematic a way as if she were still in school. I hope to have it true of those students going out from the normal school of Michigan, that they shall still be required to carry on some sort of work under the direction of the faculty of the normal school, so that when they come back to take an added year, they shall do it on top of those five years of continuous study after graduation. It is done in other lines of work; every clergyman knows how that is. After he has left the seminary and goes out to preach, he is not only encouraged to carry on this work but it is actually forced on him by the policy of the institution. It is true of other professions, and great good, I am sure, comes from it.

It was said by the last speaker on the floor that the subjects for teachers' meetings resolved themselves into three; the study of methods, the study of the principles of teaching, and the study of the subject-matter. I should like to add another one which was suggested in the last sentences of the paper; and that is the theory or science of education, which seems to me to be, after all, the essential one. It is of far less importance that the teacher should be given a series of lessons in the art of teaching than that she shall have been taught to see what education is in the large sense of the term. He who goes into a school with a right opinion of what education is, without any reference to the school, without any reference to the teacher and text-books and courses of study and rules and regulations, if he have no instruction in the method and in the art of teaching, will yet go in better prepared to do the work. He does whatever he does in the light of this thought: that education is the process of developing, of maturing; and he will not do and cannot do the mechanical sort of work that frequently goes along with a very great and comprehensive knowledge of what we call the art of teaching.

SUPT. J. M. GREENWOOD, Kansas City.—I cannot understand why it is that in our primary work the little children in the first grade are taught the sphere, the cylinder, the cone, the cube, in putty and mud, and then the more solid and substantial forms are handled till the little folks have learned all about their surfaces, edges, corners, and other properties, and yet the mathematical committee recommends that our boys and girls must not learn how to find the edge of the cube till they study algebra.

Behold the sage recommendation on duodecimals! Not taught anywhere except in some colleges and academies, and has not been taught in any public schools for nearly a quarter of a century in our part of the country! Then, again, we are advised to throw out compound proportion. Every teacher who has had experience knows, except the committee that framed that report, that it takes only one week to teach children compound proportion, and yet that is to be dropped out. Time saved! Indeed! How, when, where? Have we not proportion in algebra and in geometry, and have we not proportion running through the physical sciences? They say the pupils cannot understand business. Why? Out in the State where

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I live, the newspapers each morning print the market reports of the world, and the price of money and the rate at which that money is borrowed and lent in the market, and what the people pay for the use of it. These children hear business talked every day, and they know something about it because it reaches every home.

To the Committee of Ten, and to the Committee of Ninety, I will say, that the only way a boy can learn arithmetic is to study arithmetic and not to mix it up with other things. It cannot be had in any other way. To the Committee on English, I will say that a boy who has learned English grammar is the one that is able to study language. I know what the children are doing, and the committees do not, or they had a very poor way of telling it. That is the difference. I have read the report—every page. I have looked over the immense array of names and the positions of those that have made these reports, and I agree with one statement made by Colonel Parker, that the report is a unique thing.

In behalf of the city teachers, who constitute the silent majority in this report, I will say that in New York, in Richmond, in San Francisco, in Boston, in Cleveland, in Toronto, in St. Louis, in Chicago, or in any of the best schools of the country, the teachers are doing excellent work that these men say they are not doing; better than the gentlemen themselves can do, and yet they are prescribing for us, as they claim, and not for themselves. Let them take their own medicine first.

SUPT. W. W. PENDERGAST of Minnesota.—It seems to me that the first condition required is that teachers shall be able to look over the whole course and see the end from the beginning. Then, with the goal full in view, they can strike out boldly to reach it, instead of frittering away valuable time in vain attempts to imitate others whom they take as models.

The first great question for a teacher to solve is: "What ought to be done with these boys and girls? What is the real object in view? What would I make out of them if I could have everything my own way?" When this question shall have been decided, the straight road to success lies open before him, and every step taken will bring him so much nearer its attainment. Teachers must have a landmark toward which every movement should be directed. The devious wanderings, the hesitating and uncertain steps, the loiterings by the way, the dawdling and general lifelessness that characterize our schools to-day, will then become things of the past.

I am surprised at the amount, variety and thoroughness of work claimed to be done in the Cleveland schools, and incline to think the claim is a just one. They have learned to utilize their time and make the minutes that are usually wasted count something towards the final result. Horace Mann said fifty years ago that the schools of Massachusetts were not doing one-tenth of the work that might and ought to be done. That glorious old commonwealth was shocked, but the words were well weighed nevertheless. Now these Cleveland schools are learning to use the other nine-tenths of the time, which are still for the most part thrown away in the older and more conservative parts of the country.

SUPT. J. A. REINHART, Paterson, N. J.—It is not possible to depreciate the importance of this question—the "improvement of the teachers now in service in our city schools." I am not prepared to reply in detail to the inquiries that have here been made, but I certainly can contribute something by way of expression of interest in the matter. I do not believe that there is a more important question to come before the department than the one now before us. Colonel Parker very properly tells us how to use the report of the Committee of Ten to the profit of our teachers. He suggests very wisely that we take this report and bring it in detail before our teachers, and have the more important special passages

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in it fully discussed in relation to the work being done in our schools. In answer to the question which has been handed to me, I would say, that in Paterson we are trying to do something practical for the improvement of our teachers. We are endeavoring to interest them in the study of the subjects which they have to teach. I think Colonel Parker is right when he says here to-day, what he has elsewhere said, that the greatest obstacle in the way of intelligent teaching is the ignorance of the subjects taught. One thing we are trying to do in Paterson is to open up to our teachers the vital content and the comprehensive character of such subjects as geography, history and English literature. We are endeavoring to have them understand what wonderful subjects these are, how they modify and express the life of our people, and how literature can take hold of the life of young people and mold it anew. We hold many teachers' meetings, not necessarily under charge of the superintendent, for our teachers are associated in grades and in clubs for the study of special subjects. These clubs have for their leaders the teachers in certain departments, who have a certain outline of subjects which they study and discuss among themselves. In every way we are trying to work out, not only methods of instruction, but larger conceptions of subject-matter. We believe that it is possible to do much for our teachers in recognizing the healthful influence of obtaining fresh knowledge. We believe that there is no single teacher who cannot be benefited by this study of methods and subject-matter. Our teachers believe that it is more important that they should themselves understand what they teach; that they should have a comprehension of the relation of the various subjects they teach, than that they should understand the importance of using a spelling book. My contribution to this discussion must be this, that the improvement of the teachers now in service is a very important matter.

SUPT. O. T. BRIGHT, Chicago.—I do not know whether I am improving my teachers or not, but I am trying to. I should seek to have every teacher defend the work that he or she is trying to do. That implies not only the method which is employed in teaching, but also what she is teaching. I would have my teachers, if they are using the spelling book, demonstrate that the spelling book is the most essential thing in teaching children how to spell. If I find a teacher teaching compound proportion, I say: "What are you doing that for? What is it to do for the child? Where is he going to apply it? If you are going to make money out of it, it is all right; but how? Is it mental growth that you are getting out of it? If so, how?"

Teachers' meetings can be productive of much good, and I would have the teachers' meetings held where classes are under instruction. I like to bring the teachers together in a forenoon, where a class is being taught, under the daily program, for two or three hours; then, in the afternoon, have a discussion of the program from beginning to end, and everything that the teacher did must come under criticism. Was the recitation well conducted? Why? What was its object? Was the matter good to teach to the children? Yes, I think it was. Why? Nine times out of ten the "why" brings out the answer, or you get at it in some way or other. The method used and the subject-matter are the method and subject-matter of tradition. The teacher has got to know why she does a certain thing for the children who are right before her, and the traditions of her father or her grandfather have nothing to do with it.

SUPT. F. A. FITZPATRICK, Omaha.—The poor teacher usually is poor because she has never seen any good teaching, and would not appreciate it if she had seen it. Great fogs have to be rolled away, by careful individual and professional consideration, in the school-room alongside the teacher. That can be done by calling the attention of the teacher to the one worst thing in her teaching, taking up one

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thing at a time and showing her how to remedy it, and then going away and letting her think it over. Miss Brackett has said that a good teacher is she to whom everything that a child does is a sign. If a man wants to know whether he is going to make a teacher or not he can find out very readily. He needs only to ask himself the question whether this suggestion that he has heard from somebody else suggests anything to him in a different direction or upon a different topic. If it does not, he never will make a teacher. He may read the report of the Committee of Ten until doomsday, masterly as it is; that report will never make anybody a better teacher of itself. It will lay the foundation for making better teachers, but, as I consider it, it is merely the foundation.

ZALMON RICHARDS, Secretary of Trustees, National Educational Association.—I have two thoughts to which I want to give utterance. There are two points which I have always tried to keep in view as a teacher. First, that it was important for the child to learn how to use the English language; and, secondly, to learn how to speak it. In other words, that language culture lies at the foundation of all success in teaching. I do not mean language lessons as they are usually taught or spoken of in these days, but language culture, so that when a child grows up and takes up his courses of lessons he will be able to know what the meaning of the language in his text-book is. Nine-tenths of the time now spent in schools in studying text-books is lost; and this time is lost in consequence of the child's not comprehending the language of the teacher.

Then I wish to speak of voice-culture. There is no branch of training in our elementary schools more defective than voice-culture, the effects of which are seen in our teachers, in very many of our public speakers, in the pulpit, at the bar, and almost everywhere. In our public schools generally throughout the country, it is a rare case to find either teachers or pupils who enunciate the elementary sounds well, or who articulate them as they should do, or who even pronounce well. There are very many people in every section of our country who, for various reasons, have defective hearing, and find it often very difficult to understand public speakers simply because they do not speak distinctly; but there is a very much larger portion of the public speakers, whose utterance is sadly defective simply because of defective early training. Here is work for better training in our elementary schools, and a field where the course of studies greatly needs enriching.

PROF. C. A. MCMURRY, Normal, Ill.—How many superintendents in our city schools who are dealing with teachers would be willing to give an illustrated lesson to the principals of their city? I believe that the focus where the successful work of teaching is found is in the class-room and in the school-room. I am inclined to think that a majority of our superintendents are so much occupied with a good many other things that they themselves have not the time to show to the persons with whom they come in direct contact what insight they have into correct principles of teaching and to illustrate it to them. If we could suppose a case of a superintendent of a city of 100,000 people, who himself is a first-class teacher in some one subject, and that he could go before twenty of his principals and give a first-class illustration, or give several in the course of a year, of right teaching, and then that he could call upon those principals to go before their subordinate principals and give evidence of insight into the principles of teaching, I think it would be possible, then, for the superintendent who is a real educator to make his impression on the teachers of his city. I do not see why that should not be done in this country more than it is. I believe that every man and every woman who lays claim to be a supervisor of teachers ought to hold himself responsible for a true insight into the subject. German superintendents hold a more practical relation to their teachers. I remember on one occasion going into a class which Dr. Fricke

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of Halle himself taught, a class of forty children eight years old, in the gymnasium, in the presence of a dozen masters of schools, besides a class of young normal teachers. He gave them a model lesson, and when it was finished he took those young people and discussed his purpose in teaching that lesson, and explained also the points in which he thought he had failed or where he might have done better. I do not see why the superintendents should not qualify themselves in the best way.

The ability to sift out of an ordinary lesson its good points and its defects, and to set these things clearly before the minds of young teachers is a difficult thing. Those who supervise the work of teachers should cultivate this difficult art.

SUPT. A. B. BLODGETT, Syracuse, N. Y.—I am not quite so modest as Superintendent Bright or Superintendent Fitzpatrick, who said that they had tried to improve their teachers, but could not say whether they had done so or not. I have tried it and it has been done. It has been done first of all by simple, frank, honest, kindly, hearty criticisms and suggestions; and again by the holding of general teachers' meetings in which general matters are discussed. You can hardly touch upon any phase of school management, or any mistakes you observe in the schoolroom, in a general teachers' meeting, which will not hit a great many teachers. I have visited the rooms after such a meeting, and teachers would say, "I did not know that you observed what I was doing the other day in my room till you spoke of it at the meeting."

There are two classes of teachers in our schools: those who are professionally trained, and those who, we might say, are professionally untrained. Many professionally untrained teachers have, through experience, learned to present topics psychologically and methodically. They are good teachers, and any attempt to change their methods would result in injury to their work. I would let such teachers alone.

The superintendent should be honest and he should give kindly criticisms, but his criticism should not be overwhelming. He should not crowd upon a teacher an unlimited amount of criticism, but when he finds her wrong in one thing he should give her just help enough to lift her up. Some years ago I had a young teacher who had gone through the best training that we could give her at that time, but I feared for her work. As I went into her class-room I noticed that she went about her work with a flushed face and an excited manner. She would ask a question and not know that it was answered as it should be, or whether it was answered at all. She went from one thing to another excitedly, and there was very poor work being done. I said to her, "Now, Miss D., won't you please give the class some busy work and sit down here with me?" I said, "The first thing is to stand before your class till you get the full attention of every child. Then give your direction and have it carried out. See that it is carried out by every child. Work right along in that line, and do not give a second direction till you see the first one complied with. Be animated, be interested, but, above all, be quiet and self-contained, and give attention if you expect to get attention." She has improved one hundred per cent. It is a pleasure for me to visit her room to-day, and I know it is pleasant for her to have me come; because she knows that if I see a thing that could be improved I will help her.

A. G. LANE Superintendent of Schools, Chicago.—It is important to secure on the part of the teachers that spirit which will make them anxious to investigate educational questions and to seek for the underlying principles. Then can be presented better plans and better methods, with the expectation of getting satisfactory results. The educational papers of the present time are giving a great many valuable outlines, plans of work and discussions of educational principles. Great good has been accomplished by what is called the "round table meeting" in the school.

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The principal and assistant teachers (frequently the assistants without the principal) take some of these outlines and make them the topic of an hour's discussion at noontime or after school. Many teachers then make a practical application and test of the methods suggested. Superintendents should encourage this effort on the part of the teachers, especially in the large cities, where it is impossible for him to personally supervise the educational work.

The suggestions of Colonel Parker cover a great many things that are vital to our school work. They are all questions worthy of consideration and discussion by the teachers all over this country. There will be all kinds of experiments tried to fit in the recommendations of that committee to our courses of study, and the outlines of the questions presented in Colonel Parker's paper will open up vital points that should be carefully considered before any change is made.

CHARLES W. COLE, Superintendent of Schools, Albany, N. Y.—I think all will agree that the teachers' meeting is one of the most important tools we have to use for this purpose, and I think, also, that the teachers' meeting may be made, not only ordinarily profitable, but also a means of teaching the philosophy of our profession in a very much easier way than some imagine. We have a very homely way in our meetings of superintendents in the State of New York of confining our discussions entirely to practical matters, and by this sign you will be very apt to know us. When a New Yorker says anything, he goes into details. He does not discuss many questions broadly. Not that he cannot generalize, but because our meetings are held to determine the application of principles rather than for their discovery.

I have been urging a particular kind of teachers' meeting upon principals and teachers, and they have been raising the usual objections, saying: "It is impossible for us to study psychology in a teachers' meeting," and I have been saying in answer: "Yes, you can; but you must do it in a different way from the way you would study it in a school." After a conversation with one of our principals, he acted upon my suggestion. For instance, he said to his teachers one day: "We are going to have a meeting day after to-morrow on the subject of 'Attention.' I should like to have you observe in the school-room what degree of attention you get from your pupils and what obstacles seem to stand in the way, and think about the difficulties you have had and how you would overcome them." In short, each teacher was to make an observation of her own class. The result was to be brought in in writing. Each teacher brought in what she observed. The whole was then put together by the principal without adding anything of his own. I happened to see the paper, and must say that it was about as complete a discussion of the subject of attention as I have met; and the result of their study upon those teachers in their after work was certainly admirable.

I remember last year listening to Superintendent Greenwood's paper read in Boston on a similar subject, wherein he spoke of one class of teachers with which, I think, all of you are familiar. It is not that they lack culture, it is not that they lack subject-matter; but in spite of these essentials, they are conspicuous failures in their several positions. I have a notion that in many cases it is a case of the round peg in the square hole. I have had principals come to me and say: "What shall I do with that boy? He has been in that class two years and I think he will have to stay there another year. He is a dull boy, and he cannot get along." I have said: "There is only one thing to do with that boy. Put him ahead two, or even three, grades." I have never yet found this remedy to fail. That boy wanted to be put way ahead to get out of the rut and to have his ambition aroused. It is so with a great many teachers. They are in the wrong place. Their temperament is such that they cannot teach the particular line which they are at work on. My

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idea is to seek the kind of work each can do best. If a teacher is a failure in a high grade, put her in a lower grade, and *vice versa*.

JAMES L. HUGHES, Inspector of Schools, Toronto, Canada.—My first point is to get the teachers to believe that they don't know everything; that there is something to learn just as long as they live, and that progress is joy as well as duty.

Second, I get them to free themselves from conventionalities and from all prejudices as far as I can.

Third, we hold meetings almost exactly on the line of Mr. Bright's. We meet frequently, by grades and by parts of grades. Then we see the good teaching—the best teaching in each grade—and we analyze and discuss the work, and see why it is right or why it is wrong. In addition to that, we take some of the work on the academic side. If I get a real good book on geometry, or algebra, or any other subject, I give it to some specialist in that subject and ask him to analyze the book and get the very best points, and then we have a meeting and he gives us the best features of the work.

In reading, we take up specific work. We are reading four books this year in studying childhood. I prepare questions to be given after we have read certain chapters, and we discuss them. The four books are as follows: "First Three Years of Childhood" by Perez; Preyer's "Infant Mind," G. Stanley Hall's "Contents of Children's Minds," and Tracy's "Psychology of Childhood."

I know my teachers have improved and I know that I have helped them to improve. I would resign my position if I did not feel that this was so. I try to have my teachers recognize not their weakness, but their strongest powers. If a teacher shows originality in any department of her work, even in one little corner of it, and I reveal my recognition of her effort to her, she becomes a higher type of woman. Consciousness of individual power is the secret of true growth. I have seen a transformation of character revealed in the face of a teacher when, at a meeting of her grade, I have spoken approvingly of some method or process which I had previously given her credit for and noted as something new to me. Such a teacher has a new power from that moment; she has a new light in her soul that will never go out. We can all start such lights to shine by simply saying: "That is admirable, and I never saw it before." There are very few teachers to whom we cannot honestly say this in regard to something.

I ask one question of each new teacher: "What is your greatest power?" I have found few teachers who at first believed they had any special power. When I convince a teacher that she has original power she improves quickly. I have been able to do my teachers most good in this way, and my chief joy in my work is to hear my teachers when they come to tell me of the new discoveries they think they have made. So far as their growth is concerned, it does not make any difference if the same discovery was made 4,000 years ago, and every century since that time.

MISS HARRISON, Norfolk, Va.—We have heard from all sections of the country very nearly, and, if you will allow me, I should like to tell you of the work of a Virginian who is not present to speak for himself. His name is Mr. Jenkins. He lives in Portsmouth, Va., and is one of the most prominent educators of Virginia.

He is principal of a grammar school and of a high school. He found these schools not in the line of progress. His work with his teachers has been practical, very practical. He first took the subject of geography, called his teachers together and taught them himself. He read with them the essential chapters and paragraphs from books on modern methods in geography. He gave them outlines for definite work. He secured for them all the materials necessary for the application

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of the latest methods. He went with them into the fields, and at his suggestion during the summer nearly every one of his teachers went to a summer school that they might learn more of geography, as well as of other subjects.

When he finds a school which he believes to be good, he visits that school and inspects its methods. Then he either brings or sends his teachers, that they, too, may see what is done there. I recall one school in which he saw some of the much maligned "mud" being made into spheres and cylinders. He went back to his primary teacher, put a bucket of "mud" before her, told her what he had seen done, and told her "to go to work." She did "go to work," and soon, for several days, she was at work with the teacher whom her principal had seen give such an excellent lesson in clay molding.

It seems to me that those who would improve the teachers must understand the practice as well as the theory of teaching. Then a superintendent can do much for his teachers by going himself and seeing what is good, then taking or sending the teachers to see for themselves and afterward discussing the work seen in the weekly teachers' meeting. This is the course constantly pursued in the city of Portsmouth, Va., and the teachers there are only too willing to stay after school to work with this wide-awake man in the State of Virginia.

SOME PHASES OF PRESENT EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS IN EUROPE.

BY DR. NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, COLUMBIA COLLEGE, NEW YORK.

"I hold it for an incontestable maxim," says Rousseau, in concluding his "Emile," "that whoever has seen but one people, instead of knowing men, knows only those with whom he has lived." This is still a sufficient answer to those who profess to view with indifference the civilizations of other nations than their own. Time and man's modern conquest of nature have knit the nations of the earth together with many bonds and close ones, and to-day none is too proud to learn from its neighbor. Matthew Arnold, in one of his many charming chapters on education, reminds us that "it was said, and truly said, of one of the most unwearied and successful strivers after human perfection that ever lived—Wilhelm von Humboldt—that it was a joy to him to feel himself modified by the operation of a foreign influence. And," continues Mr. Arnold, "this may well be a joy to a man whose center of character and whose moral force are once securely established. Through this he makes growth in perfection. Through this he enlarges his being and fills up gaps in it; he unlearns old prejudices and learns new excellences; he makes advance towards inward light and freedom. Societies may use this means of perfection as well as individuals, and it is a characteristic (perhaps the best characteristic) of our age, that they are using it

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more and more." Philosophy, literature, science, long ago overleaped the boundaries of speech and custom and made themselves universal. Problems of government, of administration, of national development, are now passing through the same process. Twenty years ago educated Englishmen were in total ignorance of the provisions of the Constitution of the United States. A few months since I heard these provisions quoted with accuracy daily in the House of Commons during the debate on the Government of Ireland Bill.

International expositions and congresses of education and foreign travel have familiarized many Americans with the educational problems and the educational systems of Europe. It has been made plain to us that these problems and those systems have much in common with our own, and that they are worthy of our careful study. But their suggestiveness is inexhaustible, and it is not my purpose, in the brief time at my disposal this evening, to present to you a digest of official reports or to state in catalogue form all of the interesting and important movements in education that are taking place in Europe. I wish rather to select from the recent experiences of Germany, France and Great Britain a few prominent tendencies of thought and action, and to interpret them as best I can by comparing them briefly with similar movements among ourselves.

In point both of interest and importance, what is passing in Great Britain claims our attention first. Few things in the entire history of education are more striking than the change that has come over the attitude of the English people toward education in two generations—for it was in 1832 that the State made the first grant in aid of elementary schools. No less an authority than the London "Times" itself recently said: "Nothing in our history is more amazing than the total absence, which prevailed until about 1830, either of an ideal of public education or of a public conscience in everything that related to schools. The ideal was supplied, the conscience called into existence by Dr. Arnold of Rugby." Arnold died in 1842, and the movement that he did so much to form has continued to gain force ever since. The grants in aid of schools supported by religious corporations or societies were made more effective by the Revised Code of 1860-1861, issued by Mr. Robert Lowe. Public schools, in the American sense of the term, were added by Mr. Forster's great act in 1870, and compulsory education resulted from enactments made in 1876 and 1880. Finally, in 1891, school fees were abolished almost entirely, and elementary education was made free throughout almost the whole of England and Wales.

Despite these points of contact with American experience, the English elementary school system is very different from our own.

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Its problems are regarded as essentially social or political, and not as primarily educational. The rigidity of class distinctions is such that elementary schools, whether controlled by religious societies or by elected school boards, are looked upon as one phase of philanthropic effort; they are a provision made by the church or the taxpayers for the so-called lower classes. The extension of the suffrage has reconciled the average Englishman to the support of elementary schools much in the spirit of Mr. Lowe's "Now, we must educate our masters." This point of view is totally different from our own, and forces a complete breach between elementary and higher education. In consequence, the English son of poor parents has a very small chance of obtaining a secondary education, much less of reaching the universities. English educationists, however, have attacked this problem and have begun its solution, and I shall return in a moment, when speaking of secondary education, to the proposals that they expect to make to parliament on the subject.

The existence of a strongly intrenched State church, which insists upon its rights to control elementary schools for the purposes of instructing the children in its catechism and formularies, is one of the most important factors in the present situation in England. Of the 20,000 elementary schools, about 15,000 are so-called voluntary schools, under the control of religious societies or private corporations. About 12,000 of this 15,000 belong to the Church of England. Something less than 5,000 schools are a charge upon the local rates and under the control of elected school boards. Yet these 5,000 board or public schools do a tremendous work; for, while there are about three times as many voluntary schools as board schools, the latter have provision for two-thirds as many pupils as the former. In the board schools no catechism or religious formulary distinctive of any particular denomination may be used. The impression prevails, whether rightly or wrongly, that the board schools are more progressive and efficient than the voluntary schools.

Notwithstanding the fact that the vast majority of Englishmen are undoubtedly satisfied with the present plan, by which voluntary schools receive State aid on subjecting themselves to State inspection and board schools are provided where voluntary schools fail entirely or are insufficient to provide for the school population, the *status quo* is not allowed to remain undisturbed. The managers of voluntary schools continually complain that the regulations of the Education Department, as to efficiency of instruction and the provision of proper school accommodations, bear hardly upon them; while, on the other hand, a large section of the Radical party would like to see board schools displace voluntary schools entirely. In not a few instances—in London, for example—the supporters of volun-

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tary schools have been successful in electing a large number of representatives on the school board, and thus they have forestalled the opposition and prevented an aggressive policy from being entered upon.

Elementary education in England having been made substantially compulsory and free, it remains to improve its character by raising the standard for admission to the teaching body and by providing ample apparatus for instruction, and to come to some permanent settlement of the question of religious teaching. It is perfectly evident that the Church of England will not willingly surrender any of its present prerogatives and privileges. What it loses must be forcibly taken from it by legislation. It may be that the existing arrangement, or some modification of it, best suits the genius of the English people, and that it will prove to be permanent. The Education Department holds an even hand between the board and the voluntary schools, and demands from both proper accommodations and efficiency, both of which it tests through its staff of inspectors.

It will not have escaped observation that the English arrangements as to religious teaching in elementary schools is substantially that which is sometimes urged upon us for adoption in the United States, namely, the division of the State school fund between public and private parochial schools. There is, however, this great difference between the two countries: in England, the State's relation to elementary education began by subventions to existing denominational or private schools; in the United States, on the contrary, the State began by making independent provision of its own.

Viewing the experience of the most enlightened and progressive nations as a whole, however, it is apparent that something remains to be done before the question of religious instruction in public education can be said to be satisfactorily settled. Since the laicization of the French schools there has been an enormous increase in the attendance on private schools in France where religious instruction is given. It is only three years since Prussia was thrown into a ferment by the introduction into the Landtag, with the king's approval, of a bill that would have enforced religious teaching in all public schools. One clause of the bill read: "In the organization of elementary schools sectarian considerations are to be regarded as far as possible. As a general rule every child shall be taught by a teacher of his own sect." The proposition gave to the clergy the superintendence of religious instruction and seats in the local boards of school directors. The storm of opposition that the bill aroused and political considerations compelled its withdrawal, but its provisions revealed clearly the tendency of the governing officials.

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Summing up the evidence on this question, Mr. Fitch pointed out to the British Education Department in 1891 that the system of free education "has a tendency, though not a necessary or invariable tendency, to become a purely secular system. Gratuitous instruction may be, as in France and the United States, exclusively secular, but it may, as in Canada and Belgium, include religious teaching, and be given by the State in co-operation with religious bodies." Also, that "where the State system absolutely excludes religious instruction from its purview there grows up side by side with it, as in France, the United States, and till recently in Belgium, a rival system outside of the public school organization, and in part hostile to it, administered by religious bodies, maintained at their own cost and that of the parents, and receiving neither aid nor supervision from public authorities. Experience seems to prove that in such circumstances the number of voluntary and denominational schools tends to increase, and the separation in feeling and interest between such schools and the common schools to become more marked, while the area of the State's influence over public education becomes *pro tanto* restricted. A secular system pure and simple, it would appear, is incapable of becoming a truly national system." To these conclusions of Mr. Fitch I am compelled to assent. Abandoning theories and confining ourselves to the facts as they are presented to us in Europe and America, I do not see how they can be gainsaid. Here in the United States it has been usual to settle the question by vigorous denunciation of those who are dissatisfied with the State system of secular schools, or by repeating the irrelevant formula, that "Church and State must be wholly separate," or by appealing to what is known as the "American spirit" or the "American idea." But the subject is too far-reaching and too important to be settled in any such off-hand manner. Patience, tolerance and careful study of the educational conditions throughout the civilized world will alone enable us to meet this difficult problem worthily, and solve it satisfactorily and permanently.

If the problem of religious instruction in public schools is common to England, France, Germany and the United States, the same is true of the problems connected with secondary education. In Germany the Gymnasium and in France the Lycée have long been in existence, and have contributed in a large measure to the national culture. Nevertheless, their reform and improvement are constantly demanded. In England the whole apparatus of secondary education on anything approaching a national scale, remains to be created, while in the United States the proper organization and administration of what exists is the most pressing aspect of the question. Running through the manifestations of educated opinion in all of

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these countries is a common thread of conviction that elementary and secondary instruction must be brought into closer relations; that the opportunities for secondary education and what follows it must be made as general as possible; and, finally, that the traditional curriculum of secondary schools must be so modified as to admit what are known as the modern subjects and to train the students, not only for the universities but for life. The discussion that led up to and followed the Berlin School Conference of 1890, the recent revision of the program of the Lycées in France, the cry for the establishment of secondary or high schools in England, and the work of our own Committee of Ten, all illustrate this fact.

So far as Germany is concerned, I am convinced that the efforts of the School Conference of 1890 have proved abortive. It was a serious blunder to ask for the suppression of the Real Gymnasium—the secondary school which includes Latin but not Greek in its curriculum. That type of school is destined to play a still more important part in education than it has in the past, and no reorganization can be permanent that does not take it into consideration. In this respect Professor Paulsen, the greatest educational authority in Germany, was right, and those who outvoted him in the conference were wrong. It is not easy to see, either, how the overpressure that was complained of has been relieved. To be sure, the time is more profitably occupied, for additional work in German and history are to be found where the dismal Greek and Latin composition used to be. But the gymnasial student still has twenty-eight to thirty hours of school work per week. The American Committee of Ten thought that twenty periods of forty-five minutes each were all that ought to be in the program, and the last revision of the Lycée program in France calls for an average of twenty hours per week only.

The various types of secondary schools in Germany have their warm advocates, who are continually disputing as to the respective merits of the classical gymnasium—the gymnasium with Latin but without Greek—and the school that offers no instruction in the classics. Conservative opinion and long established usage combine to give great prestige to the classical gymnasium and its graduates. Nevertheless, the official statistics show that none of the secondary schools hold a satisfactory proportion of their students for the entire course. In 1889-1890 there were 135,337 pupils in secondary schools of all sorts, and of this number 20,038, or nearly 15 per cent, left school during the year. Of those leaving, 4,105, or 25 per cent graduated with the Zeugniss der Reife; 8,051, or 40.2 per cent stayed long enough to gain the privilege of serving but a single year in the army; and 7,882, or 39.3 per cent did not stay long enough

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to do even that. In other words, only 20.5 per cent of the students who pass out of the secondary schools in a year really obtain the training that these schools are organized to give. So that we can understand what Von Stallwürk means, when he says, that the complaints against the secondary schools of Germany are all summed up in one comprehensive charge: "The higher school system is no longer adapted to the times." This is a complaint not unfamiliar to American ears, and it will probably be heard as long as the process of evolution lasts. But continuous existence, whether of an individual or an institution, means continuous adaptation, and to this law there is no exception in the case of school systems.

England has no system of secondary education. The great, so-called, public schools train the sons of the aristocracy, but very meager provision is made for anyone else. It is now proposed to remedy this deficiency, and to provide such links between the several types of institutions as will enable students who have the ability and the disposition to obtain both a secondary and a higher education. Mr. Acland, the present head of the Education Department, has already framed and laid before parliament a bill to empower municipalities to establish secondary schools when needed and to support them by taxation. This is precisely our city high school, as yet unknown in England.

Whether Oxford and Cambridge will take any part in the new order of things is as yet uncertain. But an institution very like the American college and scientific school has sprung into existence at Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, and one or two other large centers, that will provide an excellent collegiate training for high school graduates. These provincial colleges, as they are called, have developed without attracting much attention outside of the sphere of their immediate influence. They have drawn to them large numbers of students and have in their service some of the most promising of English scholars. They are an important element to be reckoned with in any scheme of organization for the higher education, and the foundation of a large number of public secondary schools would immensely increase their importance and extend their constituency.

In connection with the present movement in England for the development of secondary education, there is one feature of peculiar interest that relates to the qualifications of the teaching force. It is proposed, and bills have been drawn dealing with the matter, to create a council, some of whose members are to be nominated by the crown and others elected to represent the several universities and the leading teachers' organizations, whose duty it shall be to prepare and maintain a register of duly trained and qualified teach-

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ers. For three years after the passing of the act any person who shall have been engaged in teaching for not less than two years shall be entitled to be placed upon the register. After that time, however, only those persons shall be qualified to be registered who, being twenty-one years of age, hold either (1) a certificate by examination in the theory and practice of education, from the council to be created by the act, or (2) a certificate, by examination, issued under the authority of the Education Department for England, Ireland and Scotland, or (3) the teaching diploma of the University of Cambridge, or (4) the teaching diploma of the University of London, or (5) the teaching diploma of any other university or public body in the United Kingdom hereafter approved by the council, or (6) the fellowship or licentiateship of the College of Preceptors. In the case of teachers of special subjects, the council is to be satisfied of their ability to teach those subjects before their names can be placed upon the register. Others wish to extend the list of alternative qualifications for registration above given, by adding to them a clause admitting to the register any graduate by examination of any university in the United Kingdom, or of any foreign or colonial university approved by the council.

It is hoped in this way to exclude incompetent and untrained teachers from the schools, and to build up a genuine profession of educated and qualified school masters and mistresses. The proposal is far more comprehensive and drastic than anything that has yet been done in the United States. Once or twice leading educationists have pointed out that our secondary education could not be the best possible until unfit teachers were excluded from the schools, both public and private, by law. The attainment of any such ideal is, however, far in the future, and Americans will watch with peculiar interest what is done in England. The plan is a practicable one, and is strongly indorsed, though it runs counter to many English prejudices and must certainly provoke extended controversy before it finds a place upon the statute-book. It is not probable that either of the proposed bills on the subject that have been drawn will be actively pushed until a report has been received from the royal commission on secondary education that has been asked for and that Mr. Gladstone has promised to create.

Passing to the universities, three things are apparent: (1) a continual effort is making to improve the organization and administration of universities; (2) more is being done each year for the systematic study of education and the training of teachers; and (3) the privileges of women are being rapidly extended.

The two most important instances of the first tendency are the attempt to reorganize the universities of France and the project to establish a teaching university in London.

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The twenty-two universities of France, many of them as full of abuses as of years, perished in the Revolution. Even the University of Paris, the example after which the universities of Germany and of England were copied, lost its historical identity. In the place of the old universities, with their traditions and their privileges, there came into existence a single University of France, which is a great administrative organization, supervising and controlling all public education, whether elementary, secondary or higher, but which is not a teaching body. The University of the State of New York is a corporation very similar in character to the existing University of France. As a result of this action, higher education in France is in the hands of faculties of letters, science, law and medicine, established in different cities throughout the country. Of faculties of letters and of science there are fifteen each, together with thirteen of law and seven of medicine. While these faculties have developed rapidly of late years and are in many respects extremely efficient, yet they suffer from the effects of their isolation and the resulting increasingly technical character of their work. It is true that, since 1885, the various faculties in an academy, or administrative district of the university, have worked more in harmony with each other, but the advantages are still lacking that would follow organizing groups of faculties into autonomous universities, similar to those of Germany, England and the United States. Therefore, in 1890, the government, M. Burgeois being minister of public instruction at the time, introduced a bill for the constitution of seven universities—one each at Paris, Lyons, Bordeaux, Montpellier, Toulouse, Lille and Nancy. The bill was carefully drawn and accompanied with an elaborate explanation and argument in its favor. But objection was promptly made, that if universities were to be established in the seven cities mentioned, other cities having two or more faculties should be similarly favored. Others opposed the plan because it seemed to them to tend toward decentralization. In March, 1892, an important debate on the bill took place in the French senate, with the result that the carrying out of the government's plan is postponed. The final outcome ought not to be uncertain, for organized universities have long since passed beyond the experimental stage, and France cannot afford to be permanently without them.

The project to establish a teaching university in London is interesting to Americans, because it shows that the tendency to develop universities at the great centers of population—a tendency very marked and very successful in this country—is not peculiar to us. For 300 years the establishment of a university in London has been discussed, but nothing has come of it all except the foundation of two colleges—University College and King's College—and a corpora-

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tion with examining and degree-conferring powers known as the University of London. In these institutions, and in the law schools of the Inns of Court, and the famous medical schools attached to the hospitals, the materials exist for a great teaching university. But to weld them all together appears to be a task of great difficulty. At all events, despite heroic efforts, it has not yet been accomplished, although many leaders of educational thought in England are still at work upon the problem. When it is accomplished, as I am assured on excellent authority that it will be before many years, London will be, like Berlin, Vienna, Paris and New York, a great center of population and of intellectual activity, with a noble university to represent and crown it all.

The relation of the universities to the study of education itself and to the preparation of teachers for the higher schools is a subject on which a volume might be written. Neglected far too long, the history, principles and practice of education have recently sprung into importance as subjects for university research and university teaching. Paulsen, at Berlin, carries from four to five hundred enthusiastic students with him every year as he expounds in systematic form the theory of education. Rein, at Jena, works with a devoted band of followers for the improvement of elementary and secondary instruction on Herbartian lines. Marion, at the Sorbonne, is setting an example for all France, and is able, by an arrangement with the Lycées, to provide his special students with opportunities for observation and practice teaching. Laurie, at Edinburgh, is exercising an influence for good that is felt throughout Great Britain, and his courses have recently been included in the list of those that may be counted for the degree. At Cambridge, while there is no permanent instructor in education, Quick, Fitch and Courthope Bowen have delivered lectures that, in published form, are well known on this side of the Atlantic. In addition to these leaders in the university study of education in Europe, provision, more or less ample, is made for the subject at Aberdeen and St. Andrews in Scotland, and the faculties of Bordeaux, Lyons and Toulouse in France, and at Bonn, Breslau, Giessen, Halle, Heidelberg, Leipzig, Strassburg and Tubingen in Germany.

Satisfactory as this state of affairs is, I can honestly say, that we have even better reason to be gratified with what has taken place at our own universities. Fifteen years ago the study of education was unknown at any of them, and propositions to establish courses in the subject were received with astonishment and usually called forth a sneer. To-day Columbia, Michigan, Clark, Harvard, Cornell, Stanford and California have strong and well-equipped departments of education, while lectures on the subject are given

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at a dozen other institutions. It is as necessary as it ever was to go abroad to extend one's academic acquaintance, and to gain an accurate knowledge of foreign methods of research and the stimulus that follows such knowledge; but it may be said with truth, that education in all its phases may be studied to-day as well in the United States as anywhere in the world. This fact has a deep significance for our future development. The systematic study of child-life, the careful tracing out of the educational results of the teachings of experimental and physiological psychology, the comparative study of educational systems and statistics, the weighing of educational values, and the relative efficiency of various types of school—all of which are being done in this country on a large scale —will give us a body of definite knowledge that will serve as the foundation for numberless practical reforms and improvements.

The gradual increase of the privileges allowed to women by the universities is one of the most striking events of the last few years. The newspapers chronicle some new intellectual triumph of woman almost weekly. Goettingen and Heidelberg have recently been added to the list (which already includes Zurich, Paris, Oxford, Cambridge, Edinburgh and St. Andrews) of those universities that offer women privileges of instruction and examination, either directly or indirectly. The movement to admit women to the universities began as a siege; it is ending as a rout. To prophesy is notoriously dangerous, but the signs of the times are very misleading if they do not point to the fact that within a decade or two this question will have passed into history.

From the consideration of facts such as I have cited, and from the survey of the world's position as to education at this moment, I think we cannot help seeing that substantially the same forces are at work everywhere. The environments are different, and therefore the results of the action of these forces assume somewhat different forms. But comparison quickly brings the common traits into view. It is noteworthy, too, that alike in Germany, France, Great Britain and America the difficult and disputed questions of education are being settled after study and discussion by those best informed and most interested, and not by edict, or by what Mr. Lowell calls "push of pike." Progress is based upon principle, and principles are drawn from facts. To collect these facts patiently and to interpret them wisely is the duty of him who would be a student of education.

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GERMAN METHODS OF USING THE MOTHER TONGUE.

BY RICHARD JONES, P.h. D., PROFESSOR OF ENGLISH LITERATURE, SWARTHMORE COLLEGE, PENNSYLVANIA.

One of the striking facts of these closing years of the nineteenth century is the extraordinary pre-eminence of Germany in the world of learning. In nearly every branch of knowledge the world's acknowledged authority is some German scholar. To a remarkable extent, the reason of which is not difficult to apprehend when one understands the conditions of success in German scholastic life, German scholars write the world's books; they write the books which are regarded as authorities throughout the civilized world, or upon which other books are based. Professor Bryce of Oxford has written of Germany as "the central country of Europe; the State which dominates continental politics; the nation which does the largest part of the intellectual work of the world." This is the nation of whose philosophy Gladstone of late said, that it "has in recent times largely dominated the thought of the world."

This is the reputation which German scholars have won, and which makes their contributions to the world's treasure-store of ideas worthy of study, and (after modifications to suit the different conditions of our American life) worthy, it may be, of adoption.

But have German scholars attacked this problem of the proper use and function of the mother tongue, the language and the literature, as an instrument in education? Yes, there has been, and there is now, great activity along this line of thought. The interest in the subject was heightened by the famous School Conference at Berlin in December, 1890, when the Emperor gave expression to the following sentiments: "The foundation of our Gymnasien must be German. It is our duty to educate young men to become young Germans, and not young Greeks and Romans. We must relinquish the basis which has been the rule for centuries, the old monastic education of the middle ages. These are no longer our standard. We must make German the basis, and German composition must be made the center around which everything else revolves."

The agencies for carrying on the discussion,* with which I have become to some extent familiar, are: (1) books; (2) magazines or periodicals, which are the recognized "organs" of the teachers of German

*For assistance in finding the best literature on the subject, I was greatly indebted to Herr Karl Rudert of the Royal Library at Dresden. His friendly assistance and kindly interest was more than the performance of his official duty; it was rather a graceful courtesy to a foreigner.

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literature; (3) the programs of the Gymnasien, which are our annual school report, or college catalogue, with the addition of a more or less scholarly contribution to some phase of educational thought by some member of the faculty of the Gymnasium.

Of the books, I need add nothing further, except a remark as to their number and general excellence. They are, as a rule, written by men who have the German love for thoroughness, and who have been trained to know what thorough work is. Educational buncombe is usually appreciated at its real value by German schoolmen.

The standard of the German periodicals devoted to the subject of instruction in German is creditably high. It is as though the "Educational Review," edited by the scholar to whose admirable address we have just listened, were devoted entirely to the subject of instruction in English. One of the best of these German publications is the magazine "Zum Deutschen Unterricht," published in Leipsic, and edited by Dr. Otto Lyon of Dresden, whom I had the pleasure of hearing on this subject of instruction in German, before an association of the schoolmen of Saxony. The breadth of thought and grasp of his subject manifested by the speaker gave me the highest respect for a body of schoolmen which could provide from its membership a speaker able to dignify and exalt his theme. I had the courage to ask this specialist—to whom I was first referred by the well-known Prussian School Commissioner, Dr. Münch, and of whose general recognition in Germany as one of the great authorities on this subject I was assured by the Minister of Education of the kingdom of Saxony—I had the courage to ask Dr. Lyon to prepare for some American magazine an article embodying his views as to the function of literature in education, which article I offered to translate into English, and I am happy to say that he kindly consented to do so. This article will doubtless embody his ripened thought as to character-building through literature, patriotism as cultivated by literature, the imagination and the mental faculties in general as developed by literature; and, for the upper classes, the proper limits of discussion in the class-room and the proper methods of presentation of such themes as the poet's view of God and of his relation to his creatures, the poet's view of Nature and of our relation to her, the poet's view of freedom and of fate—whether, indeed, "Man is man, and master of his fate," or "It is the stars, the stars above that govern our conditions;" in short, what sort of literature we shall choose for the various periods in education, and how shall we treat the literature chosen and what mental discipline may be derived therefrom.

Another publication is especially worthy of mention here, though not devoted exclusively to instruction in German, the "Annual Report on Higher Education," edited by Prof. Conrad Rethwisch of the

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Koenigl. Wilhelm Gymnasium of Berlin. This report gives a summary, written by a specialist, of the latest trend of thought in each subject of education, as Latin, Greek, mathematics, history, German, etc., with a list of the books and other publications which have appeared during the year. This annual report is a large volume of some 800 pages, and is in itself an eloquent testimonial to German interest in educational matters.

The third agency of discussion mentioned is the program, or annual catalogue. I have said that, included with the statistics of the Gymnasium there is a more or less scholarly discussion of some educational theme. It is not to be presumed that each one of the hundreds of programs which appear yearly contains a valuable contribution to the literature of education. And yet the existence of this opportunity for making known the results of scholarly work, together with the security of the tenure of office and the determining influence of a reputation for exact scholarship in securing promotion, are a unique stimulus to investigation. The scholarly German must investigate, and must publish his results, or he must perish. Did time allow me to enlarge upon this theme, I could illustrate the necesity, under which the worthily ambitious German scholar lives, for discovering new truth, for leading the new thought of the world; whereas, the success of English and American teachers depends, to a larger extent, upon personal qualities and social gifts, upon power in expounding and making attractive time-tried truths, the accumulated wisdom of the past.

Hence the activity of the printing press in Germany. Every man of influence is an author. When I had been in Germany but a short time and had not yet grasped the situation, I asked a young German professor whether he had as yet published any books. His reply was, "*Natürlich*," *i. e.*, "To be sure." He would not have been made professor otherwise. In a country where so many of the ablest men are, like the Athenians, continually prospecting for new truth, there is likely to be occasional discoveries of real ore.

Here is a volume (Klussmann—"Systematisches Verzeichnis der Abhandlungen," etc.) giving the titles of the publications of the schoolmen during the five years, from 1886 to 1890, inclusive. Here are given the titles of several thousand programs, on all sorts of subjects connected with education; on pedagogy and method, on philology, literature, history, mathematics, the sciences, philosophy, ethics, theology, art, etc. Under literature and language are mentioned dissertations on English, French, German, Greek, Latin, Hindoo, Celtic, Hebrew, Italian, Provenzal, Rätoromanisch, Lettoslavische, the various dialects of each, their history, and the like diversions of the German teacher's leisure hours. Yet, notwithstanding

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this mass of pedagogical material, one writer expresses the hope that his book on methods "will prove a life-preserver to the many young teachers who are thrown into the educational stream with the friendly advice: 'Now, swim!'" One can but wonder how much instruction in the art of swimming the thorough-going German would consider adequate prior to the young teacher's plunge into the stream of experience!

A similar catalogue is issued of the publications of the university men. Eye hath not seen, nor ear heard, nor hath it entered into the heart of man to conceive of the subject not therein set down, and thus made more difficult than ever to master, because some German university professor has been extending the known field of man's conquest into, what Carlyle called, "the circumambient realm of Nothingness and Night."

Of the programs of the schoolmen, here is one to which attaches a romantic sort of interest, inasmuch as it comes from Bingen on the Rhine:

A soldier of the legion lay dying in Algiers,
There was lack of woman's nursing, there was dearth of woman's tears;
But a comrade stood beside him, while his life-blood ebb'd away,
And bent, with pitying glances, to hear what he might say.
"Take a message and a token to some distant friends of mine,
For I was born at Bingen,—at Bingen on the Rhine."

* * * * * * * * * * * * * *

"I dream'd I stood with her and saw the yellow sunlight shine
On the vine-clad hills of Bingen,—fair Bingen on the Rhine."

At Bingen, *in* the Rhine, just beneath the magnificent national monument erected by the nation to celebrate the realization, in 1871, of that dream of ages (so long but a beautiful dream), national unity, stands the stone tower where, according to tradition, the deeds of the wicked Bishop Hatto returned upon the doer, as described in Southey's poem, "God's Judgment on a Wicked Bishop." After an unfruitful summer, Bishop Hatto invited the poor to his barn, filled with last year's store, and "burnt them all," women and children, old and young. But the rats in thousands attack him in his tower.

They have whetted their teeth against the stones,
And now they pick the bishop's bones;
They gnawed the flesh from every limb;
For they were sent to do judgment on him!

In this program we have this legend discussed in its historical, literary-historical and mythical aspects, with quotations from old Latin tomes (including what Tacitus has to say of Bingen on the Rhine), and a mass of footnotes substantiating the positions taken,

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and an attempt made to give a local habitation and a name to that which some may have looked upon as a mere play of the poet's fancy.

A clearer idea of what is accomplished in a German gymnasium will be given by confining ourselves largely to the curriculum of a single typical school, whose course of study in German is given in detail, rather than by "turning over many books together." Here is the program for 1887, of the Koenigl. Friedrichs Gymnasium of Cassel. The instruction in German extends throughout the nine years of the course of study. The average age of the lowest class, Feb. 1, 1887, was ten and one-sixth years; of the highest class, nineteen and one sixth years. In the Koenigl. Wilhelms Gymnasium of the same city, the average age of the lowest class, Feb. 1, 1892, was ten and one-half years; of the highest class, nineteen and seven-twelfths. In the Koenigl. Kath. Gymnasium of Cologne, Feb. 1, 1890, the same classes were eleven and one-half and twenty and one-half, respectively.

The students in the lowest class of the Koenigl. Friedrichs Gymnasium of Cassel recite in German three times per week; in all the grades between the lowest and the highest they recite in German twice a week, and in the highest class three times per week. The lowest class average age ten and one-sixth years, (they spent four years in the volkschule) have altogether thirty recitations per week, including drawing and gymnastics. Of these thirty recitations, nine are in Latin, four in mathematics, three in religious instruction, three in history and geography.

These ten-year-old boys study, under the subject of the mother tongue: (1) Spelling, including syllabication, the use of capital letters, etc. (2) Grammar, the parts of speech, declensions and conjugations in connection with Latin, and the simplest rules of syntax in connection with Latin. (3) Punctuation. (4) Reading. Here are given the names of twelve poems to be committed to memory during the year. Five of these are by Uhland, one by Schiller. Also, twenty two other poems to be read and thoroughly understood during the first year. There is here a recommendation that some of these also be committed to memory. There are also selections in prose to be read in connection with the other studies pursued: two selections in connection with history—the "Worship of the Gods by the Early Greeks" and "Orestes and Pylades," five selections in connection with science lessons; five selections in connection with geography; and eleven selections to be read in connection with botany.

We see at once the great advantage of a well-arranged plan for the reading. The course of study is thoroughly articulated. The reading is not haphazard and unconnected. With the history lessons are to be read selections from literature which elucidate the history

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and are elucidated by the history; and the exact title of these selections and the page in the reader where they are to be found is given in the course of study. This reading is for ten-year-old boys.

The German method of reading literature, according to a well-digested plan and in articulation with other subjects, may well serve as a model to us. I remember a severe arraignment of the colleges of New England, for their requirements in English, by a contributor to the "Educational Review," who said, in substance: "It may seem an extreme statement, but I believe that if English literature is well taught in any preparatory school it is likely to be in spite of, rather than because of, the college requirements. Those requirements encourage the total neglect of the historical development of literature. They foster disconnected reading. The selections have no necessary connection with each other. The lists prepared by the committee of the commission of New England colleges have no sequence or congruity."

This charge is certainly important, if true. As to its justification, I offer no opinion. But its publication in a magazine of such standing is a consideration that must at least give us pause.

At the annual meeting of the realschule men of Saxony last October, I heard the report of a committee appointed to prepare a course of reading in English literature for the English courses in the realschule. After the report was read, the chairman asked for the plan on which the selections were made, remarking that he was unable to see on what principle these particular selections were chosen. To German schoolmen, accustomed to a plan in the reading matter and an articulation of studies, it was not a satisfactory answer to say that all the selections suggested were masterpieces of English literature. There is a choice even between masterpieces, for their value in elucidating other subjects of the curriculum, and there is a choice in the order in which masterpieces may be read. The report was not adopted.

But returning to the course in German in the Cassel school, we find in quinta (the second year of the course; average age of pupils, eleven and five-twelfths years) eleven poems to be committed to memory, twenty others to be thoroughly studied, five prose selections illustrating Greek mythology and two illustrating Roman mythology to be read in connection with history, and twenty-one other selections to be read in connection with other subjects of the curriculum. In obertertia (fifth year of the course; average age, fifteen and one-half years) eight of the ten selections to be committed to memory are by Schiller, one by Uhland and one by Goethe. The Goethe selection is the "Erl Koenig."

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At the close of obertertia, or in five years from the time the pupil entered, he has committed to memory 59 poems, has read thoroughly 83 others poems and 115 prose selections. Of these prose selections, some are by the great historians Mommsen, Ranke and Curtius. Others are by Freytag, Schiller, Goethe, and other writers of established reputation. And the reading has not been fragmentary and disconnected, but arranged according to a well-digested plan. For example, a portion of the prose reading in history in quarta (third year students; average age, twelve and three-fourths years) is the "Battle of Marathon," "The Athenian Assembly," "The Building of the Acropolis at Athens," "An Athenian Gymnasium," etc.

In obersekunda (the third year before graduation; average age, seventeen and one-half years) several of Goethe's poems are committed to memory, as well as some portions of his dramas which are read. The reading for this year is: Goethe's "Hermann and Dorothea," "Goetz von Berlichingen" and "Egmont;" Herder's "Der Cid" and Schiller's "Maid of Orleans."

There still remain two years of the course. In the first of these two years, portions of the early German literature are read: selections from the "Niebelungenlied," "Gudrun," "Parzival," some songs of Walter von der Vogelweide, selections from Luther, Hans Sachs, Fischart, Opitz, Fleming, Haller, Klopstock ("Odes" and a portion of the "Messias"), Lessing's "Minna von Barnhelm," and a portion of the "Laokoön" and the "Hamburg Dramaturgie," Schiller's "Bride of Messina" and "Wallenstein." The portions of the above to be committed to memory are indicated.

During the last year, Goethe and Schiller are read and the history of German literature is studied, especial emphasis being placed upon the great names.

I cannot now enter upon the large field of discussion among German schoolmen, as to how Goethe and Schiller and literature in general should be read, and to what extent the teacher of literature should be also a teacher of philosophy. I have heard in German class-rooms elaborate expositions of philosophical systems, given by professors of literature on the ground that certain philosophical conceptions are fundamental to a proper understanding of great literature. If these expositions of philosophical themes are fairly understood by the pupils, there can be no doubt that literature is richer in content to them in consequence thereof. And even if not fully comprehended by young men from nineteen to twenty years of age, these outlines of philosophical thought, these glimpses into the realm of great ideas, must prove suggestive and stimulating.

I was especially interested in a recitation conducted by Dr. H. Unbescheid of the annenrealschule of Dresden, whose book "Beitrag

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zur Behandlung der Dramatischen Lektüre" ("A Contribution to the Treatment of Dramatic Literature") obtained for him the degree of doctor of philosophy from the University of Leipsic without an examination, an honor as well deserved as it is rare. The recitation in question, an excellent one in every respect, was particularly valuable because, in addition to the admirable presentation of new subject-matter by the instructor, there was enough of recitation by the pupils to enable the visitor to judge to what extent they had assimilated the previous instruction given them as to the structure of the drama, its laws and its nature.

There is thus given in many schools, in connection with the literature in the latter part of the course, an introduction to philosophy to give the student some idea of the philosophical conceptions necessary for the understanding of great poetry. Other schools begin in untersekunda (or four years before graduation) a course of (1) a general view of the history of German literature, (2) chronological readings of great poems in translation, beginning with the "Iliad" and the "Odyssey" and closing with the masterpieces of modern literature. But the course I have given from the Cassel curriculum may be regarded as a fair average course.

Surely the course here outlined ought to give a boy a fair introduction to German literature. The course is well planned to include portions of all the great writers of Germany, and a fair amount is read. And the work is not optional. This is the course in German of a school which devotes seventy-seven periods to Latin for every twenty-one to German. It gives forty periods to Greek, thirty-four to mathametics, twenty-eight to history and geography combined, and twenty-one to French. Latin, Greek, mathematics, history and geography, each fill more periods during the nine year's course than does German. If the work done in every department is in proportion to the periods given to it, recalling the great amount of work accomplished in the twenty-one periods given to German, we may well believe the cry of "overpressure" abundantly justified. But however that may be, the important fact is that these masterpieces are read, and read according to a plan, the fundamental principle of which is concentration and articulation; and, furthermore, that in Germany it is an educational axiom that every recitation in every subject is a recitation in German.

The directions in connection with the course of study suggest that, in spelling, ten new words each day is sufficient, and that five to ten minutes will suffice for the recitation, The purpose of instruction in grammar is, to quicken the language sense of the pupil so that he will unconsciously choose the right form of expression, and yet he must not be satisfied with a mere mechanical distinction of true from

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false, but must know the reason why. This instruction in German grammar begins in the lowest class; but less stress is laid upon rules in sexta and quinta, the two lowest classes. In quarta and tertia (average age from twelve and three-fourths to fifteen and one-half years) syntax in its essentials is systematically taught, but though instruction in grammar proper closes with tertia (average age fifteen and one-half years), yet, as opportunity offers in the reading, references are made to peculiarities of grammatical construction.

An important part of the instruction in the use of the mother tongue is composition work and essay writing. The purpose of the essay is to educate the pupils in a well-ordered, correct, clear, appropriate exposition of worthy thoughts lying within the field of their intellectual vision and the circle of their experience. The principle governs, then, in every grade, that the subject-matter of the essay shall be drawn from the subject-matter of instruction given in that grade. This principle determines for every grade the choice of theme. Just as articulation of studies and concentration—the key-note of the German curriculum—determines the choice of reading matter for every grade, so they determine also the subject of the composition work for that grade.

In the lower grades there is much writing from dictation, to give the pupil practice in punctuation, the use of capital letters, and in spelling. Or the pupil writes from memory matter that he has read. In the lower grades, accuracy of expression is the chief end in view; in the higher grades, logical arrangement and rhetorical excellencies are emphasized. It is recognized that there cannot be clear writing without clear thinking, and that just as every instructor in every subject is an instructor in German, so every instructor deserves his share of praise or blame for excellency or deficiency in the composition class. An essay is required of every pupil, the period varying in different schools from once a week to once a month.

Subjects for essays are often suggested in the course of study. Themes connected with literature seem to be favorites. Among the subjects proposed for the upper class in a 1892 program we find "Max Piccolomini's relations to Octavio," "The National Importance of Lessing's 'Minna von Barnhelm,'" "What are the Acts in the Philoktet of Sophocles, and to What Extent do They Correspond to the Laws of the Drama." Of twenty subjects suggested for sekunda in this program, fourteen are literary themes. Here is a program published in 1892, containing seven essays intended as models for the students of the upper class. One of these discusses "Hamlet," and all treat of literary themes. In speaking of the correction of essays, one writer, in the spirit of Portia's thought, that "the quality of mercy is not strained," suggests that the pupil's essay, when returned to

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him, ought not, if it can be avoided, to be so marked over with corrections in red ink that it resembles nothing so much as a blood-stained battlefield.

As to the importance in education of the composition work, President Eliot of Harvard University, in expressing to the students of Smith College his own conviction, that "the great object of all education is to learn how to speak and write well the mother tongue," is in harmony with the latest educational thought of Germany—a thought expressed at the Berlin School Conference of 1890 by Emperor William in the statement that "German composition must be made the center around which everything else revolves."

Ladies and gentlemen, one of the admirable methods of using the mother tongue in the public schools of Germany is to put it into the mouth of a strong, vigorous teacher, who is a man. I believe there is a distinct gain all along the line, in character and in behavior, when the discipline is of that firm and masculine sort which gives so wholesome a tone to some of the schools of Germany.

In one of the admirable reports of our Commissioner of Education he refers to the fortunate lack of necessity in the German schools for frittering away the strength of the teacher in discipline, and he attributes this, rightly, I have no doubt, to the difference between the character of the German and the American boy. But this difference in character is partly due to the fact that in Germany the word of command is given by men—by strong, vigorous, masculine men. More men of the right sort in our public schools would render easier the work of the high-minded women, who are now endeavoring by pure strength of will and expenditure of nerve force to maintain a respectable standard of discipline in communities which do not really desire real discipline, where noble women literally wear their lives out on this vexed matter of discipline. Whereas in German schools, there is, apparently, no discipline. Discipline is not needed, *i. e.*, especial cases of discipline. The tone of the school-room is a continual discipline. One feels there that it would be impossible for the purpose of the school to be antagonized and the thoughts of teacher and pupils diverted from the proper work of the school because a single restless boy, with abounding vitality, has not been taught self-control. It would be the salvation of many an American boy to put him under wholesome influences of this kind. There is a moral training in moving about among boys accustomed to military discipline, accustomed to a formal and visible, to an (in our eyes) exaggerated courtesy to the teacher in charge, accustomed to obey at once and without question every requirement of the school life. Not that every male teacher in Germany meets this high ideal, but many of them do. Many Americans whose children have attended

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the schools of Germany sigh on their return for the same rigorous, bracing and wholesome school atmosphere, for the equivalent of this German use of the mother tongue as a word of command in the mouths of forceful men.

But to return to the German use of the mother tongue, as exemplified in the reading book, by means of which we are told a knowledge of the language and a readiness in its use is developed. At the same time, this serves to enlarge the culture of the pupils, to develop their understanding, imagination and emotions, and to fill their hearts with love, admiration and appreciation for the great heroes of German literature, and to awaken in them a sound national feeling.

In England there is, as is well known, a strong sentiment that literature cannot be taught. Indeed, a young don of Christ Church College, Oxford, is credited with making recently the unanswerable argument: "Literature cannot be taught. I know, because I have tried it!" In a conversation with the distinguished historian, Edward A. Freeman, shortly before his death, he said to me: "Appreciation of literature is a matter of taste, and taste cannot be taught." He was, therefore, strongly opposed to the establishment of a chair of English literature at Oxford, an opposition which at the time was successful, though within a few months a proposition to establish a school of literature in the University of Oxford has been carried through one of the stages necessary. But in Germany other views prevail. Goethe said:

> Denn bie den alten lieben Todten
> Braucht man Erklaerung, will man Noten;
> Die Neuen glaubt man blank zu verstehen,
> Doch ohne Dolmetsch wird's auch nicht gehen.

The view of Goethe as to the necessity of interpreting the thought of modern masters, as well as that of the "Lieben Todten," is accepted in Germany, and we find in German universities lectures on the poetry of Tennyson and the prose of Carlyle, and a different conception in general of the function of literature. There is in Germany a heartier acceptance of literature as a teacher of righteousness, a guide to conduct. Hence we find patriotism taught by means of poetry, and love for fatherland expressly stated as the goal of instruction in the mother tongue. In a course of study for the kingdom of Saxony, we find these high words: "In making choice of these selections for youth, the guiding principle has been that the literature read serves, not alone for enriching the understanding but even more for awakening the imagination, for developing the love for nature and a sense of the beautiful, for strengthening religious feelings, the

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moral character and a love for fatherland; in short, to make the soul of youth susceptible to all that is good and beautiful, and to fill it with enduring enthusiasm for the ideal view of life.

Such views of the function of literature, entertained by a people distinguished for love of order and system, have produced a well-planned, thoroughly digested method of teaching their own language and literature; the teaching of the mother tongue being so co-ordinated and articulated with the remaining branches of the school curriculum, that the literature receives help from each and gives help to all. Such a method we have not yet elaborated for our own English literature, such a method for the teaching of English we ought to have, and such a method we will have.

DISCUSSION.

HON. W. T. HARRIS, United States Commissioner of Education.—I esteem it a great pleasure to listen to the two papers of this evening. They lift the veil of distance and widen our horizon, so that we look across the ocean and see what is going on in education on the other side. Nothing is more conductive to the culture of teachers than this particular study of education and of the trend of nations, and of the methods in which they secure their national success. These papers to which we have listened are admirable. I will, however, not rehearse the main points of these papers, but will insert an interrogation point in one place or another, with regard to minor questions, in reference to which there may be differences of opinion.

I would ask a question, for instance, in regard to the trend of religious education. Dr. Butler has made a very interesting suggestion in this matter. My notion, however, had been that the trend of modern religious movement was towards the separation of the Church from the State, and of all religious education from the people's schools. If there is a reaction in favor of the introduction of religious education into the common schools, I cannot think that it is a permanent movement. To me, it seems necessary that the separation should be complete, especially for the benefit of the Church itself. When the Church is assisted by the State, it rapidly develops perfunctory worship and hypocritical profession of faith. We in this country believe that freedom in religious profession is essential to perfect religious experience. It seems to me, too, that the school system of England is gradually moving towards a separation of the schools from the control of the Church, and that within a few years we shall have the ratio reversed: instead of forty per cent for board schools and sixty per cent for parochial schools, we shall have sixty per cent for board schools.

Passing over the excellent and instructive remarks of Mr. Jones, I would place an interrogation point opposite his utterance regarding the efficiency of women teachers in the matter of school discipline. In my experience, I have found that women are usually better disciplinarians than male teachers. With a comparatively large number of male teachers in St. Louis before 1860, the amount of corporal punishment was very large. After the graded school building, modeled after

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the Quincy School in Boston, had been adopted, and the number of women teachers largely increased, the discipline of the school improved, and corporal punishment itself continued to diminish, until, after ten years, it was found that only five per cent as much corporal punishment existed as before. Women in charge of children are found to have a superior gift for securing discipline by mild means. That eminent woman, Helen Shafer, lately president of Wellesley College, could get better work from the pupils of the St. Louis High School, and secure better behavior and the development of a more earnest character from them, than the male teachers, although some of the latter were excellent disciplinarians. I do not mean to say that women can do all the work of teaching better than the men; but in this matter of discipline I think that they are superior, in that they can hold pupils to their work and secure ladylike and gentlemanly behavior with what seems to be a less expenditure of strength.

I have only applause to offer for what Professor Jones said regarding the way in which the Germans manage instruction in literature. It is good and right that they regard literature as the fundamental branch in education.

COLONEL PARKER, Principal Cook County Normal School.—I was glad to hear a gentleman speak to-night in regard to the German method of teaching the mother tongue, but I want to say just two or three things. They give us the best psychology, the best pedagogics, the best plans. We get the science of education better from Germany than from any other country in the world, but there are some things we do not get. We do not get common schools from Germany. We do not get co-education from Germany, and there is no education possible for free men without co-education; and we do not get the recognition of women equal to men as we must have in the progress of this country. We do not get another thing. No child in Germany is taught to believe that he can find eternal truth himself, for the way is barred by an aristocratic government, and the form of their government goes into the German schools. They have better schools in discipline and teaching than we have to-day, but their system is not so good. The common school was born of democracy, cultured and supported by democracy, and all its future is founded upon the growth of democracy.

THE RELATION OF THE KINDERGARTEN TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM.

BY JAMES L. HUGHES, INSPECTOR OF SCHOOLS, TORONTO, ONTARIO.

My chief object in suggesting this subject for discussion was to urge that we should not continue to use the words "kindergarten" and "school" as if they referred to distinct, or distantly related, institutions. In its broadest, truest sense, the public school should include whatever is best for the fullest development of the desirable elements of human power and character. The State has no right to assume the duty of giving an education unless it provides the best possible training and culture for its children. It is unjust to parents and children to do so, and it is contrary to the highest interests of

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the State itself. It is not fair that some children should receive better treatment from the State than others. If the kindergarten be truly the most stimulating educational process at a certain period of a child's development, then all children are entitled to its advantages. The kindergarten should not be an appendage to the public school system for a favored part of the school population. It should be a part of the school system; its foundation; its initial stage, in which all children should remain for a period, the length of which should be decided in each individual case by the heredity, the history, the temperament, the mental activity and the nervous system of each individual child. Children whose physical and mental conditions are normal do not require to stay in the kindergarten as long as those whose health is delicate, or whose mental organizations are too dull or too active. The slow boy should remain longer than the average term in the kindergarten, that his senses may be quickened and his reflective powers stimulated by the conscious expression of his own thought in the arrangement or the transformation of material things into new and definitely related forms. The abnormally bright child should have a prolonged kindergarten experience in order that its over-activity may be restrained, its nervous system soothed, and its physical organization raised to the standard of its mental energy by the happy spirit, the interested, applied activity, the satisfying productiveness, and the healthful games of the kindergarten. There are few who now doubt that the processes of learning reading, writing, spelling, number, etc., by set lessons, weaken interest and prevent full and general cerebral growth, when forced on children too soon. Even the formal study of nature, in its most attractive phases, as conducted by the best "object systems," fails to promote cerebral growth satisfactorily, when knowledge of the object studied is the aim of the lesson and when the work of the pupil is confined to receptivity and reflection in response to the teacher's suggestion. The child, before it goes to school, does not study things that it may learn about them; it uses things that it may accomplish its own purposes with them. It learns very rapidly, but its learning results from the attempts it makes to execute its individual plans, as it aims to represent its mental conceptions with material things.

The true sequence in intellectual growth is, reception, reflection and execution. The first two are of little use without the third, and the third is the only sure means for the fullest culture of the others. Educators have been slow to reach the highest step in this complete sequence. In the evolution of the true ideal, children have been taught and trained according to six educational standards. There have been two stages—a passive and active stage—in each step in

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the sequence of receptivity, reflection and execution, making, in all, six stages in the upward movement of educational thought. Those whose memories go back thirty years can recall these six stages. Passive receptivity received knowledge from the teacher; in active receptivity, the pupils were trained to be investigative. Passive reflection allowed the pupils to obtain thought from the teacher; active reflection trained pupils to think independently. There is a vital distinction between thinking and "allowing the thoughts of others to run through our minds;" between thinking, and thinking we are thinking. There is even more difference, however, between the active and passive stages in the highest step in this educational sequence than in the preceding steps. The higher the educational process, the weaker does passivity become when compared with activity. Self-activity does not mean merely physical activity on the part of the pupil, stimulated by the teacher's mind acting through the pupil's mind. The pupil's mind cannot reach its best development as long as it remains a passive instrument for receiving stimulus from another mind and transmitting it to the body for execution. The mind of the child should be independently active. Its physical efforts must result from its own motor stimulus before complete cerebral development takes place. Action in response to the child's own will is the highest agency in mind growth. The action of the child's will may begin with unconscious imitation, but even the action resulting from unconscious imitation is much more productive of individual growth than action in obedience to the direct suggestion or command of another person. The kindergarten is the only educational system that fully recognizes this fact, and the equally important related fact, that the child should perform this complete educational process from the beginning of its educational course. The kindergarten rejects passivity, but recognizes unconscious growth of the mind, as it does unconscious growth of the body. The kindergarten is based on active receptivity, active reflection, and active execution by the child; and, most important of all, intellectually, it makes active or independent execution of original purposes by the child the foundation of the definite growth of its receptive and reflective powers. It is especially important, therefore, that during the period of greatest possible brain enlargement the child should use material things, not as mere objects of study, even by independent investigation, but as agencies for defining by varied related sense-experiences the multitude of indefinite perceptions of infancy, and for the visible representation of its clearer conceptions in response to its own motor impulses. It is only when the motor impulses are executed that complete cerebral growth takes place and a brain of practical value is developed. It is intel-

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ligent, independent, conscious effort, following the somewhat instinctive efforts of infancy, that enlarges the cerebral centers, defines their powers, and prepares them for ready and effective work in future years. If the whole of the brain is to be developed, the opportunities for activity must be as varied as are the powers of the mind. This intelligent, independent, conscious self-activity, in response to self-guiding motives, in properly differentiated lines of work, is stimulated in the kindergarten by providing material adapted to the manifold operations suggested to the minds of varied types of children by their artistic, representative, reproductive and constructive talents, and by many appropriate games which call into vigorous exercise the child's receptive, reflective and executive powers and develop its social relationships.

No other school process yet discovered accomplishes these purposes so naturally and so thoroughly as the kindergarten.

No other system so effectively bridges over the chasm between the home and the school, by a union of the conscious concentration of the school with the freedom of the home.

No other system lays so broad and true a basis for independent or assisted growth.

No other system promotes the physical health of children so fully, by providing attractive material and interesting plans for happy self-activity and soul satisfying self-expression.

No other system enlarges the wonder-power of childhood, which Gradgrind's ideal schoolmaster, McChoakumchild, promised to destroy so effectively, but which should develop in every child, day by day, a more aggressive spirit of investigation; first, into the mysteries of the material world, and ultimately into the realms of intellect and spirit.

No other system preserves the spontaneity of childhood and defines individuality so completely; no other system cultivates the social instincts so thoroughly and widens individuality into organized co-operation so effectively as the kindergarten.

Therefore every child is entitled to its advantages. Both justice and wisdom demand that the public schools shall include the kindergarten as one of the agencies in the education of the whole people, so long as kindergarten processes are the best known means for increasing the power and accuracy of sense impressions, for defining and enlarging the reflective powers, for revealing individual responsibility and social relationships, for making the child creatively productive and for helping it to be self-educative, self-expressive, self-repressive, self-progressive, self-directing and self-executive. Every child has an inalienable right to the best in education. Free kindergartens in poor districts are not enough. Public school kindergar-

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tens in poor districts are not sufficient. The same power in the kindergarten training that, in the poorer districts of a city, helps to overcome the evils of poverty, the lack of home training, bad heredity and evil example, and transforms the little Arab into a good citizen, self-respecting and co-operative, will lift the child of any class higher and help it to become a greater power for good. Children are usually quite as much neglected in the homes of the wealthy as in the homes of the poor. Too often the child of the rich is robbed of the greatest agency in human development, mother love, far more than the child of the alley. If the kindergarten supplies the proper means for the natural growth of body, mind and spirit power, every child needs its culture. Defective children should remain in the kindergarten department for years, but all children should have a kindergarten training; especially those who have spent their infancy in cities or towns, and who have never had the physical, mental and moral growth that comes from free contact with the manifold forms of life and beauty in God's great school of nature. Mrs. Browning, the greatest of women, typified, in "Aurora Leigh," her "grandest ideal of art and life." In revealing the processes of soul growth by which Aurora Leigh became conscious of individual power and responsibility, she makes one of the most important of all her educational influences the life she led in early years, "shut up with God among his mountains," with the father who loved her so tenderly that he scarcely dared to stroke her curls lest he might destroy their golden light. This was the source of her insight into higher, noble things. This gave her a love of liberty that widened into a consciousness of individual freedom, and a sense of duty so strong that she refused to marry Romney Leigh, pure and true and cultured though she knew him to be, and filled with lofty purposes though he was, because he assumed that woman's individuality must be sacrificed in marriage, and subordinated to her husband's ideal. It did more. It gave her a clear insight into her greatest power—and that is the mightiest element in the uplifting of human character. She was clear and true, and dared to "live her soul straight out;" and so God spoke to her through every leaf and flower, and stone and bird, and by the rolling sea, and the golden sunset. God speaks little to those who do not hear; or hearing, fail to do. How much the child learns straight from God in early years! How rapidly it gains in mind and soul and power, if it lives a loving life mid nature's myriad delights! How it learns! How the school has continued to reverse nature's processes! In nature's school, the child finds its own problems, and solves most of them unaided. It lives a life of productive self-expression. When it goes to school, the teacher finds all its problems, and brings them to it, or drives

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it to them. Its self-expression ceases, and it is forced to try to express and execute the idea of the teacher. Thus the power of problem recognition, that should have grown to be its greatest mental and spiritual power, becomes dwarfed through inactivity, and the child's intense interest in fresh knowledge is lost, because it is not allowed to seek it independently, and because the teacher's problems are suggested by an adult mind, and are, therefore, inevitably unsuited to the mind of the child.

The kindergarten was designed by Froebel to continue the same involuntary attention and to develop the same individuality in problem-recognition and the same self-expression which the child enjoyed in nature's school, where it was happy and developed rapidly and definitely. The kindergarten is, therefore, an essential basis for the school, because it continues the productive, self-developing processes of natural growth, and is not merely an agency for mind-storing, but for strengthening the aspiring powers of humanity.

It may be objected, that school boards are too ignorant regarding the true ideals of education to be trusted with the management of the kindergarten. It is unfortunately true that very few members of school boards yet understand kindergarten aims or methods; but granting this, I still maintain that school boards can do most to propagate kindergarten principles. They have control of money, and can, therefore, provide the best kindergartners, and the finest kindergarten rooms, equipped with the most convenient appliances and supplied with all necessary materials for the work of the children. They have, or should have, the wisest and best trained men and women as superintendents and principals and directresses, and the training of the race should be guided by the ablest men and women in any department of the teaching profession. It is gratifying to know, that most superintendents have now grown wise enough to know that they should not at once set to work to modify the kindergarten to their own notions.

We must not intrust the kindergarten to private enterprise alone. The supervision in private kindergartens is weaker than in public schools, with very few exceptions. There will always be plenty of room for private enterprise before the school age has been reached. There is a great field for individual effort in the reformation of the processes of training and growth before children go to school. All such effort will be of benefit to the school. It is a hopeful sign that wealthy people are becoming wise enough to try to obtain trained kindergartners for governesses. They will soon learn that the social natures of children need culture under improved conditions, and small groups of families will engage kindergartners to direct the growth of their children during their most susceptible period, a time

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when they are now usually neglected or subjected to conditions that dwarf or misdirect their energies.

It has been said that no organic union is possible between the public school and the kindergarten, because the school is not ready for the union. "You cannot weld two pieces of iron so long as one of them is cold," is the objection. The public school may be cold and formal; too often it is so. The remedy is to make the school as warm as the kindergarten. Unity of purpose will soon bring unity of plan, and revelation of truth in process. What a revolution has been effected during the last ten years in the ideals and methods of the schools through the better comprehension of kindergarten principles! In order to make the organic union perfect, primary teachers should be trained in kindergarten principles and processes at the normal schools. School men and women have learned more than they are conscious of from the kindergarten. At first they learned in many cases resistingly, now they are nearly all sympathetic. They have learned to study the child—a very modern study; to respect the child's individuality, and recognize spontaneity without surrendering control; to know that enlarging and defining power is the best work of the school; and that the amount of remembered knowledge cannot be a true test of human growth in mental power; and to value play as an agency of great educative influence, physically, intellectually and morally. Some teachers even yet think that the advocates of play as a valuable means of education mean that play should become a substitute for work; while others fear that the child who has been trained to play will never like to work. Both classes are wrong. Richter gave the philosophical answer to such objections when he said: "To teach by play is not to spare the child exertion or to relieve him of it, but to awaken in him a passion which forces on him and renders easy the strongest effort." Play is the work of childhood. It is the greatest agent in co-ordinating the different energies of the brain. It develops a tendency to work, and cultivates in the energetic player the physical force and the characteristic aggressive spirit that enjoys work and accomplishes mighty deeds.

But perhaps the best lessons the schools have learned from the kindergartens are those connected with the discipline and management of children; that love is the strongest stimulus and the greatest controlling force in the world; that coercive and autocratic discipline necessarily dwarfs character; that obedience should not involve subserviency; that all discipline is evil that checks spontaneity and prevents the freest development of the spirit of individual liberty as the foundation of personal responsibility and responsive co-operation.

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DISCUSSION.

PRINCIPAL J. M. GREEN, State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.—I have been very much pleased with certain expressions in the paper, to the effect that the kindergarten should not be thought of as separate from the public school system. In our section of the country there has been the notion that the kindergarten was something entirely distinct from the public school system, known as such; and we have had persons who wished to become kindergarten teachers who sought a short course (one which did not prepare for any broad conception of education, but simply trained to go through certain mechanical forms, which were termed kindergarten); and we have had schools for the preparation of kindergartners, which schools did not teach psychology, or any study of child life, or the principles of teaching, other than a mere incidental explanation of the use of certain gifts, games, etc., which, unrelated to the subsequent phases of education, practically meant nothing. I have thought that it was unfortunate that we discussed "kindergarten." I would very much prefer the subject "Education in Its Early Stages." We would then be more likely to keep the plan secondary and subject to constant adaption to the child, rather than letting the plan become primary and sacrificing the child to it.

I would like, also, to have brought into the discussion the question: What means might be taken to extend the kindergarten idea without additional cost? For instance: we have now the conception that in the kindergarten we must have freedom of movement, aided by chairs and tables and liberal opportunities for work. But at the end of the year we must have every desk screwed to the floor, and every chair screwed to the floor by the side of it, and the pupils seated in stereotyped forms. The entire *modus operandi* of conducting the school is changed when a child passes from the age of five to the age of six, or from the kindergarten to the primary. This should not be. I can conceive of no corresponding change in the child. It seems to me that the idea must be one of continuous development, the one stage passing into the other as one year passes into another, with no other sign, perhaps, than the celebration of a birthday. It seems to me that if kindergartners would not lay so much stress on the form, and show us how the principle is to be developed in the modes of instruction in all departments, it would give greater impetus to this idea. I like the notion of a continuous development in education.

SUPT. A. W. RANKIN, West Superior, Wis.—I have the good fortune to live in a city which has no precedents to trouble its school system. The school buildings from the beginning have been provided with kindergarten rooms. The sunniest rooms in the buildings have been set apart for the little ones. The development of kindergartens as a part of our school system has thus kept pace with other departments, and the expense of creating a department wholly new has not been felt.

Wisconsin, too, by law, allows children to enter school at four years of age. I consider this a very important point. Where States do not allow pupils to be admitted legally to school until the age of six it would be quite impossible to overcome the prejudices of the people, because of the extra expense. The first step to be taken by those of us who believe in kindergartens is to secure laws making the school age of children begin at four.

A common objection to kindergartens is that the pupils are not kept in school more than three hours per day. Parents who wish their children looked after, and

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people who believe the longer the hours the more the advancement, object to this shortened period. A better understanding of child-culture will do away with this objection.

Another objection is based upon the fact that only a small number of pupils can be taken in charge by one kindergartner. The greatest good to our school system is going to come because we can establish the fact that no man or woman is able to instruct in kindergarten work over twenty or twenty-five pupils, and we can by the same reasoning demonstrate that our primary rooms are overcrowded.

Another question is in regard to the transition between kindergartens and primary schools. The difficulty of such transition exists largely in the imagination. There is no abruptness necessary in this transition. The primary room is right across the hall from the kindergarten, and the teachers in the two departments study each other's work. The primary teacher knows what has been done in the kindergarten, and is able to carry on the work in her own way. The material, or apparatus, of instruction differs. The methods of instruction, the fundamental principles of teaching, remain the same. I do not believe it advisable to modify kindergartens by the adoption of primary material. I believe in getting the very best that can be gotten out of the kindergarten for two years, and have it a good, straight, orthodox kindergarten, and then let the transition be made by the adaptation from the primary side to the kindergarten. The time will soon come when kindergartens will be a part of the school system. When primary schools were first started they were not considered a part of the public school system. Philanthropists had to provide primary instruction, and it was not considered the duty of the State to do it. Now we must reach down to take the children at four. Children from cultured homes will be helped by mingling with their fellows in the public kindergartens. The morality of the school will be helped, the discipline will be improved, and the spirit of the whole school system made better.

SUPT. WILLIAM L. BARRINGER, Newark, N. J.—I have listened with very great satisfaction to this very able paper and to the remarks made by the gentlemen in opening this discussion. I am not at all alarmed as to whether the desks are screwed fast to the floor or whether we use tables or chairs to conduct our work. The only question I wish to note is this: "Is this kindergarten method of work right?" I think that it is. If it be right, then it is the method that should be adopted. Desks and tables and chairs may be put where they are needed. I believe the revolution we are seeking in our whole educational economy must and will come through the kindergarten work. I believe the true place to begin our reformation is, not at the top, but at the foundation. I have, however, a great concern for the children. I believe that the salvation of the world, the salvation of education, the salvation of all this onward and upward progress that we are now seeking, will come through the children, and I believe that the kindergarten method is the true method. I have been very much troubled to understand why it is that the laboratory method, which is a kindergarten method, should have such a call-down when we enter into the primary and through the grammar and secondary schools till we reach the university, where we go back again into the laboratory. The child begins in the laboratory, and touches nature and gets his ideas for himself. I want to see that method of teaching go on through the primary grades, and so on through the full course.

I do not believe it worth while to make so many divisions. We have so many departments, so many grades, so many standards, that the child does not know much of the time where he is. The education of humanity is a unit with me. I see the child; I look at him as a growing product with the powers and forces that God put in him, and he must be educated along those lines. When we find that

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our desks are in the way we will remove them and make everything right and ready for the child in the midst of his child nature, his child powers, his God-given mission here in this world. We will give him a chance to grow up into that kind of a man or woman that I believe God intended that he or she should grow into, and which I believe the present effort along the line of kindergarten work will bring about.

SUPT. J M. GREENWOOD, Kansas City.—It is remarkable that in this country we have pushed the kindergarten work beyond the conception entertained in Germany at present. The fruitful seeds there sown have bloomed upon this continent. When we look at the kindergarten work, from the time it was started in St. Louis by Dr. Harris twenty or twenty-five years ago, and have watched its development as it has gone east and west and north and south, it presents to those engaged in educational work a phenomenon that is exceedingly interesting. The wave started in one locality continues to extend and to spread itself and then return again.

Kindergarten work is especially adapted to all children, in my opinion, but it is particularly adapted to those children where the mothers have to go out from home and cannot take care of them, as we find it in some of our large cities. Again, there are families who have become suddenly rich, persons of strong will power, but not all of them with a great deal of intellectual culture, and rather inclined to let servants take care of their children. The children who have descended from these parents are children of strong impulses. Many of them in the cities, when put into private schools, are ruined, and when put into public schools they are the most troublesome members. If we can take those headstrong, self-willed children and put them into the kindergarten, they will be saved in most cases. Education must save at the top, as well as at the bottom.

SUPERINTENDENT DUTTON, Brookline, Mass.—I am sorry that those of us from New England cannot report kindergartens established in a large number of places, but it is worth noticing that in the few places in New England where the kindergarten has been started successfully, it has been done, not in the first instance by school boards, but by the enterprise and interest of the intelligent women; the mothers, as a rule.

In the two places where I have labored, New Haven, Conn., and Brookline, this is true. The same good woman, Mrs. Shaw, started the kindergartens at Boston and in Brookline. Kindergartens in New Haven were started in a modest way at a meeting held at the residence of the late President Woolsey, by a few women who felt the need of this work. I wish to suggest to many, who I know are anxious to begin in their own communities, that the natural course is, not to try to reach the school board, but simply to let the intelligent mothers open a kindergarten, and make it an example and an object lesson to the entire community. I think I may say that in every instance in New England the kindergartens have been started in this way.

In regard to what has just been said, it does not seem to me that we need to be afraid that the children are to lose anything by being taken an hour from their mothers. Mr. Greenwood did not hear the suggestion by Mr. Hughes that the children are often very much neglected in the wealthy homes, as well as in the homes of the poor. The fact is that the kindergarten is coming to be the means of teaching the mothers how to take care of their children. The kindergarten will coordinate the home and the school. Mr. Hailmann made it thoroughly clear last week in Boston that one function of the kindergarten is to unite the home and the State in an ideal way. I think it is through the kindergarten that mothers are to be educated to the true idea of what child culture is. When the mother and the teacher sit down together and study the child, and work for the child, and follow him step by step, then we shall have, it seems to me, the ideal school.

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I cannot add to what has been said about the kindergarten. I agree with it all. There is one supreme fact, however, that I have not heard mentioned, and that is this: when the child passes from a good kindergarten into the primary school, he carries with him something that he never will get in any other way, so far as I know. He is a different child from what he would have been without that training. He will be a different pupil, a different student all through his school life. I believe he will be a different man. He carries with him an atmosphere. That atmosphere is felt by the teacher, though she may never have been in a kindergarten. The kind of power which the kindergarten gives is recognized by teachers all the way through the school. It is through the kindergarten that we are going to be able to appreciate and reach those high standards that are set forth by the Committee of Ten.

MR. CLAXTON of North Carolina.—There is in the child a germ of divinity, which it is the business of education to develop. Because the kindergarten is the best exponent of this idea it should everywhere be the beginning of the school system, and its spirit should be about the child through its entire school life. The life of the child is an organic whole, and teachers may not arbitrarily divide it into independent and unrelated sections. Each stage of education must be allowed to develop, naturally and gradually, out of the preceding stage, and to draw from them its life and vigor.

Asheville, N. C., with whose public schools I was connected for five years, is one of the few Southern cities having a system of kindergartens. A year ago there were 250 children in these kindergartens, about one-seventh as many as were in the regular schools. I have watched with interest the growth of these schools. At first, there was very little interest shown by the people. Many refused to send their children, though there was no charge for tuition. The kindergarten is a place for play, they said, and they wished their children to work. They could not understand how any school work other than recitations from books could be valuable. It was soon seen that the kindergarten is a place for play, but of a kind far different from any play known to those unfamiliar with its methods. This play has a purpose, and is in the highest degree educative. Three years after the first school was opened, a training school had been established, and nine trained teachers were at work in the four kindergartens of the city. The whole was controlled and supported by a kindergarten association, which, besides other property, owned a model kindergarten building of three rooms, built and furnished by a public spirited citizen, and, together with the lot on which it stands, presented by him to the association. These people now believe in the kindergarten.

The influence on the public schools was marked. Our primary teachers studied the work of the kindergartens. The superintendent of the kindergartens gave instructions of our teachers at their regular meetings. The result was greater life in the schools and a closer connection between them and the kindergarten. Children who have been trained in a good kindergarten receive, from the first years at the public schools, much greater benefit than those without such training. The value of the entire school course is increased by a very large per cent.

It will require ten years in my own State, and longer in some others, to make the kindergarten an organic part of the public schools, supported by public taxation and controlled by the school boards. In the meantime, this work must be done by people who know its value, and are willing to do it for the sake of the cause and for the love of the children. The time will come when the great truths of Froebel's doctrine will be generally accepted. For, indeed, there is a value in these spontaneous, joyous activities of children which we call play, and this value is greater simply because they are joyous.

Joy is the sunshine in which grow all things save vice.

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If the children might ever thus rise above their work, doing it for the very joy and love of doing, rather than from compulsion and fear, how different would be the life of the child and the atmosphere of the school-room! Then might the joy of childhood pass into manhood, and, their work no longer regarded as tasks, they might escape the slavery of enforced and joyless labor, carrying with them through life the kindergarten spirit of freedom.

MISS HARRISON, Norfolk, Va.—When eight years ago Mr. Metcalf was good enough to let me go to North Carolina, my own State, to talk with the teachers there, I made this remark: "When we shall have at the bottom kindergartens, in which co-education, in all its beauty, purity and intellectuality, begins, and co-education at the top, in our universities, with co-education all between the kindergartens and universities, then we shall have taken a great step toward that ideal education that we would bring about." I strongly urged the educators of North Carolina to make the kindergarten the foundation of all education. After I had finished my talk, one of the interested superintendents, through whose influence I was led to study primary education, came to me and said: "I do not agree with you on the subject of kindergartens. I should be willing for no one except the child's mother to train the child during these early years." I answered: "About how many hours a day is your child with its nurse?" It had never seemed to occur to him how much of the child's time was spent with its nurse during these early years. And while we of the South have been more fortunate than our sisters of the North and West, in that we have been able to trust our children to the dear old "mammies" of the South, whose devotion to their charges was so motherly, true and beautiful as to become proverbial, still that mammy is about a thing of the past, and conditions similar to those at the North and West are ours too, and more than ever do I believe the South has special need of the kindergarten,—the children of mothers of high degree as well as those of mothers of low degree.

The duties of mothers are manifold; society, church and home making daily demands upon their time. Hence, they cannot do for the several children what they could for the one, and I still urge that it is far wiser to leave their little ones for a few hours daily in the care of trained kindergartners than with hired nurses during most of the day, and frequently into the night. It came to me last night, as I was thinking over this work, how hard it was for us to remember what the Great Teacher had said to us, and as I have sat and listened to these leaders of thought for the past days—to their philosophy, to their psychology—I have wanted to speak out of my soul, and say, "Except as ye become as little children." So many of our educators seem personally so far removed from the kindergarten that I often wonder if they do or can realize how great is the need of the school for this department. When I think of the number of superintendents who seldom visit their primary schools, and then in a coldly critical way, and have never taught in any school, probably, it does not seem strange after all that they aid us so little to understand and to train better these young minds and hearts intrusted to our care.

Kindergartens may not be introduced by school boards for the present in many of our States, and yet I believe it will not be many years before most of the States will recognize the value and the necessity of the kindergarten.

The greatest danger to the introduction of the kindergarten is, the putting it into the hands of young women only partially trained for the work, and then calling any primary school in which object teaching is made prominent a kindergarten.

That the kindergarten is the beginning of all true education, we think is now generally recognized. Let it be our aim to establish in every community, in some way, a kindergarten, that, through the influence of the individual kindergarten in each State, the lump of the States may be leavened.

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SUPT. W. N. SHEATS, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Florida.—I do not desire to discuss the theory of the kindergarten. I now accept the general theory, which I once regarded as only a plan to enable a great many mothers to have their children cared for. I feel that I would not do justice to a noble woman in our State unless I mentioned her work. I indorse the sentiments expressed by the gentleman on my left. He told us how we might establish kindergartens in any section of the country. I think he suggests the right method of procedure, as has been demonstrated in my State. About three months ago, Mrs. Olive E. Weston of Chicago came to Jacksonville to establish a kindergarten. She meets a large number of the mothers of that town in lectures once a week. A large number of the public school teachers are members of her training class, as well as young ladies from different parts of the State. She has also a large kindergarten school in operation. When she first came to the State I am informed that she conferred with the school board, with a view to securing assistance in the establishment of a kindergarten department to the city public schools. But, as is usual in such cases, she met with but little substantial encouragement. Since that time the mothers of the city have taken the matter in hand, and are creating a sentiment that will likely cause the board to reconsider the matter. We expect before another year to see a kindergarten department in the Jacksonville public schools, and I expect to see it spread out through the State. I really believe in three or four years more the State legislature will adopt a measure providing for the establishment of such departments in all our city schools. Thus, if some one will go ahead and organize the good mothers and popularize the movement, we will have no trouble in providing for kindergarten schools as a part of our public educational system.

STATE SUPT. NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, Pennsylvania.—It seems to me the day has passed for us to discuss whether the kindergarten is a good thing or not. The day has probably come for us to see clearly that there are kindergartens and kindergartens; that play, which is one of the chief characteristics of the kindergartens, may be helpful and that it may also be hurtful. Not every kind of play is helpful. Is there not a difference between play and work? When I was a boy on the farm I had no difficulty in telling when we were playing and when we were working; but in these discussions about the kindergarten I have frequently had very great difficulty in seeing when the speaker was talking of play and when the speaker was talking of work. If the play of the kindergarten is to be carried through all grades up to our highest institutions of learning, then, I suppose, the logical consequence is that baseball and football are the chief functions of the college, and that fighting with the sword is the chief function of the German university. It strikes me that the day has come for us, who believe in the kindergarten, to define clearly in our thinking what is the difference between play and work; to define clearly in our minds what kinds of play are hurtful; and, further, to decide in our schools a question that concerns us in our State legislation—the question what kind of work is beneficial in the development and growth of childhood. In my State, about four-fifths of the population live in the larger cities and towns. Two hundred thousand persons are engaged in and around the coal mines, and our legislature has been obliged to pass statute after statute to protect the children from the deteriorating influences of working in the mines and in the factories. I am afraid that there is a great deal of work at school, as well as a great deal of play, that is just as hurtful as the play and the work around the coal breaker or in some of the factories. The point I would like to emphasize is, that in the school the teacher must look towards earnest work, and fit the child for that, whereas, in the kindergarten, the ruling idea of Froebel and Froebel's successors is not work, but it is play as a means of growth and development. The

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time, I think, has come for us to define more clearly some of these maxims we are accepting, so that we may not have spurious kindergartens and injure a good cause by failures from the abuse of that cause.

DR. JAMES MACALISTER, President Drexel Institute, Philadelphia.—As I understand the kindergarten, it is not based solely upon play. Froebel recognizes the spontaneity of the child, the necessity of play, and he lays hold of that spontaneity which is the very nature of the child and organizes it into education. He makes no distinction between work and play. The gentleman from the South, who spoke a little while ago, seemed to me to clear this up when he said that the difficulty to-day is, that there is no joy in our work because of the distinction between work and play. Those beautiful things which are treasured in museums all over the world were the product of artisans, and the reason why they are so beautiful is chiefly because the workman found joy in his work, because his heart as well as his head entered into it. The object of Froebel in organizing the kindergarten was to co-ordinate the two; to lay hold of this playful tendency of the child and to organize it into education. I do not understand that Froebel insists that play must run all the way through education. There comes a time when play is transformed into work, work that is animated with joy and feeling, and the transition from the one to the other is the natural growth of the child from childhood into youth, from youth into manhood. The very idea of the kindergarten is that all work shall be delightful and that all play shall ultimate in work.

SUPERINTENDENT SCHAEFFER: Do I understand the learned gentleman from my own native State to say that there is no distinction between play and work?

DR. MACALISTER: There are two lines of training in the kindergarten; in the one play predominates, in the other work predominates. Froebel's object was to destroy the distinction between the two.

SUPERINTENDENT SCHAEFFER: Do I understand the gentleman to say that the work of the school is minus the element of joy which he thinks belongs to the activities of the kindergarten?

DR. MACALISTER: No, my impression was that the gentleman was arguing for the predominance of work minus play in the school.

SUPERINTENDENT SCHAEFFER: There is joy in legitimate school work just as there is joy in play. But why have two words, play and work, in the language if there is no difference?

THE CURRICULUM FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

BY W. T. HARRIS, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

I am to present some considerations on the course of study in secondary schools, with especial reference to the "Report of the Committee of Ten" recently published. What I shall say will be, partly in the way of comment on that important report and partly in the way of presenting my own solutions of some of the problems to which it is addressed.

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In the first place, I would venture to remark that the report of a committee must generally be a compromise. The individual views of the several members of the committee have been advanced and discussed. In the end they have been so modified that a majority can approve them. It naturally follows that each person signing the report accepts it as the nearest approximation to his view that he finds practicable. It often happens that, in the process of elimination, all that is salient and suggestive gets omitted and only the dead level of commonplace ideas is retained. Generally, it is best to preserve the differences of opinion that remain after all of the discussions in the committee, in the form of minority reports or explicit reservations over the signature of the dissenting members. Such dissent helps the outsider to enter into the spirit of the discussion and to understand grounds.

Mere educational authority, as such, is harmful, unless it brings with it its grounds, which may be studied and mastered, adopted or refuted, by the teacher who reads the conclusions set forth.

In the report of the Committee of Ten, there is an admirable device to preserve individual differences and points of view. There are nine reports of special conferences, each conference being conducted by a sub-committee of ten persons, experts in the topic assigned them, and representing widely separate parts of the country.

By letting each group of experts sit by itself and formulate its demands on the time of the program of the secondary school, we were likely to get the utmost diversity possible as regards points of view from which secondary studies could be considered.

Each branch of study would claim what time the members of its conference thought desirable for its thorough treatment, rather than the time possible to allow it after adjusting its claims in view of all the rest of the program.

The able presentation of the scope and significance of the nine branches of secondary study by the several conferences affords rich material for study to all interested in school work. But it furnishes a statement of the problem and sets forth the difficulties of making a satisfactory program rather than suggests a solution.

It was for the Committee of Ten to digest the results and harmonize the differences of the nine sub-committees.

The first part of the report recites the history of the organization and work of the committees, and then brings together, in Tables I. and II., the recommendations of the several conferences, without undertaking any change. Such a program, as might be expected, shows very strongly one thing, namely, the necessity of modifying the demands of some or all of the sub-committees for the sake of adjustment. It is a *reductio ad absurdum*. It tells us

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that, if the experts in each of the nine branches were to get what they ask, we should have twenty-two recitations per week in the first year of the high school, thirty-seven and one-half per week in the second year, thirty-five in the third year, thirty-seven and one-half in the fourth year.

That is to say, the pupils would have a daily average of four and two-fifths recitations in the first year, seven and one-half the second year, seven the third, and seven and one-half the fourth. If each lesson required fifty minutes (taking time for change of classes) the second and fourth years would require the pupil to recite continuously from nine in the morning to half-past four in the afternoon, providing for a single intermission of an hour and a quarter for lunch in the middle of the day. All the lessons, seven in number, would have to be prepared out of school.

Such a strain on pupils would very soon destroy all elasticity, and the reaction essential to individuality would cease.

Of course, the members of the sub-committees would never for a moment approve such a program. Each set of experts supposed that the demands of the other conferences would be modified, and adjusted in such a way as to make a reasonable program after allowing their special topic the time required.

The report of the Committee of Ten proceeds next to show, in Table III., that the demands of the sub-committees cannot be made reasonable, even by cutting them down uniformly twenty per cent and allowing four recitations or lessons a week where five lessons are asked for. Even this program, in Table III., would demand, for the second and fourth years, an average of six and three-fifths hours of lessons per day.

Up to this point, therefore, the results of the report are negative as far as making a program is concerned. It is with Table IV. that the Committee of Ten first offers a program that it considers practicable. In order to reach this, it was necessary to drop the guidance of the sub-committees, and commence in earnest the study of the comparative educational values of the general branches; and, secondly, the necessary order of evolution of said branches, and their adaptation to the several stages of maturity that the pupil reaches in the secondary school.

I would call special attention here to the fact, that the Committee of Ten considered, first, the normal standard for the program, and resolved unanimously that in no case should there be more than twenty recitation periods or lessons a week, and only fifteen of these (or three per day) should be such as require previous preparation on the part of the pupil. This fact makes unreasonable all those attacks on the report which condemn it for requiring too much

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work of the pupil in the secondary school. The recommendations of the Committee of Ten do not err in this respect, for they fall safely within the hygienic limits prescribed in the most cautious and conservative schools.

Turning to Table IV., which contains this model program—not compiled from the results of the sub-conferences but formed in view of the conflicting necessities of hygiene, of preparation for college or the technical school, and of comparative educational values—turning to this table we find four programs, a purely classical, a Latin-scientific, a modern language program and an English program. I may be believed when I say, that the formation of the classical program consumed nearly all the time devoted by the Committee of Ten to discussions. It was easy, after making the classical program, to omit Greek and substitute more science and modern language to form the Latin-scientific program, and in the third or modern language program to substitute more modern language for Latin. The so-called English program was formed by increasing the time devoted to English language and literature and reducing the number of foreign languages studied to one, which might be an ancient or modern language.

The chief result of the committee's report, so far as a practical recommendation is concerned, therefore, is to be found in the classical program of Table IV. This gives Latin five hours per week during the first and second years, and four hours the third and fourth years. Greek has five hours per week in the third and fourth years, and does not appear at all in the first and second. This arrangement makes the separation of the pupils who are fitting for college from those who are taking the scientific or modern language or English program, take place at the beginning of the third year, and offers the desirable opportunity for change of mind on the part of the secondary pupil, after he has completed his second year and begins to see what education means. He may defer the question of college until the commencement of the third year. The mathematical studies are algebra, four hours a week in first year and two hours a week for half of the third year; geometry, three hours a week the second year and two hours a week half of the third year; trigonometry and higher algebra (elective), in the fourth year for three hours a week; English language and literature, rhetoric, composition, and the like studies, require four hours a week the first year, two hours a week the second year, three hours the third year and two hours the fourth year. The natural sciences are represented by physical geography three hours a week the first year. This branch includes an elementary view of the organic aspects of nature, such as botany, zoology, ethnology, meteorology, geology and astronomy. The other aspect of nature is physics, molar or molecular, called "natural philosophy"

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and chemistry. Natural philosophy is assigned three hours a week the second year; chemistry, three hours a week the fourth year. General history has four hours a week the first year, three hours a week the second year, and is elective with trigonometry for three hours the fourth year. Finally, a modern language (French or German) takes four hours a week the second and third years and three hours a week the fourth year.

This result seemed to the committee a pretty rich program after all, for it was reached only after harmonizing apparently irreconcilable conflicts. It provides for Latin, Greek, mathematics, natural science, history, English literature and modern languages.

From this hasty survey of the report of the Committee of Ten, let me now turn your attention for a moment to the fundamental questions that concern the course of study, and to the reasons that have made the course of study in secondary schools the weakest part of our school system, although it must be confessed that the teachers in the secondary schools are, on the whole, more skillful, so far as command of methods is concerned, than the teachers in the elementary schools or the professors in colleges.

Let us glance, first, at the central idea of the elementary schools.

We can deduce the course of study quite easily from the idea of the school as an instrumentality designed to connect the child, as the new individual, with his race, and enable him to participate in civilization.

By education we add to the child's experience the experience of the human race. His own experience is necessarily one-sided and shallow; that of the race is thousands of years deep, and it is rounded to fullness. Such deep and rounded experience is what we call wisdom.

To prevent the child from making costly mistakes, we give him the benefit of seeing the lives of others. The successes and failures of our fellow men instruct each of us far more than our own experiments.

The elementary school attempts to give this wisdom in a systematic manner. It uses the essential means for its work in the shape of text-books, in which the experience of the race is digested and stated in a clear and summary manner, in its several departments, so that a child may understand it. He has a teacher to direct his studies, and instruct him in the proper methods of getting out of books the wisdom recorded in them. He is taught, first, in the primary school how to spell out the words and how to write them himself. Above all, he is taught to understand the meaning of the words. All first use of words reaches only a few of their many significations. Each word has many meanings and uses, but the child gets at only one meaning, and that the simplest and vaguest, when

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he begins. His school work is to train him into accuracy and precision in the interpretation of language. He learns gradually to fill each word of the printed page with its proper meaning. He learns to criticise the statements he reads, and to test them in his own experience and by comparison with other records of experience.

In other words, the child at school is set to work to enlarge his own puny life by the addition of the best results of other lives. There is no other process so well adapted to insure a growth in self-respect as the mastery of the thought of the thinkers who have stored and systematized the experience of mankind.

This is the clue to the hopes founded on education. The patriotic citizen sees that a government managed by illiterate people is a government of one-sided and shallow experience, and that a government by the educated classes insures the benefits of a much wider knowledge of the wise ways of doing things.

The work of the school produces self-respect, because the pupil makes himself the measure of his fellows, and grows to be equal to them spiritually by the mastery of their wisdom. Self-respect is the root of the virtues and the active cause of a career of growth in power to know and power to do. Webster calls the free public schools "a wise and liberal system of police by which property and the peace of society are secured." He explained the effect of the school as exciting "a feeling of responsibility and a sense of character."

This, he saw, is the legitimate effect. For, as the school causes its pupils to put on the forms of thought given them by the teacher and by the books they use; causes them to control their personal impulses and to act according to rules and regulations; causes them to behave so as to combine with others and get help from all, while they, in turn, give help: as the school causes the pupil to put off his selfish promptings and to prefer the forms of action based on the consideration of the interests of others, it is seen that the entire discipline of the school is ethical. Each youth educated in the school has been submitted to a training in the habit of self-control and of obedience to social order. He has become to some extent conscious of two selves; the one, his immediate animal impulse, and the second, his moral sense of conformity to the order necessary for the harmonious action of all.

Curious scholars have explored and recorded the methods of education of all peoples; for each people has some way of initiating its youth into the manners and customs and intellectual beliefs which constitute the warp and the woof of its civilization. The bulk of all education is performed by the family in all ages. The lessons in the care for the person; the conventional forms of eating and drinking; behavior towards strangers and towards one's relations;

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the mother tongue; the stock of beliefs, and such habits of scientific observation as may exist in the community; the ideals of life; the duties of a citizen; the consciousness of nationality, and the sentiment of patriotism that depends on it; the elementary arts and trades, such as exist within the home; all these things are learned within the family. But letters and science are usually taught, if taught at all, by a teacher set apart for the work, and his department is called the school.

The school is the auxiliary institution founded for the purpose of reinforcing the education of the four fundamental institutions of civilization. These are the Family, Civil Society (devoted to providing for the wants of food, clothing and shelter), the State, the Church. The characteristic of the school is, that it deals with the means necessary for the acquirement, preservation and communication of intelligence, the mastery of letters and mathematical symbols, of the technical terms used in geography and grammar and the sciences, the conventional meaning of the lines used on maps to indicate water, mountains, towns, latitude, longitude, and the like. The school devotes itself to instructing the pupil in these dry details of arts that are used to record systematic knowledge. These conventionalities once learned, the youth has acquired the art of intellectual self-help; he can of his own effort open the door and enter the treasure-house of literature and science. Whatever his fellow men have done and recorded, he can now learn by sufficient diligence of his own.

The difference between the part of education acquired within the family and that acquired in the school is immense, incalculable. The family arts and trades, manners and customs, habits and beliefs, have formed a sort of close-fitting spiritual vesture, a garment of the soul always worn and expressive of the native character; not so much of the individual as of his tribe or family or community. He, the individual, had from birth been shaped into these things as by a mold; all his thinking and willing and feeling has been molded into the form or type of humanity looked upon as the ideal by his parents and acquaintances.

This close-fitting garment of habit has given him direction, but not self-direction or freedom. He does what he does blindly, from the habit of following custom and doing as others do.

But the school gives a different sort of training; its discipline is for the freedom of the individual. The education of the family is in use and wont, and it trains rather than instructs. Its result is unconscious habit and ungrounded prejudice or inclination. Its likes and dislikes are not grounded in reason, but are unconscious results of early training. But the school lays all its stress on producing a consciousness of the grounds and reasons for things. I

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should not say all its stress; for the school does, in fact, lay much stress on what is called discipline—on habits of alert and critical attention, on regularity and punctuality, on self-control and politeness. But the bare mention of these elements of discipline shows that they, too, are of a higher order than the habits of the family, inasmuch as they all require the exertion of both will and intellect consciously in order to attain them. The discipline of the school forms a sort of conscious superstructure to the unconscious basis of habits which have been acquired in the family.

School instruction, on the other hand, is given to the acquirement of techniques—the technique of reading and writing, of mathematics, of grammar, geography, history, literature and science in general.

One is astonished when he reflects upon it, at first, to see how much is meant by this word "technique." All products of human reflection are defined and preserved by words used in a technical sense. The words are taken out of their colloquial sense, which is a loose one, except when employed as slang. For slang is a spontaneous effort in popular speech to form technical terms.

The technical, or conventional use of signs and symbols enables us to write words and to record mathematical calculations; the technical use of words enables us to express clearly and definitely the ideas and relations of all science. Outside of technique all is vague hearsay. The fancy pours into the words it hears such meanings as its feelings prompt. Instead of science there is superstition.

The school deals with technique in this broad sense of the word. The mastery of this technique of reading, writing, arithmetic, geography and history lifts the pupil onto a plane of freedom and self-help hitherto not known to him. He can now by his own effort master for himself the wisdom of the race.

By the aid of such instruments as the family education has given him, he cannot master the wisdom of the race, but only pick up a few of its results, such as the customs of his community preserve. By the process of hearsay and oral inquiry, it would take the individual a lifetime to acquire what he can get in six months by aid of the instruments which the school places in his hands. For the school gives the youth the tools of thought.

Looking for the application of this technique, we see two worlds —nature and men. Nature contains, first, abstract or inorganic objects, matter and motion, to which arithmetic, algebra and higher mathematics relate; then, secondly, it contains organic objects, like plants, animals and men. This phase of nature, including vegetable and animal growth and the requisite conditions of climate, land and water and air, are treated in geography.

Hence, the child has two studies that give him an insight into nature as the support of his life, and as the instrument for him to

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conquer and use in the shape of machinery, motive powers, food, clothing and shelter.

With his first lesson in arithmetic, he learns something fundamental about the conditions of existence in time and space. Matter and force not merely happen to obey mathematical laws, but they have to do so as a primordial necessity of their nature. Every lesson in geography, from the first, is of practical use in giving the child command over organic nature.

Taking the other side of school instruction, we find a happy selection of what reveals man to himself. Man, as an object, is body and soul. The body is a physiological object, like animals and plants. The soul is intellect, will and feeling. The child does not study psychology as such, but something better for him than psychology. For he studies the products of man's intellect and will and feeling. He studies the structure of language in grammar, and this reveals the structure of intellect. He studies in literature the revelation of the human heart—its feelings, emotions and inspirations, good and bad. Literature portrays the rise of feelings, and their conversion into action and ideas by the will and intellect; finally, it shows the collisions of evil feelings with good. History, again, shows the human will in its distinctive province. For the will of man is manifest, not so much in individual adventures as in the formation of states, and religious movements and social changes. This is collective will, the will of the nation or people, and it is manifest in wars or in great social movements, such as colonization, the building of cities, internal improvements, commerce, productive industry, etc.

History reveals man to himself by showing him his deeds. Literature reveals man to himself by showing him his character in its process of formation—the ultimate springs of action as they well up from the unconscious depths of the soul. Grammar, philology and language-studies reveal the essential structure of the soul—its logical constitution as a self-activity or self-consciousness.

There are no other phases of nature and man than these five, which we see are contemplated by the five chief branches of study in the district schools.

Secondary education must go on in the same direction, opening windows of the soul in five directions, so that the pupil gets a better insight into these cardinal provinces of nature and man.

Therefore, the secondary pupil will continue his study of mathematics, taking up algebra and geometry; of language, studying the ancient languages, from which civilization has been transmitted, and modern languages. He will continue the view of organic nature, given in geography, by studying the outlines and methods of such natural sciences as geology, astronomy, physiology, zoology and botany; continue history, by adding to the special study of the United

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States, begun in the elementary school, the study of general history; continue the study of literature, begun in the school readers, by systematic study of the greatest writers, like Shakespeare, Milton, and others, in selected complete works of art, together with a history of literature. Mathematics are reinforced by physics (called natural philosophy), treating of the mathematical laws of solids and fluids.

To these branches, which the ideal course should contain, there are certain incidental studies of a useful character—such as vocal music, book-keeping, calisthenics, short-hand writing, cookery, wood-work, etc., which are added, some of them, to the high school courses of study throughout the country. The modern languages taught are usually German and French. The ancient languages are Latin and Greek.

It must be noticed in studying the secondary education of the United States, that it stands between two other self-regulated systems of schools—the elementary, whose course is determined by the school committees, and the higher whose course is determined by college faculties and boards of trustees. These two independent directive powers do not act in perfect harmony. Hence the secondary school has a two-fold course of study to provide for—that indicated by the elementary school and that required by the college for admission.

But the public high schools are under the control of the school committees elected by the people. This causes them to lay more stress on a continuation of the five-fold course of the elementary schools than on the studies required for admission to college.

On the other hand, the private secondary schools lay the most stress on preparation for college. Here is one of the greatest defects in our system—or lack of system. The ideal course of study demands that five windows of the soul be kept open. The old preparatory school laid stress on Latin, Greek and mathematics, neglecting all else. These three branches opened only two or three "windows" (to keep up our symbolism); mathematics gave the key to inorganic nature; Latin and Greek answered to grammar and literature, chiefly to grammar or the logical side of the soul, with a little touch of history and literature on the sides of the will and sensibility. Nature was left out of sight, except as mathematics gave the general conditions of all nature—the structure of time and space.

The private secondary school, therefore, in the last generation, slighted history, modern literature, natural science and sociology. The public high school undertook to develop these important sides of a rounded education, and succeeded in a measure. But it was obliged to adopt another course of study for its pupils fitting for colleges. Hence there arose a general, or English, course, and a classical course.

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I have compared the classical course of study to a palm-tree, which first builds a tall stem and then suddenly expands into foliage at the top. So the preparatory school and the college required six years (four in the preparatory and two in college) to be devoted almost exclusively to Latin, Greek and mathematics, and then in the last two years of the college made a hasty survey of nature and modern literature and history, as a sort of finishing touch.

There is no doubt that the high school course, laid out by the school committees, is more rational than the secondary course of the private preparatory schools, prescribed for them by the colleges; and yet the college course was the conscious product of the highest educated minds of the community. The unconscious evolution by "natural selection" in the minds of school committees elected by the people was wiser on the whole. Individual members of city school boards are always found who oppose classic study altogether. But the pressure of popular demand always prevails to secure, in the public schools, what is needed.

The difficulty in this case is, that the high school pupil, taking up all the five branches—mathematics, natural science, history, modern literature, Latin and Greek—in his four years, is not so far advanced in the classical languages as the special preparatory school, and does not compete with it on an equal footing. Special classical courses in the public high school are a costly experiment wherever carried on.

This produces what we may call a national disaster in our education, namely, the discouragement of pupils in high schools from taking up higher education. The public high schools, in proportion to their enrollment, send comparatively few to the colleges.

The disadvantages of this to the nation are great. For higher education, even with a "palm-tree" course of study, educates the majority of the real leaders of society. It might be supposed that those best versed in natural science would have the prestige, and doubtless natural science counts for much. But the classically educated man has advantages over all others. That this should be so, may be seen by a brief consideration of the *rationale* of its course of study.

We have seen that there are needed five windows in the soul to see the five classes of objects in nature and humanity. Natural science relates chiefly to the organic and inorganic phases of nature, but gives but little insight into human nature. On the other hand language-study, and especially literature, leads directly towards this knowledge of man that is essential to large directive power.

As to the dead languages, Latin and Greek, they are the tongues spoken by the two peoples who invented the two threads united in our modern civilization. The study of Greek puts one into the atmos-

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phere of art, literature and science in which the people of Athens lived. This is the effect of Greek literature; it is also the effect of the mere language in its idioms and in its grammatical structure.

The study of Latin puts one similarly into the stern, self-sacrificing, political atmosphere of Rome. The Romans invented laws for the protection of life and private property, and also the forms of combination into corporations and local governments. To study Latin makes the pupil more attentive to, and conscious of, the side of his civilization that deals with combinations of men into social organizations.

No other ancient or modern language gives us anything of equal value for gaining an insight into the institutions under which we live, except the study of the Bible. The Hebrew thread of our civilization is still more important, because, while the Roman secures civil freedom and the Greek intellectual freedom and artistic taste, the Hebrew oracles give us the revelation of the personality of God, the fountain of all freedom. For unless the Absolute is a free personality, man's freedom must be all a temporary and abnormal affair; the iron fate which pantheism sees as the "first principle" will get the advantage after all.

We may see that the colleges ought to continue to lay chief stress on Latin, Greek and mathematics, as the studies that foster directive power, but they ought to add also the three moderns, natural science, modern literature and history, incorporating them into the course throughout, so that the oak rather than the palm-tree becomes the symbol of the education.

By "directive power" is meant the influence that molds the actions of men. This may be done by the lone scholar who publishes great discoveries to the world; by the editors of periodicals; by the orators, preachers and teachers; and especially by the poets and literary men.

There has been a process of adjustment going on in higher education in several directions, especially since 1870. First, an elevation of the standard of admission took place, chiefly brought about by the action of Harvard College. Secondly, an extension of the scope of elective studies, as a consequence of the raised standard, which now brought the freshman class nearly up to where the junior class had been. Thirdly, the requirements for admission began to be more varied, and to require something of English literature and a modern language, with some natural science and history, but much more Latin and Greek.

Had the Latin and Greek requirements remained the same, the new standard of admission would have fitted the course of study of the higher school, and the problem would have been solved. As

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it is now, the situation of the high school as a feeder for the college is worse than before 1870. Then, the classical requirements for graduation at the high school would admit the student to college, while the collateral branches of history, science and English literature, that he had begun in the high school, gave him greater apperceptive power or greater ability to grasp the practical application of what he had learned.

Is it not a mistake that higher education has made, in trying to lengthen the school life of youth by increasing the length of the secondary school course? Is it not far better to take the student into college at sixteen or eighteen years of age, and after the course of study that leads him to see the unity of human learning, take him into a post-graduate course that teaches him how to specialize and pursue lines of original investigation in the laboratory or seminary?

This radical question is now in a fair way to be answered rationally; for this report of the Committee of Ten will lead to such investigations of the educational value of secondary branches and methods of instruction as will put us in possession of accurate knowledge in regard to the nature and limits of elementary, secondary and higher education. We shall learn the fitting age of each, and not as heretofore esteem it an advantage to hold back the pupil as long as possible in the elementary and secondary courses under plea of securing greater thoroughness. We shall understand that the elementary methods are of necessity too mechanical to be used to advantage beyond the fourteenth year, while the secondary methods consist too much of copying styles and classic forms, in aping modes of work and habits of thinking, to be continued to advantage beyond the eighteenth year. We shall know better than we do now what is fitting for each age. With this we shall enter on a new and more scientific epoch of educational theory and practice.

DISCUSSION.

SUPT. W. H. MAXWELL, Brooklyn.—This I regard by all odds the most important subject that comes before the department at its present meeting. From his deep philosophic insight, of which we have just had a magnificent example in the paper we have heard read, Dr. Harris is perhaps the ablest man in this country to treat this subject.

I want to defend the report of the conference on English of the Committee of Ten against two attacks made upon it yesterday afternoon, one by Superintendent Greenwood and the other by Colonel Parker. Superintendent Greenwood attacked

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it on the subject of grammar. Mr. Greenwood has a wrong idea of what was meant by the treatment of grammar in the report of that conference. I happen to have been a member of that conference, and I do not think there was a gentleman who took part in it, or who signed the report of that conference, who does not feel as strongly as does Mr. Greenwood the importance and necessity of the study of grammar at all stages of the work in English. What we did mean, however, was this: that studying the technicalities of grammar might be confined to a comparatively short period, say one year, and that, after that period, grammar should be correlated, on the one side with literature and on the other side with composition. Grammar would then be used as a means of elucidating obscure or involved sentences in literature, and as a vehicle for criticism in connection with composition.

In regard to Colonel Parker's attack, I read this sentence from the report: "Reading books should be of a literary character, and should not attempt to teach natural history or physical science." Then Colonel Parker asks what would literature be if nature were taken out of it. I think that Colonel Parker, when he disposed of that proposition in that very summary manner, must have forgotten for a moment—I can imagine that it was only for a moment—that there are two great divisions in literature, to which De Quincey has given the names, the literature of power and the literature of knowledge.

The literature of knowledge treats nature from an objective, or scientific, point of view. The literature of power treats nature from a subjective point of view. In the literature of knowledge, the plant, the animal, the mineral, becomes, for the time being, the center of the universe. In the literature of power, the human mind is the center of the universe, and the plant, the animal, the mineral, is seen transfigured by the mind's own radiance. To the scientist, the primrose may be nothing but a primrose. His knowledge of it may differ in degree, but not in kind, from the knowledge possessed by Peter Bell. To the poet, the primrose becomes a type of beauty, a symphony in color, a symbol of virtue, or a type of truth. It is this literature of power to which the conference thought the reading hour ought to be devoted. Against the teaching of science, as science, they had not one word to utter. Against the reading of scientific books, they had no argument to urge. But against reading science and calling it literature, they had strong and well-founded objections.

If Colonel Parker has still any doubts about the distinction between the two kinds of literature, I have only to remind him that Charles Darwin, who had studied nature more thoroughly than any other man of this century, was forced to confess, that, to his very great distress, he had lost entirely, during the last half of his life, the power of appreciating poetry or the higher flights of prose. Through incessant study of the objective side of nature, the power even to see the subjective had atrophied. He could observe phenomena; he could classify facts; he could make vast generalizations; but he could neither see nor feel the "light that never was on sea or land, the inspiration and the poet's dream." We want our pupils to see the light and to feel the inspiration. Let the reading hour, then, be devoted to the literature of power; not to the literature of knowledge.

I have tried to gather up into four or five propositions the leading or fundamental thoughts contained in the report of the Committee of Ten.

The first of these fundamental thoughts has been stated thus by Dr. Eliot: "Every subject which is taught at all in a secondary school should be taught in the same way and to the same extent to every pupil so long as he pursues it, whether he goes to college or not, no matter what the probable destination of the pupil may be, or at what point his education is to cease." And here I want to raise a query with regard to a theory propounded by Dr. Harris, and incidentally to defend the committee's report against an attack tacitly made upon it by the

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same high authority. The committee submit one course of study which does not contain either Latin or Greek. If I understood him aright, Dr. Harris would not have any course in the high school that does not contain both Latin and Greek. Now, I want to raise the question, whether, if a boy is going no further than the high school, it is worth his while to spend three-fifths of his time on two dead languages. Dr. Harris defends his theory by telling us that all our ideas of law and order have their origin in Roman law, and that all our ideas of taste and beauty may be traced back to the literature of Greece. If, he continues, we want to study any subject scientifically, we must study its embryology; and, as the embryology of law and order, of taste and beauty, are to be found in the literatures of Greece and Rome, it follows that all should study these literatures. For the sake of argument, I am ready to admit that to one who has so mastered the Latin and Greek languages that he can read their literatures as literature, and not as lessons in grammar and translation, all the results which Dr. Harris describes may accrue. But do these results come to one who has not achieved a real mastery over the languages? There are no high school boys and few college graduates who have attained such a mastery. Where there is no possibility of attaining such a mastery, what is the necessity or the value of spending so much time on the preliminary steps? The Latin declensions do not admit us to the temples of Roman justice, nor the Greek conjugations to the holy of holies of Greek art. When school education must cease with the high school course, the student will know far more of Roman law and Greek art by reading English translations—or, better, interpretations—of the great things in Latin and Greek literature, than by puzzling out the meaning of Cæsar's "Commentaries" or committing to memory the interminable tense forms of the Greek verb. And I am strongly supported in this view by two analogies which every one will at once call to mind. The ethical strain in our civilization, Dr. Harris tells us, is derived from the literature of the Hebrew nation. Yet no one now claims that it is necessary to study Hebrew in order to appreciate the lessons of Hebraic ethics. We are content to get our knowledge of what Hebraic literature has to teach from a translation—the grandest translation ever made—the English Bible. Again, in this democratic community, a knowledge of our political institutions is all important. But the promise and potency of all our political institutions are to be found in the ancient customs which our Anglo-Saxon forefathers brought with them to England from the forests of Germany. Yet who will say that it is necessary to know the Teutonic languages in order to study the embryology of civil institutions? The world will always have need of men profoundly versed in the lore of ancient Greece and ancient Rome, and the spiritual writings of the Hebrews; but the boy whose time and means will not permit him to get beyond the "beggarly elements" of these languages, will gain infinitely more by studying translations. He will at least get something of the reality of knowledge.

The second great thought of this report is, that every subject studied at all should be studied so thoroughly and so consecutively that it shall provide a substantial training. This I regard as of fundamental importance. I suppose there are people who will tell me that this is what we are now doing. It is not so long ago that the majority of high schools gave courses of ten weeks in botany, and ten weeks in zoology, and ten weeks in chemistry, and ten weeks in physics. I think the number of such schools is less now than it was five years ago. Yet I have in my possession a tabulated statement of the courses of study in many of the large cities of America, which shows that at this very day there still remain many of these scrappy and fragmentary courses. I know from my personal experience with the graduates and pupils of such schools, that they do not understand the subjects taught in these short courses. I know, that so far as their knowledge

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of these subjects is concerned, they simply misunderstand them. Not all of Colonel Parker's eloquence, when it is urged against "completing" subjects, against "going through" the subject, and against examinations, can ever convince me that it is a bad thing for any pupil, boy or girl, to understand thoroughly whatever he takes up. I believe it is a fundamental principle of teaching, that whatever you take up, be it much or little, it is well to teach it thoroughly.

With regard to our elementary schools. I want to raise the same question as the Committee of Ten has brought before us with regard to the secondary schools. How far is it wise to take up, in your observation lessons, for instance, all those different things that we heard yesterday they are taking up in Cleveland? How far is it wise to do just a little of each? This same principle, that has been affirmed so strongly and so repeatedly with regard to secondary schools, that a subject studied at all should be studied so thoroughly and consecutively as to provide a substantial mental training, also holds good, it seems to me, with regard to elementary schools.

The third point made by this committee is, that the elementary course should end with the sixth year in school and the secondary course should begin with the seventh. There was one part of Dr. Harris' paper that I confess I did not quite understand, and I hasten to say at once that my failure to understand it must be altogether my own fault. I understood him to say that there is a distinct difference between elementary school subjects and secondary school subjects. He would relegate algebra and geometry, for instance, to the high schools. I cannot see, however, why in the world the simple space relations of geometry may not be taught a great deal earlier than they are at present. I know children can take them up. I cannot understand why, if a child can solve an arithmetical problem by algebra, he should not be allowed to do so. As Dr. Eliot asked this department in Brooklyn, why increase the difficulties of a child's life? He has to meet difficulties enough. Why not let him do his work in the easiest and pleasantest way?

Just here I want to correct a wrong impression. I have, I confess, advocated what has come to be known as departmental teaching in grammar schools, and I understand that an impression has got abroad that when one advocates that system he is supposed to advocate the specializing of the teacher's work throughout the entire elementary school. I want to say that I never advocated anything of that kind. What I have advocated is, that the last two years of the eight-year course should be taught upon the departmental plan. I believe the arguments in favor of this scheme are very strong; and I find that, if there is one thing more than another dwelt upon in this report, it is the necessity of having each of the subjects mentioned taught from the beginning by a trained specialist. That cannot possibly be accomplished while one teacher, in the last two years of the grammar course, has to teach all the subjects of a grade. Dr. Harris, last night, in his most delightful and charming remarks upon the two papers we listened to, referred to this matter and spoke of it as a re-introduction into this country of the Lancastrian plan. I cannot imagine where Dr. Harris got that idea. I do not know of any one who is advocating the Lancastrian plan. The extinct Lancastrian plan has nothing in common with the departmental system as it is now understood. What many of us believe is, that during the last two years of the grammar school course the experiment of allowing one teacher to teach one subject, or one related group of subjects throughout all the grades, is well worth a trial.

The fourth fundamental proposition of the report is, that all subjects of study shall be properly correlated. Here I am inclined to make a criticism on the report of the Committee of Ten. They insist over and over again, they lend all the emphasis to the subject that repetition can give it, that all the subjects shall be properly correlated, but (perhaps the time is not ripe yet) neither the committee in

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its report nor the conferences in their reports have given us any principle of co-ordination. I shall not dwell on this further, because at its last meeting this department appointed a Committee of Fifteen to consider various subjects, one of which was the correlation of studies, and I shall simply read you four questions that the committee are considering, and upon which they propose to report at the next meeting of this department:

1. What shall be the purpose of attempting a close correlation of studies? (a) To prevent duplication, eliminate non-essentials and save time and effort; (b) to develop an apperceiving power of the mind; (c) to develop character? A purely ethical purpose?

2. Is it possible on any basis to correlate or unify all the studies of the elementary school?

3. If not, may they be divided into two or more groups, those of each group being correlated?

4. Is there any way of correlating the results of work in all the groups?

You will see that this committee has a sufficient amount of work laid out for it.

If the superintendents will unite in their efforts to put into execution the propositions set forth by the Committee of Ten, they will take a long step forward in the reform of elementary as well as of secondary education. This report may not unfitly be regarded as the cloud by day and the pillar of fire by night that is to lead us into the promised land. This report will be the superintendents' armor, offensive and defensive. Clothed with this authority, he need not fear to resist attacks or to demolish abuses. It is the noblest monument of their work ever erected by the teachers of America through their National Educational Association.

CHARLES DEGARMO, President of Swarthmore College.—I arise simply to ask a question for my own satisfaction. I was in hopes that Dr. Harris would answer it. I have been wondering all the afternoon, as I have been before to-day, whether this report, which seemed to me to cover only one phase of secondary education, is meant to be all of it; but I am almost compelled by the paper of Dr. Harris this afternoon to assume that we are to understand that this report covers all of secondary education. If this is so, I think we need more explanations. It appears to me that the report is simply for one grade, one department, one line of education, viz., our literary high schools. There has not a word been said here of any economic phase in education. We have not been led to believe that there is any great economic world; that people are doing anything in this world for a living; that we have a vast social organization, a vast industrial organization, which the old world and the old curriculum knew nothing about. I must dissent from that view, if that is intended. There is the line of the humanities, which has always been important, and is important to-day. There is the important line of the sciences, which is a matter almost of present creation. Many men in this room remember when not only the public high schools gave no attention to the sciences, but when the colleges gave none. We have progressed so far, but we have not yet covered the field. Are you not having, alongside of your literary high schools where these programs are in order, another set of high schools where a different program is in order? Have you not manual training high schools in your large cities? Does this report touch them in any degree, except so far as they lap over on to the old curriculum? There is a great education growing up in the old country along the commercial lines. The whole scheme of education has been based on the principle that higher education is for a single class, viz., the professional class. It has been broadened within the last few years to include another class, viz., those who take the sciences for the basis of their life work. It must still farther be broadened to take in all classes. Education cannot remain a caste. It

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has been that with higher education; it is largely so to-day. The reason the public high schools have not fitted for college is just because the college was a caste institution; it was for those who were going into the professions, into politics, it may be; into medicine or law, and, sometimes, into education itself. The college has now broadened much, and it has broadened so vastly that the public schools can carry on their curricula along the lines of their instincts and yet give every member of those high schools a chance to go on with his higher education. We are building a ladder into the universities, not only for the boys of Greek and Latin, but we are building a ladder for the science boys, for the boys who take the modern courses; we are building a ladder into technological courses, as mentioned by Mr. Nightingale. I would ask Dr. Harris, if the program given us here, of the five windows of the soul, is intended in this narrow sense, or is it intended in the broader sense. Is not there a vast economic and social world to which we must pay some attention? It seems to me, that in the kindergarten itself should begin the co-ordination of these two lines of study, these two lines of endeavor—the scientific on the one side, the humanitarian on the other—into the economic phases; and when we recognize that set of facts all the way through our schools, I think there will be a chance for a report of the Committee of Ten on some other phases of secondary education besides those mentioned in the report.

HON. W. T. HARRIS.—I would ask Mr. De Garmo, what of manual training is there in the mature training school that is not to be called elementary rather than secondary? In my opinion, wood-work and metal-work, contained in the course of study of our manual training schools, is all elementary work. Learning to use the plane, hammer and saw is elementary; so is the use of the blacksmith's bellows and the anvil; also, the file and the turning-lathe. But natural philosophy or physics and chemistry are secondary studies, and these give to the worker in wood and iron a training in directive power which enables him to lay out work for others and comprehend clearly the relation of one part of his learning to another part. I think, therefore, that the program of secondary education does provide for the part of manual training instruction that is secondary.

In answer to Mr. Maxwell's question, why the Teutonic people did not invent a new system of law and therefore stand beside the Romans as contributing to modern civilization, I would reply, that we know very well what legal forms and usages the Teutonic people developed before the contact with the Romans. Tacitus described for us the German tribes, and we see by his description that they were in that stage of civilization known as the tribal and the village community. This form of civilization is found in Siberia, and among the rural populations of Russia, Tartary and Hindoostan to this day. It is like that of the North American Indians; whereas, the Romans developed law through the tribal stage and the village community up to the urban form, and finally to the imperial form. No real freedom is possible in those lower forms, but only in the urban and imperial forms. Tacitus says that the German tribes were "*Securi adversus deos, securi adversus homines*" They had not deep respect either for gods or for men. But they had an immense heart-hunger for personal recognition; and it is this heart-hunger which we have received from them. It is a very great thing, too; but the form of their civilization, when they came to have a civilization, was borrowed from the Romans and Greeks. In their village community and tribal life, the men were tied, so to speak, by "apron strings." The head man of the community decided for them when they should work together in the common field and when they could engage in other occupations. Such a civilization cannot earn more than from three to six cents a day for each man, woman and child in the best village communities we know about at the present time. But as soon as the nation develops urban civilization, the productivity increases to two, three and five times that

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amount. The tribal form and the village community cannot produce such things as Roman law, or anything remotely resembling it. The settlements in Germany that grew to be cities adopted the Roman form of government and its legal procedures, and when they overran the Western nations, being driven by the Tartaric hordes from Asia, the first thing they learned was to borrow the forms of Roman law from the cities of the countries which they conquered. When the Christian missionaries came to these Teutonic peoples and proposed to teach them the Gospel of Christ, the chiefs told them they had heard much of the mythologies of Greece and Rome and preferred their own mythology of Odin and Thor; but they were willing to let these missionaries state their beliefs. They then heard the story of an Absolute Being, who made all that is in time and space, and who created man in his own image, and had so much regard for the creature he had made that he died for him. This kind of recognition on the part of the Divine Being satisfied the heart-hunger of the barbarian chiefs. It was like nothing they had ever heard of before. "This is the religion," they said, "that we have been waiting to hear for many thousands of years. It is the recognition of our personality in an infinite form." This heart-hunger of the Teutonic peoples crops out every now and then, even in our own most advanced civilization. Put an Englishman, a Scotchman or a Massachusetts man out on the borderland as a "cowboy," and he will grow as careless of life and as hungry for recognition as the Norseman or Anglo-Saxon of the time of Julius Cæsar. He will approach a settlement and dare the whole village to come out and fight him, being perfectly willing, however, to compromise by inviting all the people to the bar to take a drink. He values recognition more highly than life.

To the question of Colonel Parker, as to what contribution the Anglo-Saxons have made to history, I would say, therefore, they have contributed this heart-hunger for personal recognition. They have furnished the people for whom the Roman law and the Greek art and science and the Hebrew revelation of a personal God have a higher significance and a more intelligent adoption than these things ever found among the old Græco-Italic stocks of Southern Europe.

SUPT. J. M. GREENWOOD. Kansas City.—This question should be kept in mind in the discussion of the report of the conferences, that there is to-day, and has been for some little time in the United States, a wide diversity of opinion in regard to what should be taught in our elementary schools. There are those who hold, and hold honestly, that the natural science work should be the axis around which all the lower grade work in the school should revolve; the language work, the drawing, the literature, largely the mechanical work, whatever is done there, and the training not only of the hand but of the heart as well, must all be subordinated to this idea. There are others, again, that believe the schools are overcrowded with subjects, and they are attempting to do too much, and, in consequence of this, we do not get so substantial results as we would secure if our work was concentrated on fewer subjects. Some schools are now over-balanced with what is called the scientific work. Others, perhaps, have adhered a little too closely to reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, United States history, English grammar, drawing and music, the branches that are usually pursued, and that every child should study. Of course, there have been attempts made in different parts of our country to solve these questions, some after one plan and some after another.

The chief objection that I have to the report is, that these men, being specialists, have put in so much of their subjects, not only into the high school but into the lower schools, that the weight is too heavy for the children to carry. The specialists lacked loading sense. They did not take the time to consider all the subjects closely and carefully. They had not the opportunity. Some of them in

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curred heavy expenses in going to these meetings, and many of them were unacquainted with each other. However, it is an excellent report in the way of suggestion, but what the conferences have asked independently is an over-loading of the children in almost every particular. The scheme, as it is, is unworkable.

I do not agree with the position advocated by some this afternoon, that we should inject Latin into the elementary schools, or that we should inject modern languages, unless as it is done in a few cities where it is taught part of each day. The conferences were largely influenced, doubtless, by the courses of study in European countries.

There should be the very largest liberty in this matter. Those that want to study Latin and Greek should have an opportunity to do so in the high school, and if they want to study French and German they should also have an opportunity in the high school. It is better for a pupil to acquire a fair mastery over the printed page, that he has a tolerably good, vigorous English at his command, so that he can write a letter and punctuate it properly, or tell what he has to say in a straightforward, direct manner, than to have picked up a little smattering of one or two languages. It is admitted that a pupil may get hold of a very little science by reading the "Wayside Series" and the "Bedside Series" and the "Seaside Series," but that he will get any real gems of literature I deny.

As a deliberate conviction, it is my opinion that the central thought in our educational system should be that of literature which touches the child's feelings most deeply and solidifies these into character rather than cluster around a few facts of science.

THE EXHIBIT OF EDUCATION AT THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.

BY DR. JOHN EATON, EX-UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

Educators, so largely occupied with eternal verities, may become too much absorbed in what the past is supposed to have fixed, and thus fail to meet current demands, or, as the phrase has it, to keep up with the times. They well recall that no body in the stellar world, coursing through its orbit according to immutable laws, fails to respond to the influence of the most capricious comet that crosses its course. Nor should educators be less ready to gain all possible benefits from the events which cross their path. They cannot afford to ignore the epoch-making Columbian fair. For the teacher it has, not only the lessons it offers to all; it has also, the great studies in his special duties. In speaking with this emphasis, do not let me be understood as implying that he will experience no disappointments. If we expect it to be ideally perfect, our disappointments will be many. If we expect all nations to be officially present, or those which participate to exhibit all their attainments proportionally, we will carry away with us a very different idea. While we hear, in connection with it, so much of progress, we must not forget that motives of gain, of selfishness, will be present, as in all human affairs.

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It will cost money, and money must be made. But we shall be able to see, more than ever before, what man has accomplished in his various spheres of activity. We might take a trip around the world and fail of opportunities to study great human conditions offered here. We may see specimens of minerals, soils, plants, animals, wild and domestic, races of men, their dress, their houses, something of their family life and avocations, the products of their industries, their modes of travel, their science and art.

Where shall we find the exhibit of the vocation of education, in which so large numbers are engaged all over the world in every civilized land, in whose hands are not the materials or machinery of mineral, agricultural or manufactured products, but the children, the real, veritable children, being taught throughout the world, and through whose hands, as clay in the hands of the potter, all those have been taught whose acquirements are now triumphant in the exhibits of enterprise, patience, skill and art installed around us? Where shall we find the exhibit of this, the teachers' vocation—the conditions, appliances, results of this vocation, so central and causative to all other human callings and activities! Already we have found our way through the administration building. Before us is the grand plaza, the court of nations, the statue of Columbus and of the Republic, the marvelous fountains—beautiful, wonderful! But there are no educational exhibits here. Looking to the left, to the entrance of that great building, we see a statue of a man of marked intelligence and aspirations. Perhaps he was a schoolmaster. But we see a kite in his hand, and know it is Franklin. He is just calling lightning from heaven, and around him are other names pointing to the scientific results of education. This great building is devoted to electricity. What a story it tells of the progress of half a generation! What have the teachers of electricity accomplished? But there is no room for them here. We must hunt their place. They will be given at least a corner, or a tent, or a tree, as were teachers with their contrabands. If there is any teaching actually on exhibition; if there are any live illustrations, we are ready to hunt them. We call a Columbian guard, who knows and will tell where everything is. Yes, we will find a kindergarten in operation in the Illinois building and in the children's building, and there, too, we may study the *creche*, or day nursery, and Miss Huntington's kitchen garden in full operation; also, the instruction in sloyd, aided by Mrs. Shaw; and in another room that triumph of patience and pedagogical skill, Miss McGowan's school for teaching deaf mutes to speak in infancy, or that of Miss Garret of Philadelphia, now supported by the State of Pennsylvania. Yes, here, too, lively boys are practicing in a gymnasium. Then, tramping down

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near Krupp's guns, we may inspect a swimming school, and over the way in a government building, an Indian school in actual operation. After another long tramp, we find, near the Swedish pavilion, the Ling system of physical culture. We want healthy bodies for our people, and yet we can hardly delay to hear that in this system the movements in their nature and their number are founded on the human organism's natural means of exercise, and the possibility of its perfect development to health and capability of work. Gymnastics can also preserve a development already gained. The aim of these gymnastics is to obtain as perfect health as possible; that is, a harmony between the different organs and between their functions. Skillfulness—that is, lifting a given weight, or the like—has but a secondary place, but it is obvious that the human body will best receive the harmonious development for which it is fitted when the organism itself is used in its own perfection in relation to physiological laws. On this principle, the exercises are grouped and classified. Ling believed that he could discriminate 11,000 separate muscular movements. He believed that health was promoted by their exercise, and said if the person is too feeble or the will is unable to direct the exercise, then the production of that exercise or motion by another person or by machinery will promote health, or perhaps prevent disease—and hence comes the massage. We cannot pause further on the several systems of physical culture that challenge our attention. Perhaps, now, we will take a turn in Midway. Here in the Irish village and in Donegal Castle we may examine the much needed application of instruction to the improvement of Irish industries. In the school in the streets of Cairo the pupils, after the oriental fashion, are seated on the floor and studying aloud. If we choose, before leaving Midway, we may compare the influence of training upon wild animals, such as the lion and the ostrich. Perhaps this is the hour to cross the grounds and witness the training in the life-saving service; or under the war department, the instruction in making fire-arms, or in signaling by the use of the balloon, or the sunlight that flashes its message to the distance of a hundred miles. Now, it may be the hour for lunch, and we will hasten to the Rumford kitchen, and take a lesson in Mrs. Richard's scientific cookery, and before leaving this section, we will listen to the attempt to establish instruction in road-building, and witness Professor Hazen's efforts to train engineers in the destruction of sewage or the waste of cities, which is so consummately conducted for the benefit of the health of all visitors at the fair. Already we have notes of numerous instructive lectures by eminent experts on manifold industries and arts represented, but we can only give them attention when we wish to take an hour for rest.

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To-day we will examine the military school at West Point, as presented by the cadets now in camp. Later we shall have an opportunity to see the living illustration of the work done by Captain Pratt at the Carlisle Indian school, represented by their band of music and 500 of the students; besides, we must find an hour to examine the work done in American business colleges, as represented by banking and exchange in actual operation.

We turn from all these live exhibits disappointed that there is so little of what could be well exhibited, but thankful that there is so much, though it is so widely scattered.

We must seize a moment to examine training in fish culture in the agricultural department, or instruction in bacteriology in the laboratory of the marine hospital service, or the surgeon-general's office of the war department, and when we are ready for a tramp we will go to the anthropological building, and witness experiments in the psychological laboratory.

Let us now try for the still exhibits. Here there is greater disappointment; space is wanting, and system and unity are in a measure destroyed. Nations are omitted, and subjects are only partially exhibited. Only about three-fourths of our American States exhibit their public school systems—some of these only partially, and none completely. But, with all our disappointment, we have never had a better opportunity to study education. Anyone at any time may examine its statistics, history and literature in the United States Bureau of Education as nowhere else in the world. But here are illustrations of buildings, specimens of appliances, and collections of students' work, and a variety of data never before offered for examination. Altogether, it suggests forcibly what adequate space and generous treatment of education might have accomplished. We shall have no lack of tramping. We must go to the anthropological building for reformatory education and instruction in sanitation, then to the building of the French colonies for their school work. Far apart in the agricultural building we shall find the school exhibit of Uruguay, and what there is from Liberia, and that remarkable exhibit from the greatest of English experimental farms and from our own colleges of agriculture. In the Swedish pavilion we can take note of the Lundin system of sloyd for girls—the measuring, cutting and making of garments in Sweden—and in another hall or alcove, the work of the Naas school. Here, there is a most instructive study of the abnormal positions of workers in wood and metal, contrasted with those positions which, after careful investigation, are found to be best adapted to health.

We shall want to take time for the exhibit of the Bureau of Education in the United States government building. Here a young

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gentleman and lady will make ample explanations, but the limited space is packed. Here are statistics, history, literature, and articles illustrative of conditions of education that can only be mastered in time.

In the woman's building we have a considerable space given to the representation of the institutions devoted to woman's education, academic, professional and industrial; and in the educational section a rare collective exhibit of schools for nurses. From Germany, some specially successful girl's industrial schools send specimens and studies in the development of woman's industrial work, going back to the middle ages. From Spain come the work of schools for the defective classes, under the patronage of women. Before leaving this building, we must not fail to take into account woman's work in libraries, in literature and science, as well as instruction in art. When not too weary, we can take a run to the State buildings of Washington, California and Illinois, and learn the story of their education from their school exhibits. Kansas and California we shall find divided between their State buildings and the educational section of the liberal arts building.

Here we are at last with a great body of educational exhibits before us, and yet here the Argentine Republic is crowded into a distant alcove and only partly unpacked, and that from Japan must be found in three widely separate localities. France can only set up part of its exhibit, and yet a portion of that, illustrating industrial work in Paris, must go to its pavilion. Germany with its rich display, to treat it with any justice, must erect another story over the floor space assigned it.

Whatever course of inspection we pursue, we must never part with the historic and comparative method, two most essential conditions of the best results, alike for teacher, pupils and investigator. Before us are myriads of pictures, acres of drawings, tons of written work and car loads of specimens of manual training. We can only hint at possibilities.

The devices used are many and helpful. Here, a State tells its statistics on a rotating cylinder. Graphics are extensively used both in foreign and American exhibits, especially maps, notably by New York, Michigan and Massachusetts. Raised maps are numerous and effective. Denver sends a shorthand report of actual daily work in the school-room. New Jersey has a special device for packing and showing pictures. In several instances the phonograph repeats the actual work of classes in reading and music, or the lessons of the teacher, and the cunning of the instantaneous photograph is beyond measure. Fortunately, there is a generous amount of explanatory literature, which is freely distributed. For many exhibits gentlemen

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and ladies are present, ready to answer any questions. Did you ever go to the Catholic exhibit without finding either Brother Maurelian or some of his numerous assistants? In New York, you can have explanations in French. In the exhibit of deaf mute instruction, many find added interest in the fact that the attendant is the graduate of the deaf mute college, and is such a master of articulation that he can communicate with you with ease. Connected with Carlisle and Hampton, you will meet the Indians they have trained. In Massachusetts, you are sure at any time to find four, if not five, in attendance; for the Institute of Technology, an alumnus; for Harvard, Professor Cummings and his wife will speak in any language you desire, and for the public schools, Miss McDonald and Professor Gay will be acknowledged models of tireless courtesy and patience.

We are fortunate if we study the French exhibit during the visit of M. B. Buisson, and have the benefit of his explicit explanation. In mastering the large and effective German exhibit, we may have the historical and philosophical explanations of the eminent Dr. Stephen Waetzoldt, professor of the University of Berlin and chief commissioner of the Prussian Ministry for Education. Those who are familiar with the indebtedness of American education to Prussia, the eminent masters furnished to our schools and the valuable information we have derived from the system—principles and methods from the reports of Stowe, Mann, Bache and Barnard on Prussian education—will examine the Prussian exhibit with peculiar interest.

Furniture and text-books, so easily exhibited, are not so fully represented as might be expected, either from our own or from other countries. If the German are admitted to bear more marks of systematic and patient labor, and the French of a severer logic and a more exquisite æsthetic taste, American text-books clearly have no superiors in the matter of print, pictorial illustrations, and other characteristics of mechanical execution. In the German exhibition, there is an ingenious combination, in a teacher's desk. It has the usual conveniences for the teacher's eye and the material for his use, but it has also an arrangement connected with its back by which he may present to the eye of the class, letters, words, figures, sentences or other illustrations which he wishes to use in his lessons.

Educational journalism, both American and foreign, is present only in limited numbers.

Of the exhibition generally, it may be said, that representations are limited almost entirely to present conditions; grounds, architecture, appliances as they now are, the work of students, at a single sitting or on a given day, or completed specimens. Colorado, however, offers the model of the first district schoolhouse: Princeton, a

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picture of the log college, a model of the grounds and Nassau Hall and other characteristics. Dr. Harris, in the exhibit of the Bureau of Education, presents, in miniature models, instructive studies in the development of desks and seats. Illinois shows a process of producing stereotyped plates for the blind, reducing the cost per page from seventy-five cents to fifteen cents. France shows with effect the progress of a pupil through a series of years. Nearly forty years ago, a plan was attempted in Toledo, Ohio, for carrying out the comparison of one year's result with another during the attendance of pupils and classes. Progress in text-books may be studied in the collection exhibited by Prof. Jerome Allen, or that of Mr. Plympton. In the latter we may find specimens in arithmetic, algebra, in English, French, German, Latin and Greek, going back to and including the New England primer and the horn book, now so rare to find and so difficult to secure.

In the literature and statistics of education there is more opportunity for historic comparison. Sets of the "New England Journal of Education" recall the fact, to the credit of Dr. Bicknell, that, in its establishment, he led the way for educational journalism out of subjection to subsidies and limitation to State or specially local circulation into effective independence and national circulation and the constant draft upon information of the progress of education the world over. If we seek best known data on education, from the earliest time to the present, we shall find it in great abundance in the full series of volumes (found both in the exhibit of Mr. Bardeen and the State of Connecticut) of the "American Journal of Education," on which Dr. Henry Barnard has expended his fortune and the eminent services of his long and useful life. Further historic studies may be made in series of reports presented here and there, notably those from Connecticut, Boston, the State of Massachusetts and the Bureau of Education; and those most effective graphic statistics of Harvard, in which you may trace the descent of education by families, or the increase of its funds, or its attendance, or the influence of a single gift to its library, or a fund for establishing a separate professorship; or in the exhibit by Princeton, of the rude apparatus used by Henry in establishing the laws of electrical action; or in the New York collection, the apparatus used by Draper in his work in photography.

The organization of education is a study in itself. In the exhibit, the demarcations are easily recognizable. In foreign countries, such as Japan, Russia, Austria, Sweden, France, the authority proceeds from a national source. So for England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland; but for the colonies it is colonial. For our country and Germany there is not a national system, but education is a function of the respective States.

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The Catholic exhibit is divided into archdioceses, dioceses, the schools and colleges under the respective orders, brotherhoods and sisterhoods, in which each teacher obeys the command of the superior with the fidelity of a soldier.

Among our American States, while to a casual observer there may seem to be exact similarity, there is really great diversity. From colonial times there has been legislation with regard to education; but the growth of supervision by civil authority above that of the local civil unit, such as the town in Massachusetts, is of recent date. Knowledge of the condition of the education of children or the intelligence of its people was not what the State concerned itself about. The importance of this item of information slowly dawned upon the minds of statesmen. They cared most to know how many fighting men there were, and then about property as a basis of revenue. After a time, one of the earlier States after another began to require reports of the children of school age, of school revenues and school attendance. New York first required supervision, then abolished it, then returned to it; and in the exhibition there is disclosed a bifurcated system of State administration of education, one under the board of regents, through its secretary, and the other under the State superintendent of public instruction. The State University, under the board of regents, is an old organization. All institutions of education desiring a charter apply to it and report to it. The State library and museum, university extension and university examinations are under its direction. Under the State superintendent of public instruction are the public schools of the State, the normal schools and teachers' institutes. All appeals from local administration under the law go to him. Under him there is a system of local supervision by commissioners. Cities have a self-directed administration and supervision, in accordance with the general and specific laws enacted by the State to which they are subject. For a knowledge of the education in the State we need the reports of cities and those of the board of regents and of the State superintendent. In Massachusetts the State administration of education is committed to a non-partisan board nominated by the Governor, confirmed by the council, whose secretary is their executive officer. The great revival of education in 1837, under Horace Mann, may be said to have been begun when he became secretary of this board. In the report of the secretary or the State report of education, you find nothing about the colleges or the universities. It confines itself to the public schools and certain academies and schools for the blind, deaf and feeble-minded. The authority of the board is extremely limited. Associated with the secretary and co-operating with him is a group of expert lecturers, who, together with him, address meetings, visit

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schools and hold conferences with teachers and school officers. Towns and cities, as provided by the statutes of the State, levy their school taxes and administer their school affairs. Boston early elected as its first superintendent Nathan Bishop, who soon retired, when John D. Philbrick was chosen as his successor, under whom the Boston schools rose to their supreme efficiency as regarded by the educators of the world at that date.

In Pennsylvania, the authority is centralized in a State superintendent of public instruction. Local supervision is by cities and counties. Yet there is no State University, the nearest approach to it being the College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.

The organization in Ohio corresponds with neither of the States already described. This also appears distinctly in its exhibit, which is made by the cities of Cincinnati, Cleveland and Columbus, and several of the counties by their own action respectively. The College of Agriculture is becoming a State University, and there is lack of county supervision and no State Normal School.

In Michigan, the exhibit discloses the lack of executive power in the State school office, as in Ohio, but reveals a closer relation of the several parts of the system. Here is a great State University, which was the first in the Union to bring high schools into close relation with it. In Minnesota, the exhibit shows the close relation of all parts of the public school system, from the elementary to the secondary or high schools, and these to the university and the normal schools.

If we take up method and attempt investigation, we shall, perhaps, begin with the mother tongue. Here we find it in the songs and common language of the kindergarten. Nowhere do we hear the old "a-b, ab," and "b-a, ba" of other days. Everywhere there are improved methods. Great emphasis is placed on language lessons in the most efficient systems, whether foreign or American. Selections are furnished from the best authors, sometimes committed to memory, sometimes copied from dictation. Original compositions are required. In the last twenty years instruction in English in different parts of the United States has been entirely revolutionized. The different methods are made manifest in the varied exhibits. The diversity is hardly less marked in the methods of teaching writing. Some begin at once with both pen and pencil, like Kansas City; others begin with the pencil and later introduce the pen, as in Boston. Some contend for the upright lines, like England and Canada and different schools in the United States, and others for slant lines, like Germany and many of our own cities and schools for writing. Here, too, is every method for teaching arithmetic and geography. Generally speaking, in all subjects, from the lowest to

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the highest, there is manifest improvement. Even text-books from Turkey are modeled on the best from America. Schools of Egypt, exhibiting the Koran as the book for sacred reading, show work in manual training and letters in accord with the methods prevalent in Europe and America. Behind the exhibit from Germany there are the same well-known enforced attendance of pupils and universal training of teachers for their profession, more dependence upon the teacher and less dependence upon the text-books. Generally the work in Germany and France is characterized by systematic illustration in the lower grades. In the United States, there is abundant evidence that in these grades the abstract method is giving way to the concrete. This is especially true in teaching language. The improvements in teaching English are most marked. In the lack of authoritative co-relation of parts, or grades of educational work, in the United States, it is gratifying to see each grade, by its own intelligent action, seeking to come into appropriate, sympathetic, co-operative relations with every other. In our individualism, in which there is such untold advantage in our standing apart from each other, it is well to remember that we sometimes stand more than erect. We may lean backwards. The colleges have too long been responsible for the lack of improved methods in teaching, especially for abstract methods in our primary schools. Movements like that of Cambridge, in which Harvard University seeks to elevate, render philosophical and more nicely adapted to age and environment the instruction in elementary subjects, is full of promise. The several exhibits furnish a rich opportunity to study the facts behind the great piece of work done by the distinguished Committee of Ten. Everywhere in the American exhibit there is gratifying evidence of increasing thoughtfulness; especially of increased accentuation of the importance of improving the qualification of teachers. Examinations in knowledge of methods are more careful. The normal schools are yielding up, more and more, the work done in academic instruction, and increasing their efforts in pedagogical training. Colleges are adding chairs, with one designation and another, in the theory, history and practice of education. The *sui generis* exhibit of the Cook County Normal School was much studied in the children's building. The Oswego Normal School, that has done so much to bring the principles and methods of Pestalozzi to America, manifestly took the lead among the normal school exhibits of New York. But individual exhibits must be left to personal examination, nor will time permit any estimate of the schools of engineering or technology. It has been remarked that the exhibition of the Boston Institute of Technology is so complete and typical, that, were that institution destroyed, its main features could be reproduced from the suggestions

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of the exhibit. Here, too, is the modest but solid work of the institution at Troy, dating back to 1826, pointing to the Ferris wheel, the Brooklyn bridge, and other triumphs of its graduates, as the evidence of its merit. Nor can we pause to linger around the colleges and universities. In these grades of work, we are deeply impressed with the magnificent equipment and thoroughness of university instruction in Germany.

What the exhibition was to foreign educators we must not attempt to describe. They specially took in, in connection with the exhibit, what they could see elsewhere in the country, and especially in Chicago. Everywhere they felt the absence of the union of Church and State, and the absence of militarism, demanding, as on the continent, a portion of all young and vigorous life, and an absence, too, of the surrender of the masses to the classes. The number of eminent foreigners who visited us was very large. We shall find much in their reports to instruct us. Already Compayre has expressed his surprise at the rapid growth of our universities and their rich endowment from private sources, and Jules Steeg has declared that a part of this portion of our exhibit seemed to him childish. Dr. Waetzoldt reports favorably upon our improvements in methods of elementary instruction, especially in teaching language.

Taking the exhibit of education in connection with other portions of the exposition, one cannot fail to be impressed with the power of education in saving nations from disorder and imparting to them conditions of national progress. Here we may catch hints of evidence that England avoided a foreshadowed revolution by aiding industrial and technical education and establishing a system of elementary schools; that France in recent years, by an almost superhuman effort, in advancing education among the people, has avoided anarchy and confirmed an orderly republic; that Japan, by a wise use of education, sprung from her seclusion to her front rank among the nations. We are made to feel the power and unity of education for every member of every race, no matter what his characteristics. It means alike for the lowest and the highest of every type an enlargement of the boundaries of knowledge, a training of all the faculties and powers to improved activities, quickening the reason, confirming the conscience and aligning the decision of every one more and more with reason and right. In the provision for reading beyond the school period, we see evidence that France, in its recent efforts, and parts of the United States, have outstripped other portions of the world. No community of similar territory, with equal population, excels Massachusetts in this important means of assuring progress of intelligence among the people. Her libraries bring a supply of reading matter within the reach of over ninety-seven per cent of her

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people. In the exhibit of the Bureau of Education, by the co-operation of the American Library Association, we may see a model library and its administration, learn about schools for librarians, and look up the library question in all its bearings.

There is general surprise expressed at the great progress of kindergarten and manual training in the last twenty years in the United States. Whether our stay with the exhibit of education is longer or shorter, we shall leave with the opinion that it was well to make it, well for schools to prepare for it, well to furnish opportunities to study its principles, methods and results. For myself, it will be remembered by some, when, by invitation, we discussed the method of preparation for the exhibit, that my experience pointed to the best results in the United States by moving under the auspices of the National Bureau. This is our national agency, equally available for all States, localities, institutions and interests. And now, at the close of the exhibition, you will allow me to say that these opinions are most fully confirmed.

What the disseminating power of the fair is to be, no one can fully foresee. It is clear, however, that it will be determined largely by yourselves, and those like you, who are appointed to extend their influence into the future by educative processes, whether by the arts, or trades, or by speech or by the press, or the more formal processes of direct instruction of youthful minds. How much of this great responsibility falls to you was incidentally pointed out in the poetic language of the "Autocrat of the Breakfast Table" at your last meeting:

> Teacher of teachers! Yours the task
> Noblest that noble minds can ask,
> High up Fonia's murmurous mount,
> To watch, to guard the sacred fount
> That fills the stream below;
> To guide the hurrying flood that fills
> A thousand silvery rippling rills
> In ever-widening flow.

Any visitor to the fair will often think of Victor Hugo's declaration, that the nineteenth century is woman's century, and then he will confess, too, that it is the workingman's century, and then that it is the child's century; that its great movement is towards a clearer definition and realization of man's essentials and of his relation, as child, as man, as woman, to his Creator, and that thus it is promoting the removal of artificial burdens and obstructions, and making the course clearer for man's mastery over nature, and for his triumphant progress in the destiny divinely offered him.

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DISCUSSION.

ALBERT G. LANE, Superintendent of Schools, Chicago.—Having watched the development and growth of the whole exhibit at Chicago, I often deliberated and questioned as to what were its contributions to education. I find that the educational papers and gatherings throughout the country are disposed to turn away from the national exhibit, which was presented there with so much pride, and to say, that was a very poor, ineffective representation of the great work of education; that if there was to be any presentation of what the educational system of this country has accomplished, it would be found in the lives and characters and in the noble sentiments and in the broad thoughts for future manhood which were presented in the congresses, and which were the outgrowth of the instruction of the masses of the people of our country through the common school. There are some things which will result from the material exhibits which were presented there. We are apt to think that because a few representative schools in great cities like Boston, New York, Brooklyn, Cleveland and Chicago can present a manual training school, with its perfect outfit, and because a few of them have introduced kindergartens, that manual training and kindergarten instruction have become a part of the elementary school system. Because, in the secondary schools, we have introduced something of the laboratory methods employed in the best colleges, we may think that they are being developed in all the advanced grades; and that the whole country has already taken this high stand, and is in the front rank of progress as compared with the countries of the world. This is not true; for when you study these exhibits, you will find the written examination, which was the reproduction of the text-book, showing simply the pressure upon the memory and the taxing of mind to comprehend the thoughts of an author. As a result of these conditions, which indicate unprepared and professionally untrained teachers, we have a right to demand, in every part of our country, that the work of teaching shall be exalted, and that those who are to be placed in charge of the training of human minds shall be prepared for that work. We, who are superintendents and teachers, should demand this in all the cities, counties and States of this country. The colleges are showing that they appreciate this demand, because they are beginning to throw open their doors to teachers and are establishing departments for pedagogical training. Although this exhibit shows many examples of weakness, it at the same time reveals the possibilities that are before us in the education and training of children. But until we can raise the standard of teaching, both in our rural schools and in our great cities, we cannot expect great advancement.

THE IMPROVEMENT OF RURAL TEACHERS.

BY S. S. PARR, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ST. CLOUD, MINN.

This paper rests on a few assumptions, which will not now be argued, but accepted as true:

1. That much of current education rests on State socialism, one of the forms of collectivist action now in general use. Its antipode is individualism. Between these extreme points there has always been, and will continue to be, constant oscillation.

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2. Any form of school is but one of a circle of educative agencies. It may not safely assume the functions of other members of the series.

3. The central condition in bettering any class of schools is improvement of their instructors.

4. Professional knowledge has been carried out of proportion to its foundation of academic intelligence.

The tide of State socialism, which began to rise in this country early in the century, soon entered upon the policy of taking education out of the hands of the Church and the individual, and putting it into the keeping of the State. The first step was to remove whatever of support depended on the old-time rate-bills and subscription lists and found it upon the tax chest. This is asserted to be *par excellence* the American idea. In so far as the instrumentality of the State is necessary to secure training for purposes of equality and liberty, this is the American idea. But to the extent that this policy took training, which he could better do for himself, away from the individual, it is old-world paternalism, except that it substitutes political majorities and irresponsible legislative bodies for the Church and the Nobility of the Old World.

To realize State education there must be officials whose business it is to cultivate a supply of teachers; there must be nurseries of skill for germinating improved modes of teaching, and there must be annual showers of inspiration and information to build up and encourage the workers. Out of these conditions arose the county superintendent, the State normal school and the county institute.

The county superintendent was to furnish that expert supervision which should turn crudity into skill, callowness into experience, and the shreds from school text-books into scholarship. The new providence of supervision was heralded to fill the long-felt want and would bring to the "ragged beggar sunning," the benefits that towns and cities secure for themselves by expert direction of their teachers. How well this ideal has been realized is best answered by noting the swiftly moving stream of incumbents whose average of tenure is too short to free them from the dust of their political race and to permit any sort of experienced skill. How well the high hopes of advent have become ripened fruit may not inaptly be guessed by looking in upon the swearing, drinking, smoking, always trading, erstwhile fighting, conventions whose currency for traffic and barter the county superintendency generally is. Of the long list of educational panaceas and patent instrumentalities, this office has perhaps descended to a lower level of failure than any other. It has done nothing claimed for it, but instead has let loose a Pandora box of ills begotten in the ooze of trading politics upon the country schools.

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After nearly, or quite, forty years of trial, what praise or blame is due the normal school for its influence on the class of schools we are considering? Has its effect been to raise or lower the quality of the rural school instructor?

In a survey intended to measure the effect of reformatory and expansive measures, the method must be a broadly comparative one. Change is not necessarily progress. That this country has made giant strides in wealth, material power and intelligence cannot be questioned. No more can one doubt that rural neighborhoods have participated in this progress. Except in mere numerical supremacy, they are, however, clearly behind town and city. They have lost their relative rank in wealth, comfort and ability to control their own affairs. What is the much heralded agricultural depression which weighs down the tillers of the soil but the sag and sink of rural inequality? Compared with their own past, farmers as a class are wealthier, have less drudgery and more to make life desirable than they had fifty years ago. It is only when comparisons measure them with urban classes that their poverty and ignorance become apparent.

The schools of rural communities have not kept pace with the advancing general intelligence of their patrons. The progressive flood of ideas which characterizes modern democracy, accompanying rapid transit, the newspaper, steam machinery, inventions and easy mixing of population into every nook and corner, has raised popular knowledge and enlightenment far above the level of rural school training. The same may doubtless be asserted of city intelligence, but the schools of cities have more nearly ridden the rising tide of general development than have their country counterparts. If both kinds of schools have felt the impulse of growing enlightenment less than society in general, country schools have been markedly the most impervious to it.

The country schools have led a merry reel of change from schoolmaster to school mistress, through "individual instruction" and no curriculum to eight grades and a full-fledged course of study, with reading circles, summer schools, institutes and expert supervision, back to that point in the circle from which they started, and they are now apparently ready to ask, What next? Some of this movement has been progress, but much of it certainly has had no upward action.

But what effect upon the changes in question has the normal school had? It cannot be separated from the week-long institute, the summer school, the teachers' reading circle, and like agencies. These instrumentalities have a common quality. They all put stress upon so-called professional knowledge. Their war-cry is "method,"

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and everything is looked at from the angle of specific modes of imparting instruction. If they attempt academic training, that element is always a subordinate one. In branches of academic knowledge their pupils are assumed to be relatively educated. Their concern is, as soon as possible, to get at the business of teaching how to teach. They are thus the apotheosis of individualized plan!

Policies are always larger than particular forms of action. Let us examine somewhat carefully the policy which underlies the work of these institutions. They are all engaged in doing substantially the same thing, viz., letting those who are relatively untrained into the business of teaching, with the hope that somehow they will prepare themselves after they are in it. This is particularly true with reference to their influence upon the rural schools. Graduates of normal schools rarely stay in them a day beyond the probationary period necessary to insure their election in a town or city. The best products of institutes and summer schools follow the same road. Only undergraduates and persons of smaller attainments remain behind.

But, were State normal schools to put a graduate into every rural schoolhouse, it would still be true that their business is that of placing persons who are academically below a standard of sufficient scholarship in the teacher's chair upon the supposition that they will remedy their deficiencies and acquire the missing knowledge. Of course, in a sense, the college or high school graduate who enters teaching is deficient in scholarship. However, his deficiencies are not so vital as those of his professionally trained brother, and, what is equally to the point, he is not tempted to obscure the value of knowledge by overestimation of method. Whatever ability to command better trained pupils may, in the future, do to redeem the present condition of normal school training, its valuation of specific modes of instruction is excessive, and tends to lower the tone of all classes of common school teachers, but particularly those of the country.

Institute and summer school training has taken its cue from the work of State normal schools. It goes at the task of teaching methods to persons who are mere tyros in the subjects themselves. Teachers who cannot perform the commonest processes of fractions or percentage without reference to a book for rules, are taught "methods in arithmetic," and those whose tidal mark of historical lore is confined to a few commonplaces of fact and date, learn "methods in history." And so it goes! Nineteen out of every twenty, outside of a few favored localities, are persons of such level of attainments. Gradually the element of method has grown until in some States so-called professional work has entirely taken possession of the program of instruction. Specialties in psychology, method, child study and the history of education are taught to persons who have no foundation of

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previous general acquaintance with them. This is a complete inversion of the correct order, for which the normal school is almost entirely responsible.

We have said that policies are larger than the particular deeds which arise under their guidance. The policies of normal school, summer school, institute and reading circle are one. They subordinate scholarship to method, and tend to fill positions with persons who must get the essentials of scholarship after they enter the business of teaching. The effect of this wrong action is to depress the quality of preparation commanded by country schools. Nobody will say they have absolutely retrograded in scholarship; such is not the case. But two things hold good: (1) The intelligence employed in teaching has not kept pace with the general intelligence of the country; and (2) the maturity and experience of rural teachers have steadily deteriorated.

We have exchanged the old field schoolmaster, half vagabond, half scholarly gentleman, for a young woman. In point of purity and unspoiledness, this is great gain. The old master almost always used tobacco, often whisky and profanity, and sometimes had an acquaintance with the seamy side of life that makes cold chills run over one when he thinks that this man might be the companion and trusted friend of budding girlhood. But this nomad, who roamed from district to district, was a mature man, who had sounded the heights and depths of adult experience, and, if pure and good, was fit to be a leader of the young. Often he had lighted his torch at the glowing blaze of college or academy, so that he had passed the estate of the mere tyro, and possessed some of that deeper inspiring power which comes from drinking deep of the Pierian spring. Always, whatever his estate of scholarship, he had that knowledge of men and affairs which our unpsychological fathers called "knowledge of human nature."

The woman who took the place of the old field master was only a sojourner. Teaching was but the diversion of a day. Her election and calling found themselves beyond the schoolhouse, beside some true man's hearth. She was sweet and pure; her nature was fresh and unspoiled. Her ability to sympathize with children was greatly in advance of that of her predecessor, and consequently her power of teaching the younger ones exceeded his. But she was not a scholar, knew little of books, did not hold the keys of experience which unlock the deeper meanings of life, and consequently must be limited to the mechanical aspect of what she taught. Her ideals of action must of necessity be trivial. She had little drawing power for the older pupils of the district. Fewer and fewer "big scholars" found their way through the door of her school-room.

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A superfluity of method and of educational novelties proved too much for the old master. When examinations began to consist of psychology and method,—things not even heard of in his younger days,—he thought it time to look up another calling. He took a recess, never to return. The few who lingered and hoped to find a talisman in the instruction of the institute and the summer school, found the new metaphysics insurmountable and excused themselves as gracefully as possible and went the way of their fellows.

The result has been to constantly weaken scholarship, and to furnish younger and younger women. A generation ago it was not uncommon to find a teachers' meeting made up of persons twenty-five to fifty years of age. To-day many of our Northwestern gatherings will not average over nineteen. Not only are rural teachers young, but they are, too, of brief tenure. The average for the western half of the country is about three years of employment, a year consisting of six or seven months. This time is so short that it does not afford opportunity for mere newness to wear off. Trained and experienced skill is quite out of the question. The teaching force of country schools is thus mainly composed of girls on the divide between childhood and womanhood, immature, inexperienced and lacking in scholarship. Many of them prattle about topics of instruction as children babble about their toys. They are childish leaders of children.

The reign of methods has had much to do with this. It drove out the old masters. Its technicalities proved unsolvable conundrums to their old fashioned views of education. The same tendencies drive the older women out in favor of those fresh from coaching in the novelties that often form the staple of this kind of knowledge. However well one may be "posted," three or four years change the styles, and a new crop of devices, a new range of "fads" comes upon the educational boards, and the person who was up with the times thirty-six moons before is an old fogy now! Can anything be more absurd? The evil effects go on multiplying themselves indefinitely. Having created this condition of teacher-supply, in our efforts to get rid of it we continue to add new features to the system. The occasional institute became the annual State or county institute. This in turn, in many States, has developed into the summer school. The single State normal school has evolved into a "system" of local institutions, which re-enact the tragedy of Sisyphus, by attempting to roll up the whole supply of instructors for the schools, through turning out an army of briefly temporary incumbents.

What is the remedy? First, sound preparation in subjects. Jacotot's absurd antinomy that anybody can teach anything, whether he know it or not, provided he can arouse the pupil concerning the

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thing, has been taken too literally with regard to preparation for the instructor's duties. The first requisite to good teaching is a thorough knowledge of the subjects to be taught and their allied branches. The instructor whose heels are just ahead of the steps of his pupils, so that occasionally the latter tramp them, is a poor teacher. The learner needs to pattern his strides after a master who easily swings out of his way.

Second, some effective way of choosing the county superintendent. Political election has demonstrated its complete inability. It fails at every point. Supervisors chosen by it are generally from the lower half of their class. They are, as a rule, neither scholars, nor educational experts, but persons of small school training, who have allied themselves with the trading politicians. There are, of course, some honorable exceptions to this disheartening quality, but they serve only to prove the rule. Appointment by a non-partisan board is the only means so far found to remedy this defect. The people in their collective capacity are not able to know who is expert, and who is not, and are therefore under necessity of delegating their choice to some man, or small body of men, who can get the necessary information.

Third, greater age and more experience in those who teach. If women are to follow the business of country school teaching, the conditions need to be such as will keep them longest. Men would be better, because they could remain at their posts throughout life, and make a business of their calling. Women will not do this. Their stay in the instructorial chair is a side trip on the excursion of their lives; that is, finding their places at the head of that earthly paradise, the good home. The most powerful force acting toward the end of continuity and continuance in the vocation is the requirement of good preparation before letting candidates in. The present plan of letting them into the business and seeking afterwards to educate them seems supreme folly. And yet is not such really the policy followed? If not, what then mean our institutes, summer schools, reading circles and temporary certificates? Fully three-fourths of those certificated are in reality unprepared. The policy of letting in unprepared candidates tends to constantly increase the number of such who attempt to find some loophole into the business of instruction. The opposite policy is the true one. Compel good preparation as a *sine qua non* for admission. This, at first, might close up some schools, but, if the tenure were made more certain, and the wages a little higher, the conclusion must inevitably be to raise the standard of scholarship and experience. There would then be an incentive to adequate preparation, which the present policy discourages in favor of the temporary training of the institute and similar agencies.

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DISCUSSION.

HON. JOHN E. MASSEY, State Superintendent of Virginia.—I do not suppose that he who framed this question meant by it to say that our city teachers did not need improvement, but he meant by it to say that our country teachers, perhaps, were in more need of it, and that they had less facilities for obtaining improvement.

There is another reason, I suppose, why there is special interest felt in the improvement of the teachers of country schools. If I could send our college graduates to normal schools, and our normal graduates to colleges, I think we might then possibly get the desiderata. Some people go to our normal schools so poorly equipped for their work, that though they may be taught well in all the methods of teaching, when they go out they do not know the subjects that they are themselves to teach, and I am very sure that we would find some of the graduates of our colleges and universities who would scarcely know where to begin and how to proceed in the school-room. They need proper training for the work. I do not know that all of them would ever be qualified for it if they should go through all this. Education can never give what nature has refused, and there are some who undertake the work of teaching who must soon be convinced that they have mistaken their calling and had better go at something else. I believe that, in our common schools, we undertake to teach too many things in a little space. I wish we knew everything of everything, but I believe it is better to know everything of something than something of everything and not to understand properly any one thing. In these rural schools, when we know that the session is to be very short and that the pupils who enter will only be able to go through a very small part of the curriculum which we lay down, what ought we to do? It seems to me that we should confine our teaching very largely to those studies which will be brought into practical use by those enjoying them. Education is not an end, but a means to an end. It is designed to qualify for the practical duties of life. We cannot send all our teachers to college; we cannot send them all to normal schools. I am speaking now from a home view of the matter. The best that I have been able to do, is to hold, in addition to our normal schools for training, and in addition to our high schools, academies and colleges for higher culture, summer normal schools, and get into them as many teachers as we possibly can, and get the best instructors we can, both as to what to teach and how to teach it. The next best thing I can do is to have teachers' institutes in the various counties, and teachers' associations in each county, so that they may be gotten together. If the mountain won't come to Mahomet, Mahomet must go to the mountain. We look to the rural districts for the men who are to rule the world. I suppose I am not arrogating too much in behalf of these rural districts when I say, that if you trace the history of our country and of its prominent men you will find it was only a sporadic case when one originated in the city. What do we need for improving the teachers of rural schools?

HON. J. R. PRESTON, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Jackson, Miss.—We have in this subject the serious problem of American education. I approach it with great diffidence, with great seriousness. Looking at it from the broad standpoint of the whole nation, it is difficult to lay down lines of improvement for the whole country, and to state propositions applicable alike in Maine and in Texas. The degrees of progress are different. The environment and the needs of the various sections do not correspond. One essential factor is common to all. The surviving population of this Republic—that which must perpetually

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renovate and counteract the decadence of urban centers—is the rural population. Unless these be educated to meet the demands of a straining and fast-striding civilization, and be cultured to a degree far above that which they have attained or can acquire in the rural schools of to-day, the Republic will grow weak at the very point where it needs to reinforce its vital power.

The paper just read presents a dolorous view of the condition of rural schools in the Northwest, that section of marvelous development and brilliant achievement. In the country schools of my own State, about which I have been so long concerned, I find the same elements of weakness, the same need of improvement. He looked back, with favoring contrast, to the artisans and the farmers who used to teach his schools between times of occupation at their trades. In the light of the nineteenth century and amid the demands of this progressive civilization there is no longer need, and should be no further toleration, of artisans as teachers of the children of these great American commonwealths. What shall we do? I can answer that question in one statement: If we are to have teachers who can do this work as it should be done, we must put more money into the business. The American people are not half in earnest about education. In proof of this I need only cite that they expend $185,000,000 a year in pensions and only $140,000,000 a year in the education of the youth of the whole land. I am not discussing the propriety of pensions, but I do say that the American people must expend $500,000,000 for education before they demonstrate real earnestness in the cause. That is the fundamental principle of all progress and improvement. Get people to put money into a business, and they will follow their investment with eager attention and persistent zeal, and will give it all individual and corporate support needed to effect its highest purposes. The gentleman from Virginia proposes, as a remedy for the defects in our rural schools, to take an A. M. of the university, give him two years or four years of training in a normal school and thus equip him to teach. He is not satisfied with a graduate of either kind of school. He wants a superbly equipped corps of teachers. I say, amen! but must ask: What do you offer as pay? Do you expect to get such talent for twenty-five dollars, or thirty dollars, or forty dollars a month, for four, or at best eight, months a year? The vital question underlying our whole civilization must be answered by the public schools of America. The perpetuity of the Republic depends upon the education of the masses. Let it cost what it may, the American people, as they stand among nations the champions of human liberty and free government, must get in earnest about this vital question, must put more money into the education of the masses; must utilize their very highest and best talent to teach and train the coming generation.

The author of the paper regrets the fact, that under present system of examinations the teacher of maturity and experience was crowded out of the work, because he did not have time to prepare himself and the inclination to keep up with new lines of development. I dissent from that view entirely. That is a good thing, instead of a bad one. All nature is pruning continually. The teaching corps of every State in this Union needs pruning—thorough, continuous pruning—from year to year. I proclaimed that doctrine when I first went into the office of State superintendent.

Through the instrumentality of State uniform examinations, this pruning was done. We established uniform examinations in 1886. They are divested of sentiment and are full of business from bottom to top, and the teacher without scholarship cannot honestly pass. If uniform examinations are made and executed as they ought to be, they will eliminate most of these inaccurate and superficial teachers who can now get positions in country schools.

I am a firm advocate of examinations—thorough, straight and strict examinations—such as will test the scholarship of a teacher. The State not only has the

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right to examine and see that its teachers are qualified before they go into the schools, but it ought to exercise that right with such vigor as will save the children from all incompetents.

After judicious pruning, the next thing to do is to stimulate the growth of what is left. How can we best do that? First, we must provide for an influx of well-prepared material into the teaching corps. The normal school is the surest agency to equip this constant increment. In passing, I will say that, while the State of Mississippi has done nothing for its white teachers on this line, it has, from the beginning of its educational system, maintained a normal school for the education of colored teachers. Last year we established in our university a chair of pedagogy. The serious problem after all is to promote and sustain growth in the corps of teachers in actual service. The meager stipend they receive will not make the service attractive to graduates of Johns Hopkins. Effective agencies to stimulate this growth will be found in the summer normal district institute, in professional libraries, and in the county institute.

The district institutes should continue not less than one month and should have a course of instruction extending through three years. They constitute normal school extension and should give instruction in the subject-matter of the text-books, in method, in pedagogics. They will serve to refresh and extend scholarship, to engender professional pride, to create a desire to know what and how to teach.

The county institutes of one week's duration can be made little more than meetings of revival and inspiration. They may deal serviceably with questions of discipline, and such matters as affect local environments. The conductors should be instructed from year to year, by the most eminent educationists, who can set before them the highest ideals of what it is to teach. Carefully selected conductors, thus trained, and sent into the counties, will create among the teachers professional spirit, enthusiasm, love of teaching, serious devotion to duty—a positive uplift for the years to come.

These two kinds of institutes lead up logically to the professional library, which, in my judgment, is the strongest agency for permanent improvement. Such libraries constitute an instrument for the improvement of teachers, and furnish opportunities for development which nothing else will give. Get the contents of one good pedagogical book into a young teacher's mind; have one book mastered at the proper time in life, and you have opened the avenue to all true future progress; and, what is better, a stimulant is applied which cannot fail to make growth in all directions.

Besides these agencies, I believe, that, in the administration of rural schools, we need for every ten schools a strong supervising principal, whose duty shall be to develop the teachers while engaged in their actual work and see that the teaching is properly done.

THE CARE OF TRUANTS AND INCORRIGIBLES.

BY EDWIN P. SEAVER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BOSTON, MASS.

Boys who will not go to school when they ought and boys who are so ill-behaved when they do go that teachers have good reasons to wish they had stayed away—these are the truants and incorrigibles who must be taken care of, if education in this country is to become

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universal in fact as well as in purpose, and so do its full work in training to good citizenship and in preventing crime. Little matters it whether the boy is out of school from his own waywardness, his parents' neglect or the willingness of teachers to be rid of a troublesome pupil; in any case, he stands for a failure in education and is a source of danger to the commonwealth.

How to care for such boys (and girls, too; for there are such girls); how to keep them in a school where they must work steadily, behave well and learn to cherish some worthy purpose in life—this we may call our truancy problem.

Primarily, the truancy problem is an educational problem for school authorities to deal with, not a matter of municipal regulation for police magistrates to manage. Not until truancy, neglected and unchecked, has led to positive crime, ought the truant to be handed over to the criminal jurisdiction. Not until education has exhausted all means of prevention and reformation, should the truant be surrendered to the police magistrates for punishment.

The distinction here implied is of the greatest moment, though often overlooked or ignored. Let it be properly emphasized.

Truancy is not in itself a crime; but it is the dangerous way that leads many a boy into crime. The boy who has broken away from the restraints of home and school is not, by that act, a criminal, though he is giving rein to tendencies that will soon make him one. He is in grave danger, but timely care may save him.

Now, if the truant is not a criminal, it is an injurious mistake to treat him as if he were. It is worse; it is a crime against society. Restraint he certainly needs; but the restraint of confinement in a prison, or even in a reformatory, with criminal companionship, destroys at once the best chance there is of saving him from crime. For that best chance depends on keeping his self-respect unimpaired, which cannot be done if he becomes an inmate of a penal institution. Every inmate of such an institution well knows, whatever the cause of his commitment and however correct a life he may lead after release, he must ever afterward bear a certain stigma for having served a sentence in a place set apart for the detention of criminals. A hard and unjust fate this may be, but there is no help for it. It is the way the world has of looking at such things, and the boy knows this just as well as we do.

Therefore does the hope of saving the truant from a criminal career depend on his being kept, as long as as possible, out of the criminal jurisdiction. His self-respect must be guarded and cherished as the very germ of that better life that is to be awakened and strengthened in him. The place set apart for his detention, instruction and discipline ought not to be the jail, the workhouse or the reformatory; but it should be a separate establishment, wholly

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distinct and apart from penal institutions, and managed by the educational authorities of the city, county or State, not by the penal authorities.

These remarks, and the conclusion drawn from them, seem fairly to sum up the teachings of experience in the administration of compulsory school attendance laws in those parts of the country where such laws are enforced. A brief review of this experience may therefore be interesting.

When really earnest efforts began to be made in Massachusetts to enforce the school attendance laws, it became necessary for towns and cities to provide places for the detention of truants. The places selected were generally unsuitable; in some cases extremely so. The prevailing idea among the officials seemed to be that the truant was a sort of malefactor, for whom any place of imprisonment was good enough. He was to be punished—that was the main thing—by being detained in a disagreeable place and compelled to do hard and disagreeable tasks, until he should be glad to pay for his liberty by going to school regularly; and his disagreeable experience should be a warning to other boys. Vindictive justice, not reformatory training, seemed to be the guiding principle. Accordingly, truants were sent to the town almshouses, or to houses of correction, or to reform schools, or to any place where they could be kept from running away, and forced to work.

But, in time, there grew up among thoughtful people the opinion, that such treatment of truants was not only ineffectual for the purpose intended, but positively injurious. The evil, which should have been cured, was only intensified. The remedy was worse than the disease. Frequent cases were cited which tended to prove that ill-managed truant schools—that is, truant prisons—were only primary schools of vice and crime.

The late Henry F. Harrington, for many years the able superintendent of schools in New Bedford, eloquently protested, in his official reports, against the city almshouse being assigned as a place for the detention of truants in that city, and against the sort of care and training they received in that place. He declared with emphasis, that by no official act of his would he become responsible for sending a single truant to that place. Not that the officers in charge were cruel or unfaithful; but they were much better fitted for their ordinary duties than they were for the delicate and difficult task of reforming wayward boys.

But, perhaps the most conspicuous example of this bad system of caring for truants was to be found in the so-called truant school at Boston. Happily, this school is soon to be abolished, and in place of it a new school, to be organized and managed on a far better theory, is nearly ready to start. This will be known as the "Parental

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School," and some notice will be taken of it in a later part of this paper.

There is a large and once pleasant island in Boston harbor, whose name, Deer Island, has acquired in recent years an unpleasant notoriety; for it has become in the popular mind a synonym for city prison. A broad expanse of water separates this island from other land in all directions save one, and here the tide runs through a deep channel with such force that attempts to escape by swimming are quite likely to end fatally. The great natural advantages of such an island as a site for the House of Correction, the House of Industry, and other such institutions, were readily enough perceived by the city authorities. The impassable gulf of waters served the purpose and saved the cost of high prison walls.

Here, too, naturally enough, under the influence of ideas current forty years ago, was placed the House of Reformation for Juvenile Offenders, commonly known as the Reform School. This is the institution which has received all boys convicted of truancy in Boston down to the present time. For convenience of classification, there has been maintained within the institution a certain distinction between the truants and the other boys, the former being called the "truant school" and the latter the "reform school." But both "schools" are to all intents and purposes one and the same. The so-called truant school of Boston, therefore, has no real and separate existence; it is merely a department in the House of Reformation for Juvenile Offenders, maintained for convenience of administration. All this, however, is soon to be changed. The truants are to be cared for in some school wholly separate from the House of Reformation, and situated at a distance from it and all similar institutions.

The selection of Deer Island as a place for the detention of truants and juvenile offenders was, as has been said, natural enough forty years ago. Little account was then taken of the effect of the criminal associations of the place upon the minds of the young candidates for reformation. The one thing certain was that the boys could not possibly escape from the island, as boys were constantly doing from other reform schools, giving the officers infinite trouble in recapturing them. In those days, the lesson had not been learned that right treatment of boys, even if they are "tough characters" and doers of criminal deeds, is more powerful to hold them in place than are bolts and bars and high walls. The reform school was formerly understood to be and practically was nothing more nor less than a boy's prison. The only advantages it possessed over the common jail were these two: (1) The boys were instructed in school studies a part of every day, and (2) they were not exposed to the society of older and harder criminals.

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But modern experience has proved beyond a doubt that bolts and bars and high walls and prison-like discipline are wholly out of place and injurious in juvenile reformatories; and the same ought to be even more true of truant schools. The practical success of such reform schools as that at Plainfield in Indiana, or that at Waukesha in Wisconsin, or that at Lansing in Michigan, or that near Providence in Rhode Island, or that at Westborough in Massachusetts (since its reorganization and removal to open premises) leaves no open question on this subject. We now know by practical demonstration that the best way to keep boys in a reform school is to place no barriers in their way. Let them run away if they wish, (sometimes they will run away, though not so frequently as under close confinement), but rely on right methods of treatment and discipline to hold them; not soft methods, nor sentimental methods, but strong, kind and right methods.

The unsuitableness of the House of Reformation on Deer Island as a place for the detention of truants has been strongly felt in Boston for many years. One manifestation of this is seen in the increasing unwillingness on the part of magistrates to send boys who are merely truants "down to the Island." There has been a growing practice of putting complaints for truancy on file, in the hope the truant might see his danger and mend his ways. But often the truancy complained of has been accompanied by criminal acts which make the case really more serious. In such cases the boy is usually "sent down," the complaint for truancy being resorted to merely as a means of giving him a shorter term in the House of Reformation than he would get under a criminal complaint. So it has come to pass that the so-called truant school on Deer Island is hardly a truant school at all, but only a primary reform school. The consequence has been that truants have been allowed to ripen into juvenile criminals before they were taken hold of in real earnest. Measures to cure truancy in its early stages have been delayed until a worse disorder has made its appearance.

Another strong reason for hesitating about sending a mere truant or comparatively innocent juvenile offender down to the Island has been the stigma thereby entailed, and the consequent lasting injury to the boy's self-respect. Self-respect, as already pointed out, must be the main thing to rely upon in the work of reform. This stigma is all the more serious from the fact that the reputation of having "been down to the Island" may mean that one has served time, not merely in the "truant school," or in the "reform school," but in the House of Correction or in the House of Industry. People do not stop to make distinctions.

To show how cruelly this stigma may be used, let us take a case the like of which has happened more than once. A truant boy is

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sent down to the Island for a short term, we will suppose, and afterwards, having repented his waywardness, has grown up to be an honest, steady man. One day he is called into court as a witness, and he gives his testimony. He is cross-examined, but is unshaken, because he has told the truth. In conclusion, he is asked: "Have you ever been convicted of crime?" "No, sir." "Ever served time at Deer Island?" "Yes." "That will do; you may step down." It is of no use for him to explain that he was at the Island a short time when a boy for truancy. The poisoned arrow has hit the mark. The jury's mind has been prejudiced, and our grown-up truant boy feels that his early fault will never be forgotten. So it too often is.

Realizing the evils growing out of the system that had been practiced in Boston for many years, the friends of a better system made repeated applications to the city government, and, failing there, to the State legislature for a complete separation of the so-called truant school from its connections and surroundings, by the removal of it from Deer Island to some suitable place on the mainland. After some years of continued opposition from those who did not wish to have the existing system disturbed, a law was passed requiring the city of Boston to do, without further delay, what had so long and so greatly needed to be done. Here is the first section of the law:

> The city of Boston shall forthwith, upon being requested thereto by the school committee of said city, establish on the mainland, at some place removed from institutions occupied by criminals or vicious persons, a parental school for the confinement, discipline and instruction of minor children convicted (of truancy, etc.).

This law was passed in 1886, but for nearly five years compliance with it was delayed, and annual attempts were made before the legislature to amend it in a manner to deprive it of its original intent, so obstinate was the opposition of those who desired to save the old order of things unchanged. A review of the long controversy would show how gradually the right principles of dealing with truants and with juvenile offenders became clearly established in the public mind. It was a long "campaign of education."

Meanwhile, outside of Boston, in the State of Massachusetts, the movement for better care and discipline of truants and incorrigibles had made itself felt. Some good county truant schools have been established lately, among the best being that for Worcester county. To Hon. John W. Dickinson, Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, belongs the credit of persistent effort and ultimate success in this movement in the State of Massachusetts at large.

In other States, too, particularly in large cities, experience has been much the same as in Boston, and has led thoughtful people to adopt much the same views concerning the proper solution of the truancy problem. Evidence is abundant. Two short quotations must suffice.

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The first is from the report of a special committee to the city council of Cleveland, Ohio, 1891. It gives the conclusions of the committee, drawn from the facts and opinions submitted by many eminent and well informed citizens:

In the judgment of the committee, there is an imperative necessity of providing some house, refuge or asylum for the reception of the city's waifs and youthful offenders, who are not yet confirmed criminals. It seems equally clear that the needed institution ought to be wholly separated from the city workhouse, or any other penal institution. A careful investigation on the ground and collected information bearing on the subject clearly show that the State Industrial School at Lancaster is not well adapted to the necessities of the case, and it is incumbent on the city to make suitable provision for such necessities. * * * Boys positively criminal should be sent to the State school at Lancaster, and not associated with the unfortunate, or simply wayward, boys, who should be cared for directly by the city. This matter of wholly separating criminals and non-criminals has received much study of late years, and the unequivocal, and almost unanimous, verdict of the ablest penologists of this land and other lands is, that such separation be rigidly maintained. The "segregate" or "cottage" system, in which families of forty or fifty live by themselves in separate buildings, seems preferable to the "congregate" system, in which hundreds are housed together. It enables the classification of inmates to be made, and makes easier the work of reformation in many ways.

The second quotation is from a report to the Humane Society in Rochester, N. Y., 1891:

The re-establishment of a truant-house in Rochester is urgently needed. There are many children who refuse to go to school, and over whom their parents have not sufficient control. Such children ought to be brought up under kind but strict discipline. But there is no place for them. They have committed no crime, and ought not to be placed in a penal institution. Then, there are children whose parents serve a term in the penitentiary. The children have done no wrong, but they have been surrounded by vice and have lived under the most corrupting influences, so that they ought not to be brought into contact with other children until after a period of probation. For such as these, a truant-house would be a great blessing. Neither this, however, nor the temporary shelter of the Humane Society, would receive children for whom a place is now provided elsewhere.

For further evidence we may turn to England. The truancy problem has received much attention of late in that country. There, as here, it has become evident that education, to become universal and fully efficient, must be both free and compulsory, and that the compulsory school attendance laws must be faithfully executed. Hence the need of truant schools.

While the plans for the new parental school were under consideration by the school committee of Boston, a member of that body visiting England,* inspected some of the truant schools there, and gathered valuable documentary information, which supports some of the views already expressed and which was of use in shaping some features of the parental school in Boston.

* Mr. Samuel B. Capen, lately president of the school committee.

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Truant schools in England are regarded as wholly distinct in purpose from reformatories and from industrial schools. This distinction has been recognized and acted upon since the year 1878, when the first truant school was established. Her majesty's inspector, in his report for the year 1889, says:

There were ten truant schools in the large towns of England. At the same time there were, in Great Britain, 56 reformatory schools, including 3 reformatory school ships; 142 industrial schools, including 7 industrial school ships, and 18 day industrial schools.

All the reformatories and most of the industrial schools owe their existence to voluntary and independent efforts. School boards have the management of all the truant schools, of all the day industrial schools (save one in Liverpool) and of eight of the industrial schools. The industrial school ship "Shaftsbury" is managed by the school board for London; and this board has also established two truant schools.

Formerly the practice was to commit truants, if bad enough, to the industrial school or the industrial school ship. The present truant schools, however, seem to answer the purpose of an earlier and more reasonable treatment of truants than the industrial schools could afford; for the inspector says:

Should the new act stop the commitment of truant children to industrial schools, a diminution in the number of the latter may be followed by an increase of truant schools.

Something of the character and purpose of the English truant schools may be gathered from the following language of the inspector:

To these schools are sent children who, after repeated warnings, have failed to make a satisfactory number of attendances at the ordinary day schools, in the hope that the strict corrective discipline which they are subjected to in them will make them less inclined to play truant when they are allowed to return to their homes. The terms of detention vary from a few weeks, on the first commitment, to a few months, if the first or subsequent commitments have not had the desired effect. The average length of detention is ninety-five days.

On the subject of discipline in these schools the inspector has some significant remarks. Thus:

In some of these schools drill is substituted for play, and in some every boy has to undergo a limited period of solitary confinement in light cells. In some schools, which are managed on a more kindly, and, I think, more rational, principle, there are no cells and some play is permitted. I fail to see that the more strictly managed schools can show better results than the latter, and, therefore, I am entirely in favor of the second and more lenient system, and I would begin by abolishing cells altogether.

The ages of boys in the English truant schools are about the same as we should expect to find in the United States, had we schools

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of a similar kind. Thus, out of 1,532 boys admitted in one year, there were:

Six to eight years of age	2
Eight to ten years of age	205
Ten to twelve years of age	740
Twelve to fourteen years of age	585
	1,532

A prominent feature in the English plan of dealing with truants is the conditional release from the truant school, called a license. This is usually given after a few weeks' detention. It puts the boy on probation, but keeps him still under the control of the truant schoolmaster, who may recall him at any time when he fails to deserve his liberty. The remarkable extent to which this practice of "licensing out" is carried on in England is shown by the following figures:

Under detention in all truant schools, Dec. 31, 1889	3,980
In school	780
Out on license	3,199
Absconded	1
	3,980

Thus, it appears, that for every boy in a truant school there were four more out on license and liable to be recalled for irregular attendance at the regular schools.

The extent to which boys are returned to the truant school two, three, or more times is indicated by the following figures:

Total licensed and released in twelve years (1878-1889)	10,390
Licensed and not re-admitted	6,198
Licensed and once re-admitted	2,606
Licensed and twice re-admitted	1,017
Licensed and three or more times re-admitted	578
	10,390

The inspector calls attention to the large number of readmissions, saying that the results of the truant schools "are not altogether satisfactory." Even the large number (6,198) of boys "licensed and not re-admitted" cannot be taken as proving that three-fifths of the boys are cured of truancy by only one period of detention, because many of these when first licensed must have been near the age of fourteen, at which age absolute release takes place. These facts seem to show that the period of detention before the first release on license is generally too brief. It should probably be a few months, rather than a few weeks. Thus, more time would be allowed for the firm establishment of right tendencies in the boy before trying him on license. With this improvement, the English system of licensing out from truant schools would seem to be a good one for us to adopt.

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Upton House, a truant school under the control of the school board for London, is thus described by Mr. Capen, who visited it in 1891:

The plan adopted by the London school board for dealing with truants is as follows: Boys are usually sent to the Upton House by the magistrates until they arrive at the age of sixteen years, but in some cases for short periods only, as six, eight, twelve, or sixteen weeks. The usual course is to license the child out at the expiration of about ten weeks, on condition that he attends a certified efficient school regularly. It then becomes the duty of the teacher of the school at which he attends to send a post card to the head office on every Friday afternoon, giving particulars of the boy's attendance. If they are perfectly satisfactory for a period of nine months, application is made to the home secretary that the boy may be discharged. If, however, the teacher's report shows that the boy has not attended regularly, an officer is at once sent to visit the boy's home, and to warn the parents that if the boy does not attend with perfect regularity the license will be revoked. In many cases this warning is all that is needed. But should the boy continue to be irregular in his attendance, his license is revoked, and he is taken back to the truant school. On this occasion, the period of detention extends to about three months, after which the boy is again licensed out. If this license is revoked a second time, his next period of detention is still longer. In ordinary cases, there is no necessity for the revocation of the license. But if, as occasionally happens, three or four revocations of the boy's license are ineffective, an application is made and proceedings are taken to have the boy sent to the ordinary industrial school, or what we call a house of reformation.

The subsequent attendance of the boys who have undergone the discipline of Upton House shows the efficacy of the system to cure truancy. The average attendance of the boys licensed out for the last ten years except the year 1884, when the school was being rebuilt, is as follows:

1879	88.80 per cent	1885	95.19 per cent
1880	84.07 per cent	1886	94.27 per cent
1881	91.73 per cent	1887	91.61 per cent
1882	90.97 per cent	1888	88.94 per cent
1883	90.96 per cent	1889	91.60 per cent

The following is the time table at Upton House:

A. M.		
6.00	Boys rise, fold bedding, and wash	Talking not allowed.
7.00	Clean house and school	Quiet conversation allowed.
8.00	Breakfast	Talking not allowed.
8.40	Prayers.	
9.00	Distribution for school and work; one division in school, remainder industrial work	Necessary conversation.
M.		
12.00	Drill	Talking not allowed.
P. M.		
12.50	Prepare for dinner	Quiet conversation allowed.
1.00	Boys' dinner	Talking not allowed.
1.30	Recreation.	
2.00	Distribution for school and work	Necessary conversation.
5.00	Drill	Talking not allowed.
5.30	Prepare for supper	Quiet conversation allowed.
6.00	Supper	Talking not allowed.
6.30	Industrial work	Necessary conversation.
7 30	Prayers.	
8.00	Boys to bed	Talking not allowed.

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In conclusion shall be given, briefly stated, the points that were considered essential in the organization and management of the proposed parental school in Boston. They are all implied in the idea suggested by its name. In a legal sense, the school is to stand in *loco parentis* to the boy up to the age of fourteen, and give to him, as far as possible, under the circumstances, a good home.

1. The boys should be grouped in families of moderate size, age and moral condition being considered in the grouping.

2. These families should dwell in separate cottages designed to accommodate twenty-five, or at most, thirty boys each.*

3. The family life in these cottages should be, in all its incidents, as complete and homelike as possible. Meals should be taken in the cottage dining-rooms, not in one large dining hall, even if that be the more economical plan. The civilizing process, which most of these boys greatly need, cannot go on in the large hall, but it can go on in the small cottage dining-room. This is another point upon which considerations of economy will be apt to outweigh moral and social reasons in the minds of average municipal legislators.

4. Each cottage should be under the care of a house master and house matron—preferably a man and his wife—who should be to the boys as father and mother. A third adult, as a teacher or other officer of the school, should be lodged in each cottage and assigned some of the domestic cares. In emergencies, the help of this third adult might be invaluable.

5. All house-work should be done by the boys, under competent direction.

6. There should be school instruction three hours a day.

7. There should be moral and religious instructions on Sunday —a general service in one part of the day, morning or afternoon, and in the other part such separate denominational instruction as might be desirable. In a sense, moral instruction would be going on all the time, the whole discipline of the school being, in fact, directed to that end; but the Sunday instruction in morality would be of the kind usually associated with religious instruction. It would be the theory, of which week-day experiences would furnish the practical illustrations.

8. There should be some good manual training; although, in view of the rather short periods of detention and of the insufficient age and strength of many of the boys, such training could not be expected to reach very far into the learning of trades. What has become known by the name of "sloyd" is probably the best form of manual training for such boys as would come into the parental

*The writer regrets to say, that in the new buildings constructed for the parental school, this limit has been raised to fifty boys. This is believed to be a serious error, not to be excused by considerations of economy.

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school. Many a boy is a truant from sheer inability to grasp book studies. On the minds of such boys manual training often takes a strong hold.

9. If there be land fit for the purpose, instruction in gardening should be given. This does not mean that boys should be kept at work hoeing beans, weeding onions, picking berries or digging potatoes, merely to realize an income for the school. Such things they are to do, of course; but they are to be taught, at the same time, the principles and the art of gardening as if they were to become practical gardeners. It has been found difficult and well nigh useless to interest city boys in country life and in farming. Nearly always, after their release from reformatories or industrial schools, back they come to the city. Therefore, gardening is the utmost that it is thought wise to attempt in this direction in the Boston parental school. And the thirty acres of land this school is to occupy will afford good opportunities for horticultural instruction.

10. Domestic service and instruction in other forms of labor should fill four hours a day.

11. The study of lessons, the reading of books, the play, the meals and all other employments of the day which admit of it, should be incidents of the family life in the cottages. Segregation, not congregation, should be the ruling principle in all arrangements for instruction and employment.

12. The buildings considered necessary are these: (1) A central building for the offices, superintendent's apartments, kitchen, laundry, bakery and store-rooms. (2) A schoolhouse and chapel, the class-rooms being on the first floor and the chapel, large enough to hold the entire school, on the second floor. (3) Cottages, neat and substantial but not too costly, three or four to begin with, supposing the number of boys not likely to exceed a hundred for the first two or three years.

13. The grounds should be inclosed with a fence or a wall of no more than the ordinary height. No provision against escapes is desirable.

14. That the chiefly important thing in the whole business is to secure the appointment of a superintendent well qualified for the very peculiar and exacting duties of the position, hardly needs to be said. And yet, the greatest danger of failure lies just at this point. Qualified men can be found; but appointing boards are not always qualified to find them, or appreciate them when found.

15. But the greatest evil of all, and one to be guarded against at all points with the utmost care, is the abuse of the pardoning power. Somewhere, of course, must be lodged the power of releasing the boy from further detention, either conditionally or absolutely.

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The danger that this power may be placed where it will be wrongly used cannot but be obvious to all who are familiar with the character and workings of municipal governments in this country. The principle should be this: Release from the school always to be earned by good conduct, industry and learning on the part of the boy while in the school, never by influence acting from outside. The importance of this principle can hardly be overestimated; and yet, to secure a wise and steady course of action in accordance with it may become, under unfavorable conditions, an impossibility.

16. What is known in penology as the indeterminate sentence, should be applied to all reformatories and truant schools, provided this can be done under conditions that will secure the right working of that principle. The indeterminate sentence is a sentence which the convict may make as short as he chooses, by reforming himself and proving that he has reformed himself by pursuing a steady course of right conduct for a sufficient length of time; in other words, by repenting and bringing forth fruits meet for repentance.

This principle would work admirably in a truant school, provided always, it were rightly applied and not interfered with by irrelevant outside influences. Let the truant be brought into court at the earliest stage of the truancy habit. Let it not be a criminal court, but, if possible, the probate court, or some court not ordinarily exercising criminal jurisdiction. Let the decree of this court place the truant school in *loco parentis* over the truant until he reaches the upper limit of age for compulsory school attendance, say, fourteen years. Such a boy might be ten, nine, or even eight years old at commitment; but the period of detention would depend on the boy, and might be shortened to a few months, by industry and good conduct on the boy's part. His first release should usually be conditional, so that the truant school could resume personal custody of him at any time if he failed to deserve his license. The chiefly important condition of his license would, of course, be regular attendance at some designated day school. A weekly report of his attendance should be sent to his guardians at the truant school. The condition of the boy's home and the disposition of his parents as to taking proper care of him are also important circumstances to take into consideration.

Absolute release from the truant school would come in two ways: First, by the boy's having deserved it through good conduct while in the truant school and while out on license, and, secondly, by his reaching the age of fourteen years. The release, coming in this latter way by limitation, might or might not be deserved. If not, the boy would probably soon behave in a way to deserve commitment to a reformatory for older boys on a complaint before a criminal court. Still, it would be true that the truant school had done all that was

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possible to be done for him. The younger the boy when first brought under discipline for truancy the greater the chances of a complete cure before the age of fourteen. The great and crying evil throughout the country to day is, that for want of proper means for dealing with truancy in its earlier stages, it is neglected and allowed to ripen into juvenile criminality, and later into adult criminality. *Obsta principiis.*

DISCUSSION.

W. E. ROBINSON, Superintendent of Schools, Detroit, Mich.—Every community has its truants and incorrigibles, and one of the most significant signs of the progress and advancement of our present civilization is the rapid growth and development of that humanitarian spirit, which sends men into the highways and byways of life to seek out those who are ignorantly weak, morally crippled and spiritually blind, and lead them into right living.

In the evolution of the race through the survival of the fittest, self-protection and self-advancement may have been nature's first law, but under the present conditions of self-conscious, intellectual life and spiritual development, a higher law holds sway. Man's life means not only self-development and self-conquest, but large and generous service to his fellow man. All individual success worthy the name has in it this element of the love and service of humanity. Selfishness is weakness; "the words 'I' and 'mine' constitute ignorance." The greatest good to the individual lies in the greatest good of the whole. No community can attain to its greatest prosperity while a portion of its people are in ignorance and vice. The recognition of this fact is the cause of the earnest and thoughtful attention which the world's workers at large are giving to the ignorant and criminal classes of society. The greater interest among educators, in truants and incorrigibles, is only one phase of a larger movement. This unsolved problem appeals to us forcibly. The school has an important part to play in the reduction of the criminal classes. Education must wage war against, and conquer, ignorance and crime. True education must produce right conduct.

Mere intellectualism is no longer worshiped: the making of right lives is the function of education; the building of good character is its supreme and ultimate aim. Every child has in him the germ of all that is good, and it is the purpose of education to nourish and foster this growth. Education is a positive process. It starves and crushes out evil tendencies and possibilities by the absorption of the life-giving elements in the production of that which is good. Education is not only the generation of power in an individual, but its right direction and use. The power generated, when applied to the mechanism of a human life, should produce strength and beauty of character.

In dealing with this question, it will be considered under two heads. First, what can be done to prevent children from becoming truants and incorrigibles; second, how to deal with those who have already reached this state. The first is by far the more important phase of the question, but after all possible precautions have been taken, there will still be some of this class among our children. Many elements combine to make truants and incorrigibles. Heredity, home influences and outside associations are potent factors, as well as poor teachers and a lack of sufficient wisdom to create in our schools the best conditions for moral growth.

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1. The best way to prevent a child from playing truant is to make the school-room more attractive to him than the street. That a boy should want to play truant, is a sad reflection on his teacher and the work given him to do. These two elements, the curriculum and the teacher, combine to make school life attractive or otherwise. If the boy is to like school, he must be interested in the work, he must be taught those things which interest him.

This interest is the key-note to teaching; it not only makes learning possible, but it is the raw material out of which a love for the subject and a desire to know more about it are created. We interest, not that we may teach, but teach, rather, that we may interest. The teaching which develops in a boy strong centers of interest in different lines of thought, thus making him an observer, an investigator, a reader and a thinker, is of a kind calculated to keep him in school. It is the thought in which the child is interested that arouses his feelings, and, through them, influences his actions. What the boy thinks, largely determines what he will do. What is taught in our schools is a question of vast importance.

The experiences of the last few years have been freighted with valuable suggestions along this line, since history, literature and science have become a part of the daily food of the pupils in all grades. There has been an increased interest in the work, and the school-room has proved more attractive than before. Many a child, through the stories of Agoonack and Hiawatha, or Fulton and Morse, has found new pleasures in school work, and, filled with thoughts of these historical stories, has found reading a pleasure, and even composition writing or telling, not a burden, because of the strong desire to express that with which his mind is filled. History is a source of great interest to children of all ages, from the little six-year-old, who can only take it in the form of the oral story, to the child of older growth, reading his "Miles Standish" or "Life of Abraham Lincoln." These history stories not only interest children, but are rich in ideas of conduct and furnish an inexhaustible supply of materials and opportunities for filling the child's mind with concepts of right conduct. History is a potent element in character building, and deserves a conspicuous place in our course of study.

Childhood is the age of poetry and song. Many a child who has never loved arithmetic or spelling will revel in the pleasures of a poem or a song. In many of the lower grades the happiest time of the whole school day is the period devoted to the study of some choice selection of poetry. To fill the child's mind with such thoughts as found birth in a Longfellow or an Alice Carey, must influence his conduct and quicken his moral susceptibilities. The beautiful is in itself powerful; education should furnish the conditions for the development of truth, and the conception of its beauty in the child mind—these thoughts, when once implanted there, must find expression in right conduct and good living. When, through science teaching, nuts, fruits and flowers, birds, beasts and insects, clouds and brooks and crystals, are brought into the school-room and rendered even more attractive through their intelligent study, then may it be possible to center in the school-room sufficient attraction to prevent truancy. The enriching of the course in our elementary schools is a great step forward. Not only is it making the teaching of reading, writing and arithmetic easier and productive of better results, but this greater richness in thought studies is vitalizing and broadening and unifying and strengthening the whole work.

What are the prominent characteristics of the teacher who can reduce truants and incorrigibles to the minimum? A strong teacher has many virtues, but two marked qualities seem to dominate the one who can reach and help children having wrong tendencies and having bad habits. First, she must value childhood. Until in her soul there has been born and nurtured that love and reverence for a child

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which comes only through a deep conviction of the immense value of any human soul; until, to her, as with Emerson, "There are no common men," she has not within her that broad conception of the teacher's work which makes her strong enough in purpose and large enough in heart to do for this class of children. Not until the teacher looks beneath bodily uncleanliness and personal unattractiveness, and the unpleasing garb of rude behavior, and even immoral habits, and sees in its nakedness a human soul, with its great possibilities and tremendous inherent value; not until she loves a child because he is a child, and values him because of what he may become, rather than for what he is, can this problem be rightly solved. She must see in every child the possible ideal capable of growth and development, and, through her faith in this ideal, possess that indefatigable zeal, self-denying spirit and healthy enthusiasm which characterizes every true teacher. The study of history, psychology and the science of education do much toward giving clear conceptions and high ideals in the work of teaching; professional training is doing much in the way of supplying teachers with correct ideals and right motives. A teacher with an insight into the true meaning of life and one's relation to his fellow beings will cultivate that large unselfishness and great love that enables one to see good in every child, and create around him that atmosphere of trustful and loving sympathy in which alone his better nature can be evolved.

Sympathy is ethical power, love is the life-giving force; and these very incorrigibles and truants, more than any others, need to be nourished and fostered in an atmosphere of kindness and faith in childhood. Give them the best teachers, and, in such an environment, let them be subject to the impulses which truth gives. Evil tendencies must be eradicated, not suppressed; and the best method is to furnish the most favorable conditions for the strong and healthy growth of the child's best nature.

The second characteristic which such a teacher must possess is that of force. Teachers must be strong, physically. They must deem it their duty to themselves and their work, to keep themselves in a good physical condition. Many a child has been led into disobedience and dishonesty, and even driven from school, by a peevish, nervous, impatient teacher, who, because of her unhealthy physical condition, provokes disorderly conduct and bad behavior. If every teacher of this kind could be removed from and kept out of our schools to-day, much would be done toward the prevention of truancy and incorrigibility.

Teachers must possess intellectual force. They must have that mental power which will enable them to hold a child to his best efforts. Misconduct is often simply misdirected energy. The teacher has not force enough to direct this energy into the proper chanel of close application to legitimate work, and so it develops, abnormally, into misbehavior. If every teacher had broad scholarship and an understanding of child nature, and kept herself alive and growing—a vital force in close contact with living truth—there would be fewer truants and incorrigibles. Everything which stimulates teachers to be students is an aid in the solution of this problem.

It goes without saying that the teacher must possess moral force of character. The most powerful moral teaching the world has ever known has been that which has come from the inspiring influences of grand and noble men and women.

Force of character in a teacher reacts powerfully on those under her charge, and unconsciously and continually makes for good conduct and right behavior in the pupils. "All mental and moral force is positive good; it goes out from you whether you will or not."

2. How shall those who have become truants and incorrigibles be cared for? An act passed by the Michigan State Legislature, in 1883, to provide for the com-

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pulsory education of children, in certain cases, authorized cities and villages, having a population of more than 5,000, to establish one or more ungraded schools for the instruction of children between the ages of eight and sixteen years, who are habitual truants; also, those who, while attending public schools, are incorrigible, vicious or immoral; also, those found wandering about the streets, not enrolled in any school, and having no business or occupation, shall be deemed juvenile disorderly persons and subject to this act.

In all cities having a duly organized police force, it shall be the duty of the superintendent of police to detail, upon the request of the school authorities, one or more members of said force to assist in the enforcement of this act. Where no regular police force exists, it shall be the duty of the board of education or school district officers to designate some constable to act in this capacity.

The duty of such officers is to stop all persons between the ages of eight and sixteen years, found wandering on the streets during school hours, and require an explanation of their absence from school. If the explanation is not satisfactory, such persons may be arrested, under this act, as juvenile disorderly persons, be taken to the ungraded school, and a written notice to this effect shall be served upon the parent or guardian. It shall, also, be the duty of the truant officers to investigate all cases reported by school authorities. It shall be the duty of the parent or guardian having charge of such children, to cause them to attend the ungraded school. In case of refusal or neglect on the part of the parent or guardian to cause the child to attend this school, it shall be the duty of the officer to make complaint against the parent or guardian, before the proper tribunal. In case of conviction, a fine shall be imposed, or sufficient bond with sureties may be required, that the child shall attend the ungraded school within five days, and remain in said school during the remainder of the term. In case the parent or guardian is unable to cause the child to attend this school, then the truant officer shall make complaint that the child is a juvenile disorderly person, and the court shall determine whether this child belongs to this class, and, if so, send him to a reform school.

Any child who is a member of the public schools whose conduct is vicious or immoral, or who refuses to obey reasonable rules of government, may be compelled to attend the ungraded school. If no improvement is made, he may be proceeded against as a juvenile disorderly person.

Under this provision an ungraded school was organized in our city in the fall of 1883. For six years this school occupied rented quarters not adapted to its needs. At the beginning of the seventh year it was moved to a building built especially for this purpose; this building is well equipped, having plunge baths, lavatories and all the conveniences needed in such a school. The increased comforts of many who attend this school, the admission of girls, the additional number of truant officers and the better facilities for conducting a school of this kind, perceptibly increased the enrollment this year and the following one. Since then the increase has been about what could be expected with the yearly growth of our city. Several factors affect this enrollment. On account of the central location of the school and its having only one session each day, many of the newsboys, not truants or incorrigibles, attend here in preference to another school. These boys are permitted to attend this school because of the home circumstances which render necessary their work in selling papers. This gives them an opportunity to sell both morning and evening editions, the school session being from nine until two.

The true success of a school of this kind is not in increasing its enrollment, but rather in keeping its enrollment at the lowest possible number, as the effect of such a school should be to keep this class of children in the regular schools.

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	Enrollment.	Av. No. Belonging
First year	158	51
Second year	230	73
Third year	372	100
Fourth year	301	68
Fifth year	221	67
Sixth year	251	67
Seventh year	241	67
Eighth year (boys 264; girls, 43)	308	122
Ninth year (boys, 342; girls, 32)	375	123
Tenth year (boys, 370; girls, 30)	400	116
Eleventh year, so far	290	128

At the beginning of the fifth year, increased attention to this subject on the part of the principals of the different schools decreased the enrollment in the ungraded school. At this time the superintendent required principals to report daily, by mail, to his office all transfers and those received by transfer, thus preventing the opportunity for truancy in case of change of residence. Each principal is also required to send in, at the end of each month, what is termed, a "left" report, giving account of all pupils who have left during the month, the cause of their leaving, and their present location. This prevents possible opportunities that pupils might have to deceive parents or school authorities.

Of the pupils enrolled after the first year about forty-five per cent are from other schools in the city, thirty per cent had been previously enrolled in the ungraded school, and the remaining twenty-five per cent are taken from the streets. The disposition of these during the year was as follows: Twenty per cent were sent back into the schools, having become obedient to authority and studious in their habits; twenty per cent left to go to work, five per cent were sent to the reform schools, fifteen per cent removed from the city, and the remaining forty per cent were in regular attendance at the school.

The regular work is followed as closely as possible in this school, the pupils being classified here as in other schools. The truant officers report for duty daily to the principal of the school, and this, together with the reports made by the principals of other buildings, enables him to look after this class of children quite closely and with some considerable degree of success.

We still need, however, another school. These children may be divided into two classes, those who are truants from school and not given to any other vice, and those who are truants from both school and home and given to many other vices. For the second class we should have a separate institution, called a school of detention, or a parental school, in which they might be kept day and night, away from any evil influences and under the most favorable conditions for reformation. In connection with such school I would suggest an industrial department, in order that these children might be kept constantly employed and be trained to work. By thus separating this class of children, their evil influences on others would be prevented, and, at the same time, many of them might be redeemed from vice and crime and become useful citizens.

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THE UNIVERSITY IN ITS RELATION TO THE TEACHING PROFESSION.

BY CHARLES DE GARMO, PRESIDENT SWARTHMORE COLLEGE, PENNSYLVANIA.

There are two important phases to this question: First, what the university can do out of its own native resources toward the development of teachers for the schools; second, what it can do by virtue of its position, its influence, its power, toward influencing outside organizations, the chief of which, as it seems to me, is the normal school.

It has been with me for some time a very earnest concern about what the true relation should be between the university and the normal school, and, with your permission, I will devote myself mainly to that phase of the subject to-day, hoping that those who follow me may take up, perhaps, the equally important phases that I do not touch. If I did not want to convince you of something and induce you to do something, I might not take the course that I am going to take; but, that being the case, I shall have to remind you of some things which you know perfectly well, but which, perhaps, you may not have thought of in this connection.

We sometimes question, in this country, what the difference is between a college and a university. Of course, it depends upon what your definition of a college is; but I think the current notion is, that a university is a college plus graduate work. You must very greatly broaden your definition of the college if that is to remain true. The university, as compared with the small college as it has been, is totally a different institution in every respect. It is an institution of such modern growth, such recent development, that, unless we stop to think about it, we really do not know what it is, and how world-wide different it is from the old college—the college which most of you attended—the classical college, the college which taught the Greek and Latin and mathematics, with, perhaps, a very small smattering of natural science and history thrown in to fill up the chinks. The modern university is very different from all that. It includes all that, but vastly more. The old college education was humanitarian almost solely. In addition to those branches that were formerly taught among the humanities, we may include modern history. Not a little general smattering from the text-book, but a thorough investigation from original sources, often of all the great epochs in the history of the world. In addition to that, we may count in the history of politics, political history, the history of political institutions. We live under a democratic era in the world.

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The history of Greece and Rome no longer explains our modern institutions. We are under democratic forms; we are under forms such as the ancient world never dreamed of. We are investigating and studying those forms in the university to-day. We have, therefore, greatly enriched in the universities the old college curriculum along that line; along its own specific lines. Even in our little college at Swarthmore, our mathematics is going away beyond what the old college ever dreamed of. It seems as if mathematics itself had had a new birth in these modern times and we are talking about non-Euclidian geometry. We have enthusiastic classes working along these new lines; thus transcending the old. But, then, that is only a very small part of the modern university. You could almost cut it out and not know that it was gone, if you measured it by the students that it would take away. We have introduced all the great natural sciences. We teach chemistry for from four to six years. We do the same with biology, with physics, with physical geography, with geology, with astronomy. Not only is the university curriculum enriched by these subjects, but it has taken up another group of modern subjects which is increasing in usefulness and importance—those phases of civilization that pertain to the great industrial world of to-day, not only the making of money, not only the production and distribution and consumption of wealth, but all the myriad social questions that go along with them.

A gentleman came down from New York the other day to lecture on what the duty of society is to the unemployed. He finds that there are half a million people in New York City alone whose bread is taken away from them because society has nothing for them to do. Out of such conditions there arises a large set of problems interesting to every human mind. In addition to this group of subjects, we have what we call our technological instruction. All the important engineering problems of the world are wrought out in the universities to-day. Everything that underlies modern industry is taught there. Is not that a very different thing from the old college curriculum? Is it not pretty sure that any mind that has the capacity to learn will find an ample field in any of our great universities? And yet, what have we done, ladies and gentlemen? We have allowed the bars to be built up between the minds that want to learn and the sources from which they can learn. Learning is too precious to put before the common people. We must hedge it off in a petty medieval spirit. We have not got out of our old shackles from the medieval times. We have a sort of a monastic system that we are bringing out. Harvard College has taken the lead, the large universities of the West have all followed in her train. There is not a great university in the United States to-day that has not broken down those old limitations in many respects, but

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they have not taken away the bars which shut out whole classes of people who are willing, who are anxious, who are able, to partake of the higher education. That is the thing I am here to-day to protest against; and the class of teachers, when it touches our question, is the great class that comes out of the normal school, the great body of teachers in this country; the people who have some professional training; whose lives have been inspired with an idea of making teaching a life calling. I say, in very many, in nearly all, of our institutions of higher learning we have built up a wall between those people who would study and the place where they could study. What is the condition of the normal school graduate? In nine cases out of ten he is a person more than twenty years of age. I cannot speak positively as to how many of them have received a common high school education. I am gathering data upon that subject now, but from the reports that I get, and from my own knowledge of the Illinois State Normal School at Normal, and other schools, I should say from thirty to fifty per cent of the students in our normal schools to-day have gone through the public high schools; not always those of the highest class; not always the best high schools, but still high schools. They have put in the time working to prepare themselves for their life work. Another large per cent have had an equivalent education before they ever entered the normal schools. They go there and study for three years—sometimes four, sometimes two. I apprehend, however, that the great majority of the normal schools have three-year courses. They work there with an intensity of interest and fixity of purpose such as the freshmen in the college rarely know. I have lived in both. Three years of experience in a college and ten or a dozen in a normal school have shown me both sides. I know that there is an intensity of effort, a fixity of purpose and high aspiration to do the best that is in one that takes hold of the normal school student more than it does the freshman in the college who comes fresh from the high school. After they have taken these three years' courses they receive no credit at the university. And why? Simply because of this old classical limitation. They are debarred, not because of mathematics, not because of science, not because of economics, because those subjects are usually mostly begun in the university; but because they do not know the classics. They are sent back and told to go to the preparatory school, where they would otherwise have gone, perhaps at the age of fourteen, and travel over their teens again. They will not do it. They ought not to be required to do it. It is a mistake. It is a false assumption, growing out of an old aristocracy which no longer has any validity in this country—which is rapidly losing its validity in all countries. The normal school graduate can pursue every one of these great

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lines of investigation that I have indicated in a university with profit to himself, with credit to the school he came from, with vast benefit to the schools of the country. What does he lack when he gets through the normal school? He has had an elementary training for the most part. He knows as much, or more, mathematics than the ordinary freshman. He knows very little language. He knows his own. He knows the elements of the natural science. He knows considerable about psychology. Any young man who has gone through Rosencranz' "Philosophy of Education," edited by Dr. Harris, and has done it intelligently, has mind enough and preparation enough to follow out any of the great lines in a university, except in the languages; and the case there is not so bad as it seems. If language is so valuable; if it is absolutely essential to human culture and welfare and usefulness in the world, he can get a fair equivalent for these ancient languages through the modern languages. The question was touched here yesterday as to the value of the German from the same standpoint. It is a linguistic training; it is a grammatical training; it is an important thought training. Dr. Harris himself tells us that the Germans united the three threads of ancient civilization in the highest form. If that is so, that is reason enough for studying the German. If culture is so necessary, let me remind you that we have the greatest mine of that, almost unused in our country, I am sorry to say, that any nation was ever blessed with. Dr. Harris again tells how the Greeks first grew on Homer. They did not grow on foreign languages, because they would not learn them. They did not grow on natural science, because they had none. They did not grow on economics and history, because the world had not awaked to the economic age. They grew on literature—their literature arising from their own mythology and what little they could pick up from the Egyptians and the Persians around them. We copy their ideals of culture to this very day. We have borrowed them all from a people who developed their culture out of their own language. No nation has ever, since the sun shone, been blessed with a literature so rich, so varied, so abounding in everything that stands for human culture as the English. Shall we then make that pitiful plea, that because, forsooth, they have not pursued the classical languages they shall be excluded from all that makes life worth something to them and makes them worth something to the country? I say, it is a mysterious proposition, and one that cannot stand when men begin to think about it.

The normal school student has, however, very great deficiencies. He lacks, for one thing, a broad outlook. He has been involved too much with the little technicalities—the technique—of education to get a broad outlook. He has studied the elements of everything. He has gone very much beyond what Dr. Harris calls the secondary

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stage in education—that stage in which we begin to study subjects so that we can look back reflectively on those that have gone before. He lacks, moreover, a knowledge of some specialty. He knows something about almost everything. He has studied all the sciences, but he has just had a smattering of them. He knows very little of biology. He ought to know a great deal of it. He ought to master the principles of evolution—the things that have made science what it is to-day—these tremendous underlying forces which have given it its development. He must have this broader and deeper knowledge of his own tongue—of literature. He must have an opportunity, it may be, to develop himself along the lines of the modern languages, of history, of economics; whatever it may be, it matters not very much. You can see the world from any hill you happen to climb. There are many of those hills in the university. I say, give the boys and girls a chance to climb them. The results will not be merely individual, and I should not plead so earnestly for a chance for the normal school graduate if the whole thing ended with him. It does not. He has now a noble, fertilized mind, and I believe any teacher whose hair is turning gray will say that life does not generate out of mechanism. It generates out of life. It is a broad outlook, it is a deep insight, that fertilizes the mind of youth. That is the greatest thing. I used to think that knowing just how to conduct a recitation, how to arrange my questions, how to have the topics—order and everything—was the great thing in education, and that when I had mastered that technique I was, forsooth, a teacher. I found out that that is not so. The persons whom I have benefited, whose lives I have touched, are those that came under my influence, not when I was a graduate from the normal school, but since I have had a broader outlook and a deeper insight into at least a few things. This will affect the teaching of the community in another way. It will bridge the chasm which exists now in many places between the university and the normal school. If you shut off any class of society—ostracize them from the rest—they will build up a little social circle within themselves. They will have an aristocracy of their own. That has been, I fear, the case—the tendency, at least—in the normal schools. The private normal schools have been shut off by what the State normal schools call the legitimate schools. They have been made outcasts. They are called wild cat normal schools, and they make little coteries of their own. They have an aristocracy of their own. They publish papers which scoff at the State normal schools and still harder at the colleges and universities. There used to be some in Ohio. In the same way the State normal schools, being shut off in a certain way from the universities, form their own little circle.

I sat for three years under the influence of one of the most inspiring men that I ever met in my life, a man whom many of you know—

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Richard Edwards, of honored fame—a man who has touched more lives than I ever hope to get in sight of; and yet, in that normal school, actuated as it was, led as it was, I never, from the time I entered until the time I left, heard a discussion from the public platform of that school on the value of the college or university education. It is not so now, and we are growing out of it rapidly. We ought to grow out of it, and if you will accredit your normal schools for what they can do at the university, for what they know, rather, and allow them to pursue what they can do, you will bridge this chasm which has existed—which, perhaps, still exists to a considerable extent. The colleges and universities will begin to reach down into the normal schools. There won't be the prejudice that now exists against putting university men in there. Men who have this capacity of fertilizing minds, even if it takes them a little time to learn the technique of teaching, will go in there as teachers. The ladder will be constructed between the normal schools and the universities, just as the Committee of Ten are trying to construct it between the public high school system and the universities. What sort of an idea is it for us in this country to say that there is any aristocracy in education—that there shall be circles from which others shall be excluded—circles where they can work with profit? It is not American. We must not do it. It is not right. It does not do the best thing for education. It retards it and keeps it in the background. If we could get such men as J. Stanley Hall to go into the normal schools and lend the wonderful might of their influence to the work there, think you not that we should help to solve these problems? Give the boys and girls a chance. Now, my plea is simply this: That every superintendent here who has the ear of the university authority shall use his influence to bring about this end. The National Association has a committee appointed which is now at work to investigate this subject, and report the actual facts in the case next summer wherever we meet. That work will be done, but to-day is a good time to make a beginning.

DISCUSSION.

DR. NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, Columbia College.—Although it has been my fortune twice, I think, within five years, to speak on some phase of this subject before this department, yet I am convinced that he would be a poor university teacher indeed who could not respond to the chairman's invitation with interest and alacrity. It is extremely interesting to me, in trying to remember what I said five years ago, to recall the progress that we have made in the intervening years in the solution of this very important question, and I should add it to that cata-

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logue of advance which Dr. Macalister sketched for us last evening; going back to 1876 and coming to the exposition of Chicago, or going back to 1885, or 1887, or 1890, or 1892, or 1893 even, we find we have made great advance in the process of welding the broken link between the universities and the teaching profession.

When the first universities were founded, you will remember that they prepared students for the first and original university degree, the Baccalaureus Artium, which has become the familiar baccalaureate degree in arts in England and America. But this was a work of mere cadetship, and in the cadetship was an opportunity for a man to enter temporarily upon the teaching profession; but the goal which he had before him was the Magister Artium, or the Doctor of Philosophiæ, which was his full license to teach. So the principal business of the early universities was to train teachers. But, as the universities grew in number and influence, and sent out, year after year, thousands of graduates in excess of the demand for teachers in the secondary schools of Europe, there was a falling off in the interest that the universities took in the teaching profession, till, finally, they came to devote themselves solely to broader scholarship and the higher learning. There was a divorce, first in Europe, and, then, as a result, in America, between the higher institutions and common schools, and that divorce we have been trying earnestly to set aside ever since associations of this sort began to exist. We have had a large measure of success. It is an interesting fact, perhaps unknown to some of you, that at least three universities in the United States have, for years past, sent accredited delegates to the meetings of the National Educational Association, and at least two universities have accredited delegates in this room this afternoon, to participate in the meeting of this department and to show by voice and presence their interest in this specific discussion.

There has developed in all the complexity of modern learning a great field of study that is new. It is not, strictly speaking, philosophy; it is not, strictly speaking, economics; it is not, strictly speaking, natural or applied science. It does not stand in important relation to mathematics; nor is it law or medicine. That great field of learning, that touches all others, but is identical with none, is the subject of education, the process by which civilization transmits itself through instructing the rising generation in the several great social institutions—the State, the Family, the Church and the School. That subject has a history. The universities have seized upon it and put it beside the history of mathematics, the history of philology, of physical, legal and medical science. That subject has a philosophy; and the universities have seized upon it and placed it beside the metaphysics of the Germans, the philosophy of France and the philosophy of England; and to-day it is side by side with those subjects in the programs in the departments of philosophy from Cambridge to California. That subject involves an art; it is connected with the rules of application based upon the broad experience of men and women who are represented in this association, and particularly in this department, and thousands like them. Out of all that experience facts have been collected; from those facts principles have been deduced; and those principles are to-day being elaborated systematically and carefully by students and scholars in at least fifteen endowed institutions throughout this country, both institutions endowed by State funds and those endowed from private resources. The study of the subject of education itself is, of course, going to have a direct, and, also, an indirect, relation to the teaching profession, and a direct and an indirect influence upon it. The direct relation and the direct influence consist in furnishing material, in furnishing acquired and systematic knowledge in furnishing raw material, if you please, but still material, to be worked over and applied by those who are engaged in the actual work of the school—primary, secondary and higher. The indirect influence is found in

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rousing and stimulating an interest in education, not only among those of us who are primarily engaged in it, but among the people of these United States, the cultivated and intelligent people of Europe, and of the world. They are coming to see its importance, because there is something known about it, something that can be reduced to principle and applied in practice; and that, I say, is both a direct and an indirect service that the university renders to the teaching profession.

There is another and extremely important influence which is just beginning to operate. It is no longer considered respectable for a university to hold itself, its men, its students, its laboratories and its libraries, aloof from the community in which it is situated. Within two years Harvard University has appointed a committee of its faculty, of which the president of that institution is chairman, which committee will, on invitation, inspect, and make an expert report upon, any secondary or fitting school, public or private. That report is the private property of the committee and the principal and directors of the school inspected. The result of that process is this: You take into the secondary school, that is beginning a little laboratory in physics, that is struggling to see whether there is anything to be made out of the inductive method of approaching Latin and Greek, that is endeavoring to seize upon new methods of teaching English composition, even trying to see what light can be thrown upon the teaching of the old subjects of algebra and geometry by this new and developing branch of university work—you take into the school a group of experts and thoroughly posted scholars, who know all about these things. They sit down in the secondary school, and watch the operations of the teacher and the progress of the pupils, and then they say: "This is our opinion; this is being done well, this could be done better; you need such and such apparatus and illustrative material." The school may follow this advice or not, as it pleases, but it is an enormous advantage and privilege to have this expert advice to call upon.

While Harvard University is doing this, many other universities are doing it on a somewhat smaller scale; sometimes by the intelligent and well directed energy of individual professors. I see sitting in this room my friend from the University of the City of New York, Professor Shaw, whose work in the city, in visiting, advising and inspecting many bodies of teachers and schools, and bringing to them the very best results of university work and university research, is well known.

We are beginning, also, to put some systematic educational knowledge into the training of those graduates who are going out to teach. It is not going to be possible much longer, I think, for a secondary school teacher to be appointed unless he can give evidence that he has taken advantage, at Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Cornell, Princeton, Chicago, Michigan, Madison, Stanford, or wherever it may be, of the philosophical training in education therein provided, and unless he shall have acquired something of an insight into and grasp upon the principles of that subject to which he proposes to devote his life. That, I am sure, is of immense service and an immense step forward, and an immense gain for the universities, as well as for the teaching profession and for the country at large.

The university stands distinctly, if it stands for anything, for scholarship, and scholarship means love of truth and continual search for truth by scientific methods. I have listened in this hall during the last two or three days, and in other important meetings of this department, to statements so astounding in their recklessness and prodigious in their falsity as to make me wonder how men dared to make them before a public audience. I have read statements of that sort in the press and elsewhere. I am accustomed to see them in the educational press. The thing that we want in our profession at this moment more than anything else, is accurate knowledge and scholarship, to save us from the humiliation of these awful blunders.

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For that scholarship the university stands, and unless you get it from the university you won't get it at all. University teachers are on the borderland between the known and unknown. Almost weekly from the field of the unknown they add to the store of human knowledge. It won't do to base one's public assertions on books written forty years ago.

Another thing the university stands for, in addition to scholarship, is intellectual tolerance. It remembers that knowledge grows; that the human mind develops; that mankind passes from a stage of civilization to a higher stage. It looks upon man as in motion, and is, therefore, always willing to listen to the other side.

The university, I repeat, stands for scholarship; it stands for tolerance. Are there any two things that the teaching profession of this country needs more of at this moment? I think not.

It stands for something else. It stands for accurate, definite, scientific method. When Plato wrote over the door of the Academy, "Let no one unacquainted with geometry enter here," he may have meant many things, but I have always thought that one thing he meant was: "Unless you are accurate in observation, logical in deduction, just and truthful in application—lessons which mathematics so often teach us—you need not hope to enter on the larger field of philosophy." I believe that it is by bearing testimony to that principle, that it is by making a contribution of that sort to our stock of knowledge, that the university is defining at this moment for us our very highest interests. In the university we come to the highest point of learning. There we get beyond the narrow, the bigoted, the intolerant Philistinism of the half-educated man. We come to see that there are things more important than facts, namely, the relations between facts; that there are more important things than effects, namely, their causes; that there is a more important thing than death, namely, life; that there is a more important thing than matter, namely, mind; and from the pinnacle of the university—I care not, as Dr. De Garmo said, on which of its many peaks you climb—you are bound to get an outlook into the promised land which brings with it scholarship, which brings with it tolerance and accurate scientific method. This, combined with the study of education and combined with the continual training of secondary teachers for our schools and colleges, is the profound service that the universities of America, of Germany and some of those of France and England are rendering to the teaching profession; and there could be no higher.

SECY. F. TREUDLEY, Superintendent of Schools, Youngstown, Ohio.—When I remember that vivid chapter by John Fiske in which he contrasts the Athenian life with the life of our modern days, and dwells upon that culture and insight that came to the Athenians from commingling with men who had been trained in the things that make for life and power, I often think of that ancient capital as a great university for the training of men, a university whose chairs were held by Pericles, Demosthenes, Plato, Socrates, Thucydides, and the ancient world as the background against which these activities were displayed. I remember, further, that he went on to speak of the great advantages offered by such an institution as Harvard, with its varied and abounding life, to one who really desires to embrace the opportunities there offered. Therefore, I was very deeply interested in what was said by President De Garmo and by Dr. Butler with respect to this theme. The universities of this country ought to be able to exert an immense influence upon the work of education, even through its common schools. More and more thoroughly do I believe, that, if the teaching profession of this country is to be lifted up, it must be by a power that reaches down from above. These forces that make for righteousness and peace are the forces that spring from those who know, and who, because they know, enjoy; and it is apparent to me, that so far

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as the work in our common schools is concerned, whether in our cities or in our rural districts, it cannot be sufficiently improved alone by those who are toiling at these problems in the midst of darkness. Help must come in part from those who have ascended into this higher and broader life of the intellect, have felt its power, tasted of its joys and have come to understand the truth that makes men free; for

> Who hath trod Olympus, from his eye
> Fades not that broader outlook of the gods.

And further, these men and women should be willing to bring to their fellow men of the substance of their knowledge, and the breadth and the richness of their freedom, that others, seeing the truth, may likewise be inspired and elevated. I remember the words of the Master: "If I be lifted up I will draw all men unto me." Men must be lifted up themselves; must be above those whom they would bring into the larger and the better life. And when I see such men as President De Garmo and others coming into these associations in active fellowship, I would that men from every university in this land and from all the colleges would likewise bring something of their enjoyment to those who need it. I remember once talking with Dr. Angell. I said: "President Angell, you must enjoy very much this life of yours in the university." "Yes," he replied. "You must enjoy these associations with men who fertilize and strengthen the mind." "Yes, Matthew Arnold dined with me a few days ago." How much satisfaction there is in these opportunities, and how much some of those who live and toil in a solitary way covet them. The literal truth is, as has been said, that facts find their chief value in their relationships. Knowledge of effects may be valuable enough, but knowledge of causes is more valuable. You may recall the motto which Sir William Hamilton is said to have placed above his study table, "On earth, there's nothing great but man; in man, there's nothing great but mind." One is a teacher only so far as he has knowledge of truth, for the truth alone carries with it its own sustaining power. Hence, there is great wisdom in teaching young men that it is their sole business to grow with an unwearied, constant growth. And it is true that there are multitudes of young people who come to our institutions of learning with very little training of any sort. More and more clearly do I think I see the vital connection between our higher institutions of learning and our subordinate institutions, and the necessity of bringing to bear upon the education of the country, through the common schools, both in city and in country, every element of light and power and strength that can possibly be obtained, that this work may be upbuilt. And I do indeed rejoice at the progress being made in this country and in the older countries of the world. There is a quickening of life and a steady growth of all these blessed influences that are making for freedom, and which, in making for freedom, make for power.

PROF. EDWARD R. SHAW of the University of the City of New York.—There is a large body of knowledge searched out by investigation in different realms, printed in the reports of the various societies, and laid aside, which becomes lost for want of application; for the want of some middleman, so to speak, to put it in order, to point out its direct application, so that teachers may make use of it. Our normal school graduates are in such a position that they are unable to take advantage of these investigations. We need, therefore, a middleman. The university should supply this—should fulfill this office—should gather up all that is discovered in the different realms, order it as a body of pedagogical doctrine, so that those going into the profession of teaching can have all that has been discovered put at their command for use. One example will illustrate my point, and this example lies well back. Dr. Bowditch of Harvard University, measured, thirteen years ago, 25,000 school children of Boston. Among several other things,

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those investigations plainly showed that the desks and seats commonly used in schools were not adapted to the size of the pupils. The inference was, that bodily deformities had resulted, and would continue to result, from the use of the ordinary desks and seats. Yet those investigations remained for years before they were drawn upon for the data for the construction of adjustable hygienic desks and seats.

The great profession of medicine has, for years, made many investigations that bear strictly on pedagogy. Indeed, some of the most important contributions come from that field. At the meeting of the Pan-American Medical Congress in Washington last September, considerable material was offered most valuable to the science of pedagogics. Hidden away in the archives and in the transactions and reports of medical societies of this country there is a vast amount of material that ought to be applied immediately to pedagogy. There is also a contribution from ethics, from philosophy, from history, from æsthetics, from the practice of teaching, as exhibited in different systems of education, and in different countries, and important contributions from physiological and experimental psychology. One of the offices of the university is to prepare some means of gathering together, from all the branches of knowledge, everything that has even the slightest bearing upon teaching, co-ordinating it and putting it before teachers, so that they can use and apply it.

C. A. McMURRY, Professor of Pedagogy, Normal, Ill.—I would like to call attention to the fact, that, at the two extremes of our educational system, the university and primary school, we have a body of teachers on the one side who are seeking light and a body of teachers on the other side, in the form of our university professors, and, more particularly, all those who are teaching pedagogy in universities, who stand closely related to each other. The professors of our universities, who are making this effort to solve the problem of education by arriving at a fundamental theory for child growth and child development, have a profound and difficult problem upon their hands. We all realize this and the difficulties of the problem, but we are not so skeptical as a few years ago. We are disposed to believe that there is a foundation upon which teachers of pedagogy, as well as others, may base the whole labor of education.

If we had in this country a first-class adequate school of pedagogy, where the very best results that the world has thus far obtained could be furnished to students, the halls of that school would be overcrowded with earnest and intelligent teachers—people who have had the benefit of much experience as teachers, but who are seeking for greater life and enthusiasm and for an avenue of higher development. I wish to emphasize the fact, that there is growing upon us in the universities, and from among the teachers themselves, the hungry teachers—a body of persons who are eager for the best.

Therefore, I think it behooves us to give them all the aid within our reach, and to put our shoulders to the wheel at every opportunity to push on this noble work of influencing pedagogical chairs in our universities to strengthen their walls and to build up the best that they can give us.

NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Pennsylvania.—I am a thorough believer in a difference between elementary and secondary education, in a difference between the high school and the college, and a thorough believer in the university as something essenially different from all these. And yet I feel like standing up for the policy that my friend, Dr. De Garmo, outlined, of making it possible for the teacher and a graduate of the normal school to get into the atmosphere of that highest kind of school that we call the university.

Not very long ago, the president of one of the famous universities of this land had in his office two applicants for admission into that institution. The one was a

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boy somewhere along the age of twelve or fourteen; the other was a young man who had taught for years and had had charge, as superintendent, of a system of schools. The scholarship of the superintendent was not equal to the scholarship of the young man, but the president of that institution turned to the young man and said: "You go to some preparatory school, we cannot admit you. You study Latin and Greek for several years, then come here to study." To the superintendent, he said: "We will admit you into the university and let you get out of our life and instruction whatever you can." It was a wise policy. I know whereof I affirm, when I say that it is easier for an American to get into the University of Berlin or Leipsic than it is to get into Harvard or Columbia or the University of Pennsylvania.

There is one man who has done as much to stimulate education throughout these United States as any man we have. I used to sit beside him on the benches of the university, and if the American rule and requirements had been applied to that man he never could have entered the doors of that university. Did the university do right? No one can dispute it. Light and life come from above.

The problem that confronts the Keystone State is this: There are 25,000 teachers in the schools of the State of Pennsylvania. We have in our Eastern metropolis a university that counts its buildings by tens, its instructors by hundreds, its students by the thousand, its endowment by the million. The problem is, how shall the light and life of that university be brought to bear upon the teachers of the commonwealth?

Whilst those in a university possibly lay stress on the character of their work as something very different from the college and the other institutions of the State, they have lately let down the bars and are permitting the teachers of our commonwealth to come to that university and get the benefit of its light, its thought, its higher life, its libraries, and its investigations.

HON. W. T. HARRIS, United States Commissioner of Education.—There is a fundamental difference between elementary education and secondary education, and between secondary education and higher education, although these blend at the boundaries. The normal school is not a secondary school exactly. One word about the difference between the normal and the high school. The high school, as we understand it, takes up secondary education; takes up the reflective stage that Dr. De Garmo spoke of. For example, we have the attention turned from dead results in space, such as arithmetic offers us, to geometry, in which we see the formative principles of bodies in space. So with regard to language. A person comes up to a higher grade of thinking when he leaves elementary and takes up secondary work. He turns his attention to the form now, whereas before he had given his attention merely to contents. He turns his attention to the processes, whereas he had noticed only the results before. Secondary education deals with this reflective stage, which contemplates forms and processes all the way through. After secondary studies comes the higher instruction, which looks to the unity of all human knowledge. The secondary school does not attempt to do that; that is the function of higher education. Not university education, but the college education; something that we do not want to have lost by commencing university work (or specialization) directly after the secondary school. We need college education, with its three or four years' course of study, to teach the relation of each branch to all the others. There is nothing so important in the whole range of education as this unity for our various lines of reflection. We have literature, we have mathematics, we have science, history and the various branches, studied in the secondary school, but in an isolated manner. The college teaches each branch in the light of all the others. That is the philosophical stage of education. This is not post-graduate work of the university. Post-graduate work should be specializing work, but a person

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cannot specialize to good advantage till he has this unital view of things, the seeing of everything in the light of all others. Science is defined as the placing of every fact in relation to all the other facts within its sphere, so that each particular fact throws light on the others, and the other facts throw light on each fact within its province. Philosophy proposes to relate each sphere of facts to other spheres. When you see one thing in all and all in one thing you have a perfect philosophical system.

I think my friend, Dr. De Garmo, went a little too far when he said, let elementary and secondary students go into the college; and that we should not keep them out of this good thing. If the college takes elementary pupils, it reduces itself to an elementary school. Let the elementary pupil go to the college and let the college come down to him, and higher education has given place to elementary education. Let it throw overboard its high studies, its seeing everything in the light of all other things, and let it teach things isolatedly, and, no matter what the institution is called, it is doing only elementary work.

The person who learns the branches of the secondary school, learns them not with a view of teaching those branches; for example, he wishes to get algebra so that he can arrive at arithmetical results in a better way. When Cyrus Peirce had charge of the normal school at Lexington (the first in this nation, afterwards removed to Framingham in Massachusetts), he saw at the outset, with wonderful clearness, that the proper course of training for the teacher is to take him through these elementary branches in such a way as to enable him to deduce them from the higher branches, or at least to see their bearing to more general studies of the same kind. The high school does not do that kind of work satisfactorily. It gives you the material from which these branches can be deduced, but does not point out the connections. I have seen almost all the different kinds of normal schools in the United States, and I have noticed that they everywhere follow, more or less strictly, the same principle: To take the pupils over the elementary work, and to make the pupil understand the structure of the elementary branches and be able to deduce exposition given in the text-books, and it certainly is a wonderfully strong discipline for normal school pupils, if they are sufficiently mature persons, say eighteen years of age and upwards. It gives them so nearly a higher education, that I have always insisted, that when you count up the higher educational institutions you should count in the normal schools, because they give that thorough training in deducing the lower studies by means of the higher. Normal school work is, therefore, not equivalent to that of the secondary school for just the reason I here mention. I should always say that the normal school furnishes a more thoroughly trained mind than the secondary school, and I wish to be understood as admitting that the graduates of normal schools can profitably take up college work if they are twenty years old and upwards.

What are higher studies? You cannot keep a person studying arithmetic twelve years. There is not enough in arithmetic to make a secondary study of it. There is not enough in it to make a higher study of it. There is not enough in geography to make a higher study of it. That which underlies our civilization is the subject of higher education. That which underlies nature, as time or space and as mathematics, is also a fitting topic for higher education. We get the first mentioned element from the Latin and Greek, and not from the French and German, for they rest like English on the Latin and Greek because we derived our civilization from them.

I left Yale College in my junior year because I disbelieved in Latin and Greek as the staples of higher education. I believed that it was a piece of effrontery to force them on young men. I went off to the West and began to study philosophy. I found there a fellow student in philosophy who didn't know Latin and Greek.

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He was obliged to use much time in looking through a dictionary for the definitions of the terms. I soon found that there was one good reason why a man should know Latin and Greek, namely, to learn the vocabulary of words in our language used to express fine shades of thought. Science has taught us to study all things in their genesis. If a man wants to understand the turtle, he studies embryonic life in the egg. If you are going to study any subject in the world of science, you must take up the embryology of it, and trace it through, and then you get some insight into it. It is impossible for any man to see our civilization in its true meaning without some knowledge of Latin and Greek, because its embryology is found in Greece and Rome. I think the first six months of the study of Latin is worth more than any subsequent six months. If we put into a new country, out on the borderland, fifty boys who have studied Latin six months, and fifty boys who have not studied Latin at all, the fifty boys who have studied Latin will be the ones to understand legal and social forms and they will do most to organize the community. They will be in the long run the persons that constitute the city councils and the justices of the peace and the legislatures, and have to do with the organization of States in preference to those who have not studied Latin. The pebble if dropped into a stream on one side of a hill goes to the Pacific, and if dropped on the other side goes to the Gulf of Mexico: so a little study of the Latin language in youth makes it the line of least resistance to think along the lines of law-making and the government of man.

SUPT. J. M. GREENWOOD, Kansas City, Mo.—The American people are an inventive people. The universities of the country, as well as the colleges, are accumulating and have accumulated a vast number of facts, and are co-ordinating those facts touching upon the work of the elementary and of the secondary schools. Those of us interested in the study of education, in its theoretical as well as in its practical aspect, would be greatly benefited if we could get the university men and others, engaged in this study, to work together for the purpose of establishing at the universities, or else in other localities, schools that I would denominate "experimental schools." If we could have schools representing, as we have in this Association, different phases of educational thought, and if we could put men and women in charge of the children for the purpose of carrying into practical effect the ideas that we believe to be correct, and go at this work in a fair manner and note the results, in a few years we could gather from these experimental schools, just as the farmers are gathering from the agricultural colleges throughout the country, the very best results, and then have reports on these methods. I have been thinking over this subject for several years. I do not know that we could establish such schools unless the university men and the city superintendents, the State superintendents and those engaged in original work, would pull together, and annually compare and publish results. At present the universities, I believe, set this movement on foot better than any other class of institutions that we have in this country.

THE SOUTH AND ITS PROBLEMS.

BY LAWTON B. EVANS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, AUGUSTA, GA.

The condition of any people is consequent upon their history. The problems of the South arise from the condition of the Southern people. This condition has arisen from their environment and their

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traditions; in other words, their history. The solutions of these problems anticipate the improvement of the people and the prevention of evil.

Let us see what God and nature have done for the South. Southern countries, where the physical environment was most attractive, have ever been the seat of greatest empires. Egypt, with its pyramids and temples; Greece, with its arts and learning; Rome, with its armies and wealth; Assyria, Persia, Phœnecia and India, have been the homes of great people, and nature has aided in their greatness.

The physical condition of the Southern country affords every advantage. Bordering on the Atlantic, it lies open to the commerce of Europe and South America, and is in the line of the great routes of traffic that will ultimately pass over the isthmus of Panama, connecting all foreign and northern ports with the great West and the greater East. The soil of the South produces the raw material that clothes the world, and offers to agriculture any kind of product upon which man may wish to exert his skill. God has piled up mountains and filled them with coal and iron, saying to the world: "Here is the place for the mechanic and artisan." He has made the mountains pour down their streams, affording enough water to manufacture every pound of cotton, and grind every grain of wheat and corn in the United States. He has covered the surface with splendid woods of every variety for use and ornament. He has hollowed out deep harbors to float the earth's navies or the earth's merchantmen, and, better than all, he has made a climate so genial that men can work in the open air the year round.

Yet, with nature so inviting and conditions so favorable, the North and West excel the South in wealth and population. A most pertinent inquiry is, to ascertain the reason why this is so. Why have the great cities and States of the North and West grown larger and stronger and wealthier, while those of the South have grown but little? Why have the people of this country chosen to stay on the storm-swept coast of New England, or carve their fortunes out of the blizzard-swept West, instead of seeking for homes in the South? Why have the countries of the old world poured their hard working masses into the crowded quarters of the Northern cities, or sent them to work in the fruitful prairies of the West, instead of directing them to the South?

The answer is not hard to find. The conditions that were presented by the South for over fifty years did not invite immigration nor encourage development. I believe that the institution of slavery, when it settled finally upon the South, fixed a curse upon its people. Slavery may have been a great misfortune to the poor African, but it was a greater misfortune to his master. From the very beginning

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it was most hurtful to the material and educational development of our Southern States. If the will of God was manifest in thus making Canaan to serve his brethren, he inflicted upon a goodly land and a noble people a misfortune that has greatly hindered them in the race for national greatness.

Let me recount these evils.

Slavery condemned the South to an uneducated and wasteful labor. It was the essence of slavery that the victims should be kept in ignorance. It was an offense against the system to educate the slaves. The result was that mere brute force wrested from the soil its great harvest of cotton. The abundance of those harvests was due to the abundance of the force and to the cheapness of its maintenance. This ignorance of labor brought waste. But where land was plentiful, soils were generous, climate was genial and labor cheap, what mattered the ruin of land, the waste of substance or the dissipation of force? The South did not need to conserve its energy, but spent it upon its soil and its society with true prodigality.

I tell you what you already know when I say that the best evidence of modern progress is found in the belief that the labor of a country should be intelligent and skilled. Technical and scientific schools of all kinds have sprung up to teach all people how to work properly, economically, successfully and happily. This was not possible in a slave-holding country. The South was, and is, burdened by a great weight of ignorant and unskilled labor.

Then the skilled artisans of other countries and other States refused to come to or abide in a land where labor was the occupation of a slave. Immigration was discouraged, except to those who had wealth and leisure. The mechanics and artisans of Europe found homes in the North and West, and spent their talent and substance in building up the industries and commerce of those sections. They did not find in the South congenial environment nor cordial invitation, and turned their faces to where hard labor was more respectable though nature was less kindly.

The result was that the industry of the South was confined to agriculture, and that took almost the exclusive form of cotton. The iron and coal were left to sleep undisturbed side by side in their mighty beds. The rivers were left to sing their solos, unattended by the diapason of the factory. The forests and swamps were guiltless of the woodman's ax. The world was going elsewhere for its iron and coal, its manufactured goods and its beautiful woods of oak and pine.

Likewise did slavery affect the popular estimate of labor. The talents of the young ran toward the professions and not toward the industries. A civilization of rich and cultured gentlemen, of

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princely hospitality, of profound learning, of entrancing oratory, of superb qualities of leadership in camp and court and council, flourished under this patriarchal system of labor. The habits of thought, the very traditions of the people, their prejudices and pride ran counter to labor. That was the work of slaves. Intellectual pursuits only were proper for gentlemen. Thus, in an age when labor was the greatest necessity and the greatest blessing, the South was perpetuating a system that made labor despicable, and incapacitated its youth for industry.

Surely the South was in bondage, and in bondage to slavery. The chosen people of God were again in captivity to Egypt, and the dusky Paraoh was imposing the impossible task of building national temples out of brick that contained no straw. The Prometheus of Southern enterprise was chained to the rock of slavery, and the vultures fed upon its vitals.

Emancipation meant much for the slave, but it meant more for the master. He indeed was freed from his superstitions and traditions, and while the awakening came in the rude shock of battle, yet out of the fierce furnace of war were turned those conditions of freedom and necessity that rightly adjudged and improved shall be the implements with which he will build a loftier tower of strength and a more beautiful temple of glory.

With the coming of war also came disaster. Reflect for a moment that in four years there went up in flame and was drunk by the sword, three billions of the property of the South. Since that time the tax-gatherer has exacted a yearly tribute of thirty millions, altogether seven hundred and fifty millions of dollars, out of the very ashes of the Southern poverty, as pensions for Northern soldiers. The marvel is that the South has survived at all. In addition to this utter and complete prostration, this entailment of poverty, there was combined a difficulty of adaptation to the new environment. There was perpetuated the old pride, and the old princeliness. And saddest of all, there was begotten by demagogues on both sides of the Potomac a prejudice that was born in misrepresentation, bred in misunderstanding, and fostered into bitterness and hate. I thank God that this difficulty is being relieved, that this prejudice and passion are passing away, and only an occasional editor or demagogue vents his gall upon his sister section.

The war brought new conditions to the people of the South. The labor was now free labor, and had to be paid for. It was likewise unskilled labor, and had to be trained. It was to a great extent insubordinate labor, and had to be controlled. It was altogether an ignorant labor, and had to be educated. One of the most serious conditions met on the outpost of our new civilization was the

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lack of an orderly and intelligent peasantry to care for the agriculture and industry of the South.

Another lesson was brought to use in the rude tuition of war. We learned, that while cotton was great, it was not all-powerful. Alone it could not and did not hold the tower. It needed the vassalage of other crops and of other industries to do homage to its white banner, and strike swords with its own in defense of their fields. Cotton, indeed, was king, but it was a deserted king. I do not know whether the able Pennsylvanian who wrote a book on "Coal, Iron and Oil" was right or wrong when he said: "If the Southern States had kept pace with the Northern in developing their physical resources there would have occurred no rebellion; but if it had occurred it would have been utterly impossible to subdue that people." I do not know whether this be true or not. I cannot say. I thank God that the problems of the South are not isolated, but to be solved inside the American Union. The war brought calamity, but it did not bring separation. War was God's mysterious way of ridding the South of her burden and stripping her for the race of progress. She, a Bartimeus, blind but not a beggar, had sat by the wayside while the procession moved by her. But God's voice came to her in the din and conflict of battle. She arose and cast away her sable entanglement, and now, with her eyes opened, she goes leaping and praising God.

Out of these new conditions there sprung new necessities. We can no longer practice the habit of the past. Its beautiful customs and its princely ways are folded forever in the flag that was lowered at Appomattox. We have nothing in the past to be ashamed of or to apologize for. We had a right to defend our institutions from invasion. That issue has met stern settlement, and so we look around us, take inventory of what is left, and begin to build anew. The old civilization ran counter to the prejudices of the world. The world avoided and antagonized us. That brought isolation. The war changed this. We were forced into coincidence with modern thought. The true problem before us, then, is how quickest to get rid of the old ideas, old habits, old customs, and how best to adapt ourselves to the new conditions and the new necessities that environ us. This is one of the issues for which the educators of the South should feel most concern.

God has called unto this Abram, in his idolatry, to: "Get thee out of thy superstitions, and from thy traditions, and from thy fathers' prejudices and passions, and wander awhile in the wilderness beset by the Canaanites, so that I may make out of thee a great nation." And his promise endures, that "I will bless thee and make thy name great."

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Having studied the conditions, let us address ourselves to the remedies.

The South needs the development of her industries and of her resources. The cotton factory ought to stand as a neighbor to the cotton field. The iron foundry ought to look down the shaft of the iron mine. The furnace should stand by the bedside of the coal. The South cannot now do these things. It has the spirit and the enterprise; it lacks the capital. Its people are still too poor to build factories, to dig mines, to cut down forests, to build railroads. The clutch of the foreign manipulator is upon the throat of the Southern farmer, choking his cotton to six cents per pound and making him too poor to even send his children to school. We need gold to flow into the arteries of Southern industries; foreign gold, Northern gold. Talk not to me of compulsory education, of sending boys and girls to school, when the larder at home is empty. The South is still too poor to solve some of its problems.

We need more people in the South. We need a class of industrious and intelligent laborers and skilled artisans, who will abide in our fields to redeem their waste, who will take hold of our small industries and keep us from buying so many things away from home, whom we can trust to do an honest job or an honest day's work at an honest price. There is too much land, too much water, too much wood going to waste. We want people with capacity and enterprise to come among us. They will conserve our forces. We need a bold yeomanry. It will guarantee our safety. The spirit of human liberty has already deserted the throne and now sits by the hearthstone of the people. We need more homes in the South. And we stand with gracious and kindly invitation upon our borders and say to the world: "Come in, gentlemen, and welcome. Bring your families and abide with us. Let this be an Alabama to your wanderings and an Ebenezer to your hopes."

Then, our own sons need to be equipped for the future. Our people must be brought to appreciate the value of training schools in the arts and sciences. We need technical schools, polytechnical schools in every State and for every purpose of development in the South. We have already some of these, and the people are opening their eyes to see their value. But we need more. Schools of engineering, schools of mining, schools of design, should spring up around the university, and culture should be extended into the industries. We have a few normal schools for training teachers, but we need more. We do not meet the demand for skilled teachers except in some localities, and much of the teaching force runs to waste. We have talent and capacity, willingness and enterprise, in the men and women of the South. God has made no better country,

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no nobler people. We need to have our energies directed, our sons and daughters trained.

Another thing we need, on both sides, is a more kindly spirit and a better understanding one of another. Politicians and demagogues have kept up the war long after brave men said it should cease. The great mass of the people, North and South, have already laid aside the bitterness of the struggle. They are willing to forget the past. Beyond the Potomac they have honored their leaders with office, and secured their soldiers with pensions. It was just. A preserved Union owed it to them in gratitude. In the South we will do the same in our way. We will do it in reverence and in love, and yet in patriotism. I do not deem that honors paid to heroes constitute treason to the flag. In the city of Atlanta we are getting ready for two things. We are preparing to run a Confederate general for the office of Governor of the State, and we are preparing to receive as guests the members of the Grand Army of the Republic. The two go well together. And we propose to show these latter heroes, that out of the ashes they left us in 1864 there has risen in thirty years a great and beautiful city. But let them know, also, that we have not laid one stone in bitterness nor builded aught in malice. We need to know each other, trust each other and help each other. Educators have this duty before them.

We invite you to come and look upon the cotton fields, upon every stalk of which there hangs a white flag of truce. Look upon our wheat fields, that have made golden crowns out of the garnered sunshine. Come, sit down beneath our trees and by the side of our waters. Let us tell you that the great American heart beats as warm in our bosoms as in yours. We yet have Washingtons and Taylors and Jacksons ready to die for the old flag. We can solve our problems if we are given the sunlight of Anglo-Saxon help and sympathy everywhere. We want an alliance in good faith between Northern people and Southern people; between Western capital and Southern fields; between Eastern enterprise and Southern opportunity. We of the South want a united people, as well as a reunited country.

Lastly, we come to the grave problem of the ultimate fate of the negro. I have labored with him, and studied about him, and stood by him, and at length will unhesitatingly declare my belief that, for our sake and for his, the South and the negro will separate. Not now, mayhap, but in God's good time.

The race problem deepens and darkens with the years. While we are confronted with the grave problem of how to educate the negro and what to do with him now, there is reserved for our children's children a problem still more grave and portentous. They

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will be confronted by the educated negro, and will be called upon to answer the question what to do with him then. Suppose our educational schemes succeed; suppose we elevate him as a race until he has the instincts and desires of a white man. What will be the condition then, as logical consequence of what we are doing now? The negro, having been taught what are his social and political and intellectual rights, will naturally demand their recognition. Being trained for office, he will demand office. Being trained for luxury, he will demand luxury. Being taught as a negro child the same things and in the same way as the white child, when he becomes a negro man he will want the same things and demand them in the same way as a white man. We will then see two vigorous and persistent races, born and reared upon the same soil, yet entirely different and antagonistic in blood and disposition, each struggling for the mastery. Then a war of the races will be upon us.

In this struggle there can be but one result. The Anglo-Saxon blood, which took possession of the British Isles and made England what it is to-day; which crossed the Atlantic and wrested this country from its discoverers and pushed the Spaniards into the gulf, the Frenchman beyond the lakes and drove the Indian into the setting sun, will again assert its supremacy and persistence, and will dominate this soil first, last and all the time.

Is Canaan to serve his brother forever? If so, we shall need to change our laws giving him equality and to alter our practices giving him enlightenment. For as such, as results follow causes, we are preparing for separation or rushing into conflict.

Equalization is impossible. No two races have ever lived with equal powers and equal rights peaceably on the same soil. History declares they cannot and common sense confirms it. One will absorb or else rise up and smite the other. The blood of the Anglo-Saxon brooks no rival; assuredly not in a nation whose traditions are debasing and whose inheritance is tainted with slavery.

There are then left but three possible things to do.

1. Amalgamation—which is the revolting proposition that the blood of the negroes and of the whites shall run together in the formation of a new race. I tell you bravely that this will not be. The blood of the Saxon is jealous of its purity and will never run with the blood of the African, save in lust. The result would be national debasement. Neither does the negro wish absorption. It would be the destruction of his identity as a race. Nay, fear not, the voice of Rome shall call for her Antonies and save them from their wanton with the dusky queens of the Nile.

2. Extermination—which means that, if the worst should come upon us and internecine war be the result, the negro race could not

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cope with the white man. It would be cut down in a bloody harvest of war. This is too inhuman and cruel to contemplate. It shall never be. By that time the world will have passed beyond war. Abram will be ready to say unto Lot: "Let there be no strife between me and thee; for we be brethren. Is not the whole land before thee? Separate thyself, I pray thee, from me."

3. Colonization—which means that the negro race will, of its own accord, by the operation of natural laws of development, separate from the whites into one or more communities of their own. I am frank to maintain that the negro race is not now ready for colonization. It is an infant, and needs the nurture and training of the stronger race. To colonize them now would be to run the risk of having them lapse into barbarism. They would not know how to rule, nor how to work for, nor how to trade with, nor how to teach each other. They are not yet ready to be set apart. How long before this will be, only he knows in whose hands are gathered all the ends of these tangled threads.

The white man of the South will need to bear patiently the burden of the negro training. He will need to train him in morals. to train him in manners, to train him in letters, to train him in labor, to train him in citizenship, and the South ought and is willing to bear the burden. She will divide the crust with the hungry playmates of other years. She will not soon forget the unswerving fidelity of the black hands that stood guard over the homes and tilled her fields while her sons were at the front. There was a tenderness between master and slave, that exists even yet, that none but they can ever understand.

For many years to come the negro race will develop slowly in character, will grow in capacity for self-government, in independence of thought, and in power of self-protection. Infinite patience and faith are needed to adjust the burden to the shoulders of the South. But, at last, being capable of self-government, having passed the danger point by process of growth and education, they can be trusted to walk alone. Realizing that scattered they have no chance to be a nation, they will willingly coalesce into States and communities, and start out for themselves. When this time comes, it will be done slowly and without jar or hurt to the South or to the negro. Ultimately but a few scattered remnants will go back and forth among the whites, whom once they all served as masters.

God's hand is moving in all these matters, and he may intend that the negro race shall serve its apprenticeship here and go back to its parent home and redeem the dark continent from its savagery and heathenism. Then, indeed, is the prophecy fulfilled that "Ethiopia shall lift up her hands unto God." It matters not where they

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go. Some may go to Mexico, some to South America, some to Western Territories.

Amid all the mysteries that surround this problem we still confidently believe that education is a good thing for the negro race; that he is being prepared for citizenship and self-government; that he is being lifted out of barbarism into civilization. And as soon as he is able to take care of himself and to carry out the lessons of his youth, the hand of God will reach down and gather him together and put him somewhere on the face of the earth where he can work out his own destiny in his own way.

The scattered molecules of the negro race will gather into one or more masses to form a negro nation. They then shall have their own laws, their own rules and their own opportunities for development.

Now, I have shown that slavery is largely responsible for the condition of the South to-day; that it was a powerful narcotic infused into the blood of the South, bringing sweet dreams and disaster; that we are even yet feeling its after effects of languor; that we still need to apply the tonic and restorative of immigrant capital and skilled labor, and to still further exert ourselves to throw off the lethargy of the old habits.

And in this work of regeneration and reform all good schoolmen bear their part. We have tardy communities to arouse and stimulate, unwilling legislatures to influence; in fact, a whole people to teach and to guide. Then, the coming race belongs to the teachers. We are rearing a generation of industrious, God-serving and neighbor-loving men and women, who shall be educated out of their prejudices and incapacity, who shall know no section, but love this as a common and a united country, no longer divided, but one great America.

And the teacher is the Æneas that shall lead the young Ascanius of the South out from the broken walls and ruined temples of the old Troy to build upon the banks of many Tibers a civilization that shall confound the Greeks and place the world under tribute.

THE SOUTH AND ITS PROBLEMS.—TEACHING PATRIOTISM IN SOUTHERN SCHOOLS.

BY HON. J. M. CARLISLE, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, TEXAS.

In discussing this subject it is desired to notice briefly: First, the nature of patriotism; second, difficulties in teaching patriotism in Southern schools; third, the necessity of teaching patriotism; and, fourth, the means of teaching patriotism.

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THE NATURE OF PATRIOTISM.

Patriotism—the love of country—is a rational emotion. By common consent, we all regard as unnatural the man who is indifferent to the mother that bore him and the father that supported him during infancy and youth, to the home that sheltered him, to the hills upon which in boyhood he sported, to the old schoolhouse endeared by tender recollections of faithful teachers and loving fellows, to the old church in which he was wont to sing the old songs and feel his young heart lifted to the God of his fathers; to any spot familiar to his youth and hallowed by memories of early associations. It is in this instinctive attachment to the soil where one is born that patriotism takes its origin. Beginning with the birthplace, our love of the soil widens and grows, taking in the immediate locality, the school district, the town, the county, the State, the country. It is also to be noticed that each step outward works a modification in the sentiment as it before existed. Without abating our devotion to home and family, we learn to regard, also, our immediate neighbors and begin to feel that, in many things, we should yield something of our wishes and interests to the wishes and interests of our neighbors. Then we come to yield something of our neighborhood interests out of regard for the interests of the larger territory, the county, and so on, until in this expansion of our views and sentiments we reach the State, the country.

The country—the country that we love—is something more than territory and population. It includes a community of language; a community of laws; a commonwealth of tradition, history and literature; a common government, a common flag and a common name.

Thus, patriotism, in its broader sense, is a very complex sentiment, a sentiment embracing many narrower forms of patriotism; a patriotism of the home, of the neighborhood, of the village or town; of the county, of the State, of the union of States.

THE DIFFICULTIES OF TEACHING PATRIOTISM IN THE SCHOOLS OF THE SOUTH.

It is always best to be candid. You, fellow teachers from the North, are upon Southern soil, the guests of a Southern city. As a citizen of the South, I hail you as visitors to my own household, as friends, as brethren. Hence, I mean to speak only in the utmost kindness. But the fact that your president has asked me to discuss some phase of the question, "The South and Its Problems," convinces me that you are prepared to consider with us these problems, and that you ask nothing more nor less than a fair, candid treatment of them.

It is not my purpose to open old wounds or revive unpleasant memories. But you are interested in these problems. You are will-

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ing to help solve them. It is proper, therefore, to state, that, in the teaching of patriotism, Southern teachers encounter obstacles that are not in your way. We have no trouble in establishing patriotic sentiments towards our counties, cities and States. But in the larger field of patriotism towards the union of States you are not prepared to believe, nor am I prepared to state, that we have no peculiar difficulties to meet. It must be remembered that patriotism is a rational sentiment, and its health and growth require a diet upon which the reason can feed. A true patriotism cannot be established in the sensibilities alone. It must also be borne in mind that "country" includes the government and laws, as well as the soil and the people.

Through the fostering care of the Federal Government the North and East have grown enormously rich and prosperous. The people of those sections of our country find, upon every hand, great object lessons upon the benefits of the Federal Government. Not so with us. The most patriotic among us is compelled to reflect, that while the blood of our fathers was freely shed, and the resources of our country were freely given in the great struggle that made the Union possible; that while Southern chivalry carried to success, over much opposition in other sections, the second war of independence, the war of 1812; that while it was principally a Southern soldiery that carried the American flag over the burning plains and up the rugged mountains of Mexico, and unfurled it in triumph above the ancient capital of the Montezumas, conquering a nation without the loss of a single battle, and adding millions of acres to the public domain; that while Southern heroes and statesmen have contributed immeasurably to the glory of the American name and the greatness of the American government; yet, almost from the beginning, the policies of the government have not been conducive to the interests of the South. With the progress of years and the strengthening of these policies the unfavorable effects upon our interests became clearer and more pronounced. Some thirty-three years ago the attitude of the Federal administration towards our institutions became so unfriendly and threatening that the South sought protection in an effort to withdraw from the Union in a peaceable manner, as it believed it had a right to do. This right was disputed, and an army was sent to convince us of our mistake. We resisted invasion and war followed. Our fathers fought for what they believed to be an essential principle of the Federal Union, antedating the Constitution and forming the basis upon which it rested.

It is not this war alone that interposes obstructions to the teaching of patriotism; we dispose of it as the result of an honest difference among brave men, settled as becomes brave men. But the course of the government since the war presents more serious difficulties. The war was fought upon the issue of secession, for the avowed

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purpose of preserving the Union. When it was over and the victors went to amend the Constitution, what amendments were adopted? Not a word about the perpetuity or indivisibility of the Union; not a word in derogation of the right of secession; but, in 1865, an amendment was adopted abolishing slavery, although at the beginning of the war the whole country had been assured in a most solemn manner that the status of slavery in the States where it then existed would not be disturbed. In 1868 another amendment was adopted giving citizenship to the recently emancipated slaves, and in 1870 still another amendment was adopted conferring upon them the right of suffrage. These were acts of peace. Five years before the adoption of the last-mentioned amendment all the arms of the South had been laid aside and there had been no effort to resume them. This amendment was adopted during the days of reconstruction. It is needless to say that no part of this country would have slavery restored, but the people of the South did not see the justice of this amendment, giving to an illiterate race the responsible and high privilege of suffrage. They looked upon it as an act to humiliate and oppress them, long after they had turned from war to the pursuits of peace, by placing them under the dominion of the lately liberated slaves, who possessed absolutely no qualification for the exercise of this high and responsible duty of sovereignty. Giving them the ballot at that time has ever been regarded at the South as more than a mistake; it has been regarded as the crime of partisans, a crime against the freedman himself, unprepared to rule, as he was, and a deeper crime against free institutions, a blot upon American honor, a stain upon Saxon blood.

Then came the civil rights bill, the demand for equal social recognition for the colored people (a thing altogether impracticable), and other unwise and unfriendly legislation.

These acts have caused more or less irritation and alarm. In the meantime the Federal revenue laws have borne heavily upon our people to the advantage of other sections of our common country.

Whether we look to the past, or the present, the benefits of the Federal Government to our people, though they have been great, have not been immediate and apparent, while the burdens imposed have been direct and distinct.

Another difficulty in our way is found in the books on history and literature available for our use. These books are in most cases written by men who have been so biased that they have not been able, it seems, to omit opinions and selections specially obnoxious to our section of the country. This complaint holds against much of the so-called patriotic literature published for the schools. We cannot use this literature. The pupils in our schools are the children, the grandchildren and the great-grandchildren of the soldiers of the

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South. We could not, if we would, teach them that Robert E. Lee and "Stonewall" Jackson were rebels or traitors. Their fathers and grandfathers followed Lee and Jackson to the downfall of a cause—the embodiment of a principle which they cherished with an abiding devotion as one of the foundation stones of free institutions.

THE NECESSITY OF TEACHING PATRIOTISM.

Patriotism is the sentiment that binds us to our country, and secures willing obedience to its laws, begets respect for the people's magistrates, supports the government in time of peace, maintains her armies in times of war and nerves a soldier to say, when necessary, "'Tis sweet and noble to die for one's country." Never has there been a greater need for the cultivation of a patriotic sentiment among all the people. It is true the government has prescribed penalties and punishments for the violation of its laws, and for compelling submission to its authority; but the government that relies solely upon its system of pains and penalties must lead a precarious and perilous existence. Such a government is like a school in which the teacher relies upon the fear of punishment to secure order and industry, without attempting to build up any sentiment impelling order and industry as the rightful contribution of each pupil to the good of all—the success of the school. It is possible to maintain order and industry through fear and force, and it is sometimes necessary to resort to these means; but when they become the only reliance of the teacher the school becomes a failure.

So may a government for a time enforce obedience to its laws and a formal compliance with the requirements placed upon the citizens, but a government controlled by no higher sentiment is a failure even during its existence, and this is necessarily limited and uncertain. To the consent of the governed we must come at last for stability and perpetuity of government. For centuries the unmistakable tendencies of the civilized world have been towards democracy. But in human institutions there is no good unmixed with evil; with liberty comes license; with democracy comes demagogy. Ours is an age of nihilism, socialism, communism and anarchy. Only a few days ago an anarchist in France, condemned to death for exploding a bomb in the chamber of deputies, inquired what the sentence was, and, without waiting for reply, exclaimed: "It is death! I thank you."

Our own country is being made the refuge of the propagandists of all the "isms" of all other countries, when they could live elsewhere no longer. Hence, we have a mixture of all the evils that have threatened the several governments of Europe.

We have also incorporated into our citizenship a vast body of foreign-born population, speaking different languages, holding to different

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traditions, fixed in different habits of life, ignorant of our institutions, unacquainted with our history, laws, customs and manners; isolated in their sympathies, tastes and prejudices. These heterogeneous and incongruous elements, we have undertaken to assimilate and Americanize. Our success in this effort has been marvelous, yet not complete; and the very fact that we have within the body of our citizenship large numbers of people not responsive to the sentiments and duties of American citizens has reacted upon us, and, in a measure, weakened our cherished sentiments and attachments.

Can we not, my fellow-citizens of the North and of the South, of the East and of the West, in view of this condition, cast aside the thought of sectionalism, put aside all past differences, put aside partisanship in every form, and unite upon the broad platform of rescuing from danger those institutions which we all agree are the most salutary the world has ever seen? The hour demands of us, as educators, above all men, the purest and loftiest patriotism; a patriotism limited by no State lines, by no sectional boundaries, that has one country, one flag, one name, one language, one history, and, above all, one standard of manhood and one standard of womanhood.

THE MEANS OF TEACHING PATRIOTISM.

The means of teaching patriotism are readily deduced from the nature of patriotism.

1. Patriotism is a rational sentiment. There must be reasons for it. These reasons are to be found in the contemplation of the benefits of the government, which will most readily appear from the study of civics. Hence, will arise with us a difficulty which I have already noted, that the general policies of the Federal Government have unfavorably affected our industries. But we should teach our children that it is not the business of a free government to help its citizens in their private interests, further than to protect them in the enjoyment of life, liberty and property; that it is not the business of the government to bestow bounties; that all a citizen can ask is security against invasion of his rights, an equal chance and a fair show in the race of life; that in order to secure the benefits of government, it is necessary for the minority to submit to the will and wisdom of the majority, although it may involve some personal disadvantage. We should point out, that, in a savage state, every man must defend himself against injury, avenge his own wrongs and protect his own property, while in a civilized country the government defends him against attack, redresses his wrongs, and secures his property. We may further point to the general excellencies of our own system of government; that the humblest citizen may aspire to the highest positions of honor and influence; that men have risen from abject poverty and utter ob-

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security to the first honors of the land; that, as a matter of fact, the first among all classes of men, whether in public or private life, have come from the farms and workshops rather than from the homes of plenty and luxury; that we have made presidents of tailor lads, rail splitters and canal-mule drivers; that newsboys have become senators and millionaires; that honesty and industry are titles of nobility and the fact of citizenship the ensign of sovereignty; that under the benign influences of our government no man can fail to attain usefulness, which is the chief good, and happiness, its natural reward, without fault of his own.

These thoughts are trite and commonplace, it is true; and for this very reason I fear we do not sufficiently appreciate them, and, consequently, do not sufficiently impress them upon the young.

Again, ours is the land of liberty. Men have suffered death for a rash word; have been thrust into prison or banished from their native land for speaking and writing their honest opinions; have been put to torture and to death for worshiping God according to the dictates of their own consciences. Through years of bloodshed and centuries of struggle, mankind has at last arrived at the proposition, first fully recognized in the organization of our own government, that every man is entitled to the fullest individual liberty consistent with the rights of others. Here, too, obtains the fullest recognition of local self-government—the right of districts to regulate the affairs of districts, of counties to regulate county affairs, of cities to regulate municipal affairs, of States to regulate State affairs. The grand proposition is, that the government of the citizen must be left as near his own door and as completely within his own influence as is compatible with the security and safety of society.

Still further, in our country the citizen is king—the ruler, yet a servant. It is within the power of our citizenship to correct every abuse, to reform every evil tendency, to abolish every oppression, to right every wrong.

Not only do public officials hold position by the free choice of the people, but at the bidding of the citizen laws are changed, constitutions are amended, and the government itself is altered; "Public office is a public trust," and governments exist for man, not man for government.

2. History is also a fountain from which patriotic emotions flow. From general history, the child will learn to take an interest in other men; to feel his heart warm and his pulse quicken as he reads or hears the story of the struggles, sufferings and triumphs of generations long since dead. But, more particularly, from the history and traditions of our own country he will learn how our forefathers exposed themselves to all the privations, dangers and sufferings of pioneer life; far from home and friends and native land; deprived of

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the luxuries of life; subject to the severities of an unfamiliar climate and the stealthy attacks of a savage foe, to establish on the wild shores of the Atlantic the first feeble beginnings of the greatest country of history and of the world. Here may be traced how, from these small beginnings, made after a hundred years of explorations and adventures, and then vacillating for years between hope and despair, the present great Union of States has grown in less than three centuries. Here the pupil will also learn with what stubborn determination those early heroes, notwithstanding the dangers surrounding them, clung to their rights, and how a mere handful of hardy backwoodsmen, scattered from Maine to Florida, dared the hazard of a rebellion against the first of nations rather than abate a jot or tittle of their just demands; with what courage and under what discouragements, at what cost and what sacrifices, with what splendid patriotism, they maintained the conflict, carried it to success and achieved the independence of the States. Here, also, the pupil will learn with what profound philosophy and statesmanship, with what consummate wisdom and art, with what surpassing moderation and conservatism, the foundations of the government were laid; and so on, throughout all the glorious past till the beginning of sectionalism.

3. Patriotic literature is another means of cultivating patriotic sentiment. A true example of patriotism, in whatever age or country it may have occurred, and a truly patriotic thought, in whatever language spoken, to whatever country applied, has power to kindle the patriotic flame. We should insist upon having our readers and other school literature filled with patriotic gems which can be used by all the children of the land.

4. Patriotism may be taught by means of patriotic songs and emblems. The flag of the Union and the flag of the State should be the property of every school. They should be so often unfurled in the presence of the children that their silent but certain lessons of patriotism cannot fail to be taught. Every child should every day of his school life sing a bit of patriotic song or meet with some patriotic sentiment. On all holiday occasions and in all public entertainments patriotic recitations, songs and emblems should be distinctly prominent.

Thus, by surrounding our schools with an atmosphere of patriotism, by cultivating broad sentiments, by expunging sectionalism from our books and literature, we may, without any violence to our past, build up a strong, patriotic manhood, upon which the future greatness and glory of the country may safely and surely rest.

We meet to-day upon the sacred soil of Virginia, in the famous city of Richmond. Here were enacted the last scenes of the Southern Confederacy. Around Richmond fought Lee and Jackson, twin

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idols of the Southern soldier's heart. Around Richmond fought Grant and Sheridan, no less the idols of the Northern soldier's heart. Let us, each and all, do honor to these great soldiers; but let us forget the many sad scenes that were enacted in those dark days.

Here rest the ashes of Jefferson Davis, the chivalrous chieftain of the "Lost Cause." Let the citizens of the whole country honor him for his many virtues and every year cover his grave with fresh flowers of peace. In a distant city rests the ashes of Abraham Lincoln, the patriotic and generous chieftain of the conquering government, who was not allowed to finish the great mission of his life, as he saw it—the complete and happy restoration of the Union of the States. Let the citizens of the whole country annually cover his grave with the fresh flowers of peace.

This is Virginia, the mother of States and statesmen. Here flows the James, on whose banks was established the first permament English settlement in America. Here lived Patrick Henry, whose flaming soul and burning speech first lit the fire of revolutionary patriotism. Here lived and here sleeps Thomas Jefferson, the statesman of a thousand years, whose brain and heart conceived and whose hand wrote the immortal Declaration of Independence. Here is the home of Madison, co-laborer with Hamilton in urging the adoption of the Constitution. Here is Yorktown, where the last engagement of the Revolution was fought. Here is the home of Washington, and this is the anniversary of his birth. Here, my fellow countrymen, upon the sacred soil of Virginia, upon the birthday of Washington, the father of his country in deed and in truth, whose memory will live while patriotism has a home in the breast of man, let us resolve to go back to the older memories common to all the country. Here is a rich and inexhaustible fountain of pure patriotism. Here is no poison of sectional hate. Here let us drink. Here let us pledge each other to banish sectionalism from the land, from our books, from our literature, from our lives, from our schools, from our homes, and from our hearts. Let the great thoughts and greater sentiments of that older day once more fill the continent and unite all our people in sympathy and affection, as we are united and must remain united in government and duty.

DISCUSSION.

J. H. PHILLIPS, City Superintendent, Birmingham, Ala.—In the first place, I wish to emphasize the fact that patriotism is not altogether a question of geography. It is not limited by State boundaries, nor restricted by sectional lines. It is a question that comprehends something more, something higher and deeper: it is a question of humanity and brotherhood, and comprehends our entire country.

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the land of our fathers. The problems that have been so ably set forth in the papers to which we have listened this evening evolve from the past conditions and traditions of our country in general and of the South in particular, and now confront the Southern people. These questions, viewed in the light of, and from the standpoint of, this broad and comprehensive patriotism, are no longer Southern problems; they are American problems, requiring the intelligent, patriotic and sympathetic concern of every American citizen.

It may be superfluous to state that, while the South has many questions to solve, and many obstacles to her material development and educational progress that are found in other sections, her most serious and trying difficulties to-day may be traced, directly or indirectly, to this one dark and appalling race problem. Upon the solution of that problem, ladies and gentlemen, will depend the ultimate freedom of the South, as well as the ultimate removal of the difficulties that now obstruct her educational progress.

In the contemplation of these problems, the South has not been indifferent or idle. Important steps preliminary to their final solution have already been bravely undertaken and partially accomplished. In every Southern State the people have undertaken the task of providing for the elementary education of the children of the negro race; in every Southern State to-day this work is carried on as efficiently as the limited means at their command will permit. This is a serious, and, in many instances, a most grievous burden. In many States it involves much self-denial, much self-sacrifice. As you heard this afternoon, some of these States have already provided normal schools for the education of teachers for the colored race, while, as yet, none have been established in these States for the white race. In my own State, there has been established a State normal university for colored students, and State aid is given to two other institutions for the same purpose. In many communities the public school fund is devoted entirely to the maintenance of colored schools, while the children of the whites in those communities are educated at private expense. The self-sacrifice involved in this will be more fully appreciated, when we remember that the negro necessarily contributes little or nothing in the form of taxes for the maintenance of the schools.

The South, I believe, appreciates to the fullest extent the beneficent aid that the philanthropy and benevolence of the North and East have extended toward the solution of this question. Schools for the secondary and higher education of the negro, established by means of these benefactions, are, to-day, accomplishing great good by educating teachers and preachers for the negro race. Let me emphasize one principle, that, in my judgment, must sooner or later be recognized; namely, that the education and development of the negro race must come from within, and not from without. We must assist him to work out his own salvation. The negro himself, whenever it is possible, demands that his children shall be taught by negro teachers. This principle is quite generally recognized throughout the South. It is hardly necessary here to attempt an argument in justification of this proposition. That negro teachers are better adapted for the work of teaching children of their own race, may be better appreciated if we consider the relations that must necessarily exist between teacher and pupil. The negro may learn much by absorption and observation, and will accomplish much by imitation, but the ultimate development of the race must come from within the body of the people, through the instrumentality and activity of the race itself, if its progress is to be genuine and permanent.

Again, the burden undertaken by the South will be more fully appreciated, when we recall the fact, that, from the very nature of the circumstances, it becomes necessary to maintain a dual system of schools. Where the negro is found in such large masses, the reasons for this are obvious; the existence of race preju-

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dices and the instinct of race identity are potent reasons for separate schools for the races. But the strongest reason, in my judgment, is found in the inherent differences in the capacities of the two races, and the differences in their life conditions and environment. These differences involve the necessity for adaptation; they involve the necessity for separate and distinct curricula—separate and distinct methods of instruction for the two races. From an experience of twelve years in the supervision of negro schools, as a part of a municipal system, I have become convinced that it is an injustice to the negro child to require him to pass through the same course of study as the white child, and to require him to complete that course in the same time and under the same conditions. As compared with the white race, the negro is an infant. To employ the same curriculum and the same methods in the instruction of this "child race" that are employed in the education of a race now in the zenith of its development and maturity, is as unjust as it is unnatural and illogical. The adaptation of courses of study and methods of instruction to the wants of negro schools is to-day one of the South's most pressing educational problems.

With regard to the ultimate solution of the negro question, I have but little to offer. The magazines and periodicals have presented abundance of theoretical solutions, and you are at liberty to take your choice. The South, however, let it be understood, is now fully committed to the tenet of universal education, and especially to the education of the negro, whether it leads ultimately to colonization, or simply to the gradual dispersion of the race, until, like the Jew, it shall become a factor in every community throughout our country instead of being an incubus upon any one section of our land, as it is to-day. I prefer to contemplate dispersion as the ultimate solution of this great question, because it seems to be the natural and logical result of processes now in operation. We all know that the ignorant and superstitious are attached to the soil; they are permanent appendages of the land like the helots of Sparta and the serfs of Russia. The dullard never emigrates. As the negro becomes enlightened, and is lifted above the dead plane of ignorance, he manifests the tendency, which characterizes all enlightened races, to free himself from slavery to the soil and to improve his condition by emigration. As a demonstration of this fact, we find negroes to-day in our Rocky Mountain and Pacific States, in New England, in Canada, and even on the continent of Europe. But these negroes are far superior to the average Southern negro; they are intelligent, thrifty, and able to cope with their surroundings. Most of them are Southern negroes who have been educated up to the point of emigration. When the 7,000,000 of negroes in this country are distributed among all the States—among a population of 70,000,000—the negro question will have found a proximate, if not a final, solution. Education is the key to this solution. The process is fairly begun, but time, patience and money are necessary to its completion.

COL. FRANCIS W. PARKER, Principal Cook County Normal School, Englewood, Ill.—I am glad to be here, in the heart of old Virginia; glad to be surrounded by the men and women who have in trust the highest interest of society, that of education.

I have the greatest horror of war in all its forms. I had no desire whatever to go to war in 1860. "The greatest civil war that ever darkened the earth," filled my soul with the deep horror of the untold miseries of murderous strife. I remember that on the march, in the battle, in the siege, I dreamed and thought and planned how humanity could be saved from the barbarism of fratricidal war. How could the people be educated in such a way as to keep them from slaying each other? War is barbarism; it is barbarism in any way you may put it.

The only way to save a people from war is to educate that people, to educate the children of that people; to educate them into true freedom in the common

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schools. I was a teacher before the war, and I resolved here, upon the battlefields of the South, that I would continue to be a teacher My purpose in being a teacher is to aid in perpetuating the Republic, the hope of the world.

It has given me great pleasure to listen to the masterly handling of the subjects of the condition and progress of the South by the distinguished gentlemen to whom we have listened. In most things I heartily agree with them. But there is a strain of distress, of despair, in regard to a condition of things that may be overcome. If we are told that, under our feet, deep down in the earth, there was a precious mine of priceless gold, we would dig and dig until we found it. If we were told that costly diamonds were scattered over the prairies and fields, we would search and search. If we had acres of rich, productive land, we would sow and reap. But, my brethren, there is a mine more precious than all the gold in the world; there are diamonds brighter, better and more costly than were ever found in the earth; there is a sowing of immortality and a reaping of eternal life. This mine is the child's soul; the search is to find out the infinite means which God has supplied us for the development of humanity, and the richest of all growth. The life in this world of ours is the sowing of the seeds of character in children's souls.

When we appreciate the unlimited possibilities for human growth; when we fully appreciate the divinity born in every human being; when we apply the conditions for human growth, all these matters which now bring despair will be changed and transformed in a newness of light.

In the North, we have the great problems of capital and labor; in the South, the question of what shall be done with the millions of people given liberty through the war, but not given freedom. The only means of freedom is education, and the highest problem on the solution of which we all unite is: How can we take these people, and make them useful, important factors in society? I have only one answer to this problem, and that is, education into work.

The friends of the colored people in the North have made a great mistake about their education. I believe that the erstwhile curse of man, "By the sweat of thy face shalt thou earn thy bread," is his greatest blessing, and I would train every child in the schools of the colored people to work. I would have a shop for handwork in every schoolhouse. I would have a small farm or garden surrounding every schoolhouse. I should train these children into a love of work, ability to work, and into the honesty which is developed by honest labor. And then, from out the ashes of the past will rise the glorious phœnix, liberty and freedom.

I bring to you, then, a profound faith, that in a right education all these great problems, which bring despair to-day, may be solved. I am thankful to feel at this hour that I never fired a rifle, I never stood guard through the dark night, I never marched a step in all the long war, with one particle of hate in my soul. I was fighting for a principle, as you were, and when the great war was over—yea, during the war—I was willing, and more than willing, to renew or to make new bonds of friendship between the North and South.

I wish to say, as a New Englander, that we were just as much responsible for slavery as the citizens of Virginia. Let the dead past bury its dead. We come together to study the situation. How can we make things better? The only thing I have to criticise in the admirable speeches of our brethren this evening is, that there is too much a flavor of discouragement in them. There can be no despair when the magnificent resources of this country abound in life and strength and riches. What we need, as I have said before, is, to study earnestly and persistently the means for the development of our race, and all races. Never despise any one, no matter how low he is in the stage of development. God has given us every child in this world to save, and the one work of all mankind is salvation. Nothing will

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bind us together, heal up the old wounds, bring new life into our whole land, more than this matter of a higher education, of better education for all, for every child born under our flag.

I wish to say that the dogmatic teaching of history is unpedagogical and wrong. I believe the teacher who brings dogmatism to the child brings partisanship, limitations, both mental and moral. Let me tell you how history is taught in the Cook County Normal School. We have on our shelves the works of Stephens, Jefferson Davis, Pollard and Johnston, and we say to the children: "Find out for yourselves; here are the subjects to learn. We do not say that the North was right, or that the South was right; but, here is the history; here are the means; make up your minds for yourselves." Such teaching is the only teaching worthy of democracy. If they study the life of Lee, the greatest general that America ever had, and if they learn to love him, then thank God for it. True patriotism embraces the whole world. True patriotism is not partisan or secular. True patriotism is as broad as Christianity, as sweet and pure as God's love.

SUPT. J. M. GREENWOOD, Kansas City, Mo.—The State in which I live had the "Southern Question" to face in a small way. A State with only 160,000 voting population in 1860, from 1861 to 1865 put 109,000 men into the Union army and from 75,000 to 100,000 into the Southern army. We used to wonder "What will be the result of this terrible conflict?" When it was over, our soldiers came home: those that had lived as friends and neighbors, sometimes as brothers; those that had worshiped around the same altar; that had prayed to the same Creator: those that engaged in the pursuits of life side by side before the war, and then re-engaged as partners after the war. Then it was that the negro question came up before us as a practical issue to be settled by our people. Men in whose arteries flowed the blood from the South and the blood from the North, from the East and from the West, had to meet and solve this problem. We had the negroes among us, without property, ignorant, kind, dependent—120,000 or 130,000 men, women and children. In conversation with one of the most talented men in our State, the Hon. James S. Rollins, I said: "Major, here is a question before us that we must solve. What is our duty as Christian men? We have jails and penitentiaries. We have places in which men, women and children may be incarcerated, and what is our duty?" We look over the whole field; other noble men and women, too, doing the same thing. But, I stood, as a boy, looking up, as it were, into the face and eyes of this master. To educate these people was the only thing that we could do. It is cheaper, we argued, to build schoolhouses; it is cheaper to erect churches; it is cheaper to teach these people to be industrious, intelligent, virtuous and enterprising citizens, than it is to put them in the jails and penitentiary. We went to work. We touched upon the subject easily and almost silently, until all our people agreed with us. It was reason against prejudice at first. What is the result? The 160,000 colored men and women of our State to-day possess between $40,000,000 and $50,000,000 worth of property. They have more than 500 churches with more than 250 parsonages, and the colored teachers are the teachers of the colored children. We found that a white man or a white woman who went into the colored schools to teach lost caste with the negroes as well as with the whites. We went to work at this question as Christian men and Christian women. It made no difference what our prejudices were. Here was a great question; a question overshadowing all others of this country. We knew the characteristics of the Anglo-Saxon race, the virtue and the resources that lie in the American people themselves, to solve, when they set their minds to it, any question that may be proposed in the practical affairs of life. The faith that I have in the people of this country, and in all sections of it, is sufficient to justify me in saying that we will get out

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of this wilderness of doubt, safe home and without any trouble whatever. It will be a long journey, but we will make it dry-shod.

Last summer, I went into the State of Mississippi, where out of every twelve persons seven are colored. I found the educators there solving the colored question. In other Southern States, the good sense of our people is bringing this matter to a favorable termination. The very best blood of the South is at work in the schools. Noble and respected families, of culture and refinement, are represented by their sons and daughters as teachers in the public schools.

I intended to practice law, but when I saw the condition of our country after four years of misery and woe, moved as was Colonel Parker, I said to myself in the silent hours of the night, "that my work is in the schoolroom with the children of this country, because with them is the hope of the country." It may have been a childish feeling. Thank heaven, I believe it was a manly and patriotic one!

I would not take from the children of this country one cherished memory. It is only natural that they should revere the names of the distinguished soldiers under whom their fathers fought. That wavy line of blood that marked more than a thousand battlefields, was made by our own people, as brave and true as ever lived. When I hear the boys and girls of these same fathers discussing the war in the school-room, debating it without any acrimony, but simply as intelligent boys and girls, I see no feeling of hate there. I heard a boy whose father draws a pension say: "I believe that the South was right on this point," and I heard a Southern boy of our city, whose father is one of the best men I ever knew, and who followed the "Lost Cause" down to Mexico, say: "I believe my papa was on the wrong side." What does all this mean? You know. Our boys and girls are sensible children, and they look at this whole question as Abraham Lincoln did, when he said, "These are our people!" He understood it; he had the right feeling; and our children in Missouri have it, too.

There is not one thing that we would blot out, only the sad and sorrowful memories that were connected with four years of darkness. True patriotism is bred in our bones. We are one people, one language, one literature, and every feeling that springs up from the true emotions of the heart, whether men served under the "stars and stripes" or under the "stars and bars," is a patriotic feeling. It was patriotism and love of country, as our people saw it and understood it, that made them bare their breasts to leaden and iron hail, and brought sorrow and mourning to more than 600,000 hearthstones, as the very best blood of our nation ran out. We have gone through the terrible ordeal. We were not responsible for it. The seeds were sown away back yonder. It culminated in our generation. Thank God, I see the light beyond! It is in the 400,000 school teachers, north, south, east and west. Our destiny as a nation is with those who have buckled on the armor and are going forward to train the 15,000,000 boys and girls in our country up to an honest manhood and a virtuous and true womanhood. This army, one that is as large as Napoleon led from Paris to Moscow, is one which will not melt away, but it will continue to grow and increase and spread its influence everywhere in this broad land of ours. Not in the statesmen is the hope of our country, but in the true men and true women. Those that are doing the work at home and in the schools, will bring to bear every influence to lift our people to a higher plane of duty, usefulness and charity.

We stand, as I believe, in a united country, an American people with American blood in our veins, and actuated by the purest and holiest principles that ever inspired any nation onward and upward in the history of the world.

SUPERINTENDENT PRESTON of Mississippi.—In answer to Colonel Parker's statement that the white race may be able to stand arithmetic, geography and grammar, but that the negro cannot acquire higher education, I wish to say that in the State of

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Mississippi under our strict and difficult uniform examinations, we have 595 colored teachers who are able to take first grade licenses, and they are well qualified to teach and competent in scholarship. I want to state further, that we have about 1,200 negroes pursuing collegiate studies in our normal school, supported by the State, and in three other colleges and universities which are supported by charitable societies from the North.

Negroes constitute the larger portion of our laboring class, and make a large part of the products out of which the taxes are paid, and therefore the race is justly entitled to a fair share of the immunities, privileges and advantages of the government of Mississippi. I use this argument with our white people to show the justice of continuing our policy of educating the negroes, and to strengthen public sentiment on this very delicate question.

I can discern no good for either race in the illiteracy of the negro. If there is to be any improvement of conditions, it must come through training and educating him, and I do not believe in limiting his education to manual and industrial training, thereby forcing him everlastingly to become a laborer. Open the avenues for intellectual training, and let the race rise as high as their mental capacities will allow. This is the doctrine I preach in Mississippi. For one, I am not afraid to take my chances with the educated negro; but I shudder for the future if the race is to remain wholly steeped in the darkness of illiteracy and consequent criminality.

The author of the first paper made one statement from which I wish to enter a vigorous dissent. He said we needed, as immigrants, those who would form a middle class of society. I preach the gospel of universal education because its fundamental doctrine is universal equality. We want no classes in this republican country. Make the highways of learning free to all; strike down the barriers of caste and class; let each rise to the height of his God-given powers of intellect.

The author of the paper says further that we are too poor in the South to educate our children. I cite him to New England, with bleak climate and barren soil. She early discovered that she was too poor not to educate her people. In native intelligence, she could compete with the world on equal terms.

The South to-day is too poor not to educate; for, through education must come the solution of all her problems—the restoration of prosperity and ultimate glory to land and people.

COL. F. W. PARKER: I did not mean to confine their training to manual training. I would give the better education of manual training first, because, as I say, I think they need it more.

CLOSING REMARKS OF PRESIDENT D. L. KIEHLE.

You, as educators, are committed to the principle and practice of laboratory experience. During the year since you met in Boston you have been in the laboratory of the school-room. You have reassembled at this place and have exchanged experiences, which show an entire year of profit and advancement in the work of your profession. You have had, not only exercise, but you have made progress. The themes may be old, but you have passed to a higher

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plane, and the discussions of this meeting have shown that your horizon has been broadened. You are nearer the solution of many problems than you were a year ago.

I desire to thank you for the cordial support which has been given me in the responsibility of arranging the program and conducting the execution of it at this time. I felt proud when I was offered this position. I am prouder in the reflection that I represent in this official position the first body of educators in America, which means those who are in the front ranks of the world.

And now, to the good people of Richmond, I wish to express the special gratification which we all feel in the fulfillment of all that has been promised us. Many of us came here as strangers. We could hardly tell what queer expressions our peculiar Northern prejudices might prompt us to. It was somewhat difficult to make the little opening address which was required of me, for, never having been in Virginia, never having even tried to get here before, I was not certain of my whereabouts. But we soon found that we sound the same shibboleth; that we are brethren together.

The topic of this evening was appointed for the benefit of the educators from the North. We felt that we ought again to have presented to us and reviewed these problems which are discussed from time to time, that we might get fresh and authentic information as to the real status of these serious problems. We shall go home assured in our hearts that the civilization of these Southern States is in the keeping of the Christian characters and noble spirits which have been represented here to-night. To be regardless of the problems which oppress you would be indifference, and we feel now that to urge upon you our peculiar or our personal and individual advice would be intrusive. We desire to assure you that we shall never be indifferent to the questions which are oppressing you. We sympathize with the thought, that has already been expressed, that this is a national problem. We all owe something to it, and years ago it would have pleased us at the North heartily if it had seemed best for the general government to have made generous contribution for the support and the encouragement of education in these Southern States.

And now, as we leave you, we wish to feel, with you, that, for the history of the nation, in all of its bright future; for the cementing of the hearts of the people in a spirit of true patriotism; for genuine respect to the brave souls that fought on either side in the fearful conflict through which we have passed, we are indebted, as we shall be in the future, to the Christian educational public. It is because the schoolmaster is abroad in the land that we have faith for the future. And now, as we leave you to go to Cleveland next

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year, we ask you to meet us there. I am quite certain, that, instead of discussing the topic, "The South and its Problems," we shall be prepared to discuss for your benefit "The North and Its Problems," for we have quite plenty of them. Now, we bid you good night and a grateful farewell.

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NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

CONSTITUTION.

PREAMBLE.

The National Council of Education shall have for its object the consideration and discussion of educational questions of general interest and public importance, and the presentation, through printed reports, of the substance of the discussions, and the conclusions formulated. It shall be its object to reach and disseminate correct thinking on educational questions; and, for this purpose, it shall be the aim of the Council, in conducting its discussions, to define and state with accuracy the different views and theories on the subject under consideration, and, secondly, to discover and represent fairly the grounds and reasons for each theory or view, so far as to show, as completely as possible, the genesis of opinion on the subject. It shall be the duty of the Council, in pursuance of this object, to encourage from all its members the most careful statement of differences in opinion, together with the completest statement of grounds for the same. It shall further require from the chairmen of its committees the careful preservation and presentation of the individual differences of opinion whenever grounds have been furnished for the same by members of their committees. It shall invite the freest discussion of the reports of its committees, and, whenever said reports are not so amended as to embody the new suggestions developed by such discussion, any member making such suggestion or objection may put in writing his view and the grounds therefor, and furnish the same to the Secretary for the records of the Council. It shall prepare, through its President, with the aid of the Chairmen of the several committees, an annual report to the National Association, setting forth the questions considered by the Council during the previous year, and placing before the Association, in succinct form, the work accomplished. It shall embody in this report a survey of those educational topics which seem to call for any action on the part of the Association. The Council shall appoint, out of its own number, committees representing the several departments of education, and thereby facilitate the exchange of opinion among its members on such special topics as demand the attention of the profession or of the public.

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ARTICLE I.—MEMBERSHIP.

1. The National Council of Education shall consist of sixty members, selected out of the membership of the National Educational Association. Any member of the Association identified with educational work is eligible to membership in the Council, and after the first election such membership shall continue for six years, except as hereinafter provided.

2. In the year 1885 the Board of Directors shall elect eight members—four members for six years, two for four years, and two for two years; and the Council shall elect eight members—five members for six years, two for four years, and one for two years; and annually thereafter the Board of Directors shall elect five members and the Council five members, each member, with the exception hereinafter provided for (section 5), to serve six years, or until his successor is elected.

3. The annual election of members of the Council shall be held in connection with the annual meetings of the Association. If the Board of Directors shall fail, for any reason, to fill its quota of members annually, the vacancy or vacancies shall be filled by the Council.

4. The term of service of the several members of the Council, chosen at the first election, shall be arranged by the Executive Committee of the Council.

5. The absence of a member from two consecutive annual meetings of the Council shall be considered equivalent to resignation of membership, and the Council shall fill vacancies caused by absence from the Council as herein defined, as well as vacancies caused by death or resignation, for the unexpired term. All persons who have belonged to the Council shall, on the expiration of their membership, become honorary members, with the privilege of attending its regular sessions, and participating in its discussions. No state shall be represented in the Council by more than eight members.

ARTICLE II.—FEES.

There shall be no fee for membership in the Council of Education, but each member of it shall secure a membership in the National Educational Association by becoming a life member of the same, or by paying to the Treasurer of the Association the annual membership fee of two dollars.

ARTICLE III.—MEETINGS.

There shall be a regular annual meeting of the Council held at the same place as the meeting of the National Association, and at least two days previous to this meeting. There may be special meetings of the Council, subject to the call of the Executive Committee, but the attendance at these meetings shall be entirely voluntary. The regular meeting of the committees shall take place on the days provided for the annual meeting of the Council. Meetings of committees may be called at any time by the chairmen of the respective committees, but attendance at such special meetings shall be entirely voluntary. A majority of the Council shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at any meeting, whether regular or called; but any less number, exceeding eight members, may constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at the regular annual meeting, as defined in this article.

ARTICLE IV.—COMMITTEES.

The general management of the affairs of the Council shall be vested in an Executive Committee, composed of the President, Vice President and Secretary of the Council, and four other members, all of whom are to be elected by the

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Council at its annual meeting. There shall be twelve standing committees, each consisting of five members. They shall be appointed by the Executive Committee, and be named as follows:

1. Committee on State School Systems.
2. Committee on City School Systems.
3. Committee on Higher Education.
4. Committee on Secondary Education.
5. Committee on Elementary Education.
6. Committee on Normal Education.
7. Committee on Technological Education.
8. Committee on Pedagogics.
9. Committee on Moral Education.
10. Committee on School Sanitation, Hygiene and Physical Training.
11. Committee on Psychological Inquiry.
12. Committee on Educational Reports and Statistics.

ARTICLE V.—DUTIES OF STANDING COMMITTEES.

The committees of the Council shall consider the topics assigned to them, and report on the same; they may select for their deliberations such other questions belonging to their departments as they deem proper to discuss.

Whenever called upon, the committees shall continue the deliberative work of the Association on topics assigned to them, or prepare questions to be submitted to that body.

It shall be the duty of the standing committees to observe the new educational experiments and original investigations within the scope of their assigned topics, and report the same from time to time to the President of the Council.

ARTICLE VI.—DUTIES OF MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEES.

The members of the Council shall render active service and assistance in the work of the committee to which they have been assigned, and further the general work of the Council as much as is in their power. They shall give their attention to the questions submitted to them, and communicate their conclusions in writing to the Chairman of the Committee.

Meeting of Committees for Special Work.—A half day at each annual session shall be set apart for "round table" discussions, and each standing committee may conduct its own meeting separately, inviting, at its pleasure, experts, original investigators, or other persons, to present their experience or theoretical views before it, for discussion.

ARTICLE VII.—DUTIES OF THE CHAIRMEN OF COMMITTEES.

The Chairman of each committee shall communicate the questions which are to be discussed to each of the members of his committee, and send them such other communications as may assist them in their work. He shall arrange a suitable plan for an exchange of opinion, and embody the conclusions arrived at in a brief report. He shall, from time to time, inform the Secretary of the Council of the progress made by his committee. He shall, with the consent of the other members of his committee, arrange special meetings at a convenient time and place. He shall see that the communications, sent in turn to each member of his committee, are promptly forwarded. He shall state distinctly (in the form of questions, when feasible) the topics on which he desires to have a brief expression of opinion from the members of his committee, and embody the substance of their answers in his report.

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ARTICLE VIII.—THE WORK OF THE COMMITTEES.

The work of the committees of the Council shall be carried on in the regular meetings provided for above, and in such special meetings as can be arranged from time to time, according to the pleasure of the committee, and principally in writing, by an exchange of briefly-expressed opinions. It shall be the duty of each Chairman to devise a plan for the latter. Each member may be required to report on a part of the subject; or the whole topic may be submitted to each member, together with the opinion of the other members that have considered the topic before.

ARTICLE IX.—DUTIES OF THE COUNCIL.

It shall be the duty of the Council to further the objects of the National Association, and to use its best efforts to promote the cause of education in general. The Council shall assign work to each committee, and receive a report on the same; it shall cause to be published such reports of committees, or part of the same, as in its judgment should be brought to general notice; it shall present, through the President of the Council, an annual report of its work to the National Educational Association.

Arrangement of Annual Program.—The President, in making up the annual program of exercises, may select any of the twelve standing committees which will, in his opinion, prepare work for the Council of the most timely and vital character, and he shall not be limited in his choice by considerations of routine.

The committee thus reporting may introduce before the Council such specialists, experts, original investigators or inventors of new methods as they may deem essential to present effectively their subject-matter before the Council for discussion.

ARTICLE X.—AMENDMENTS.

This Constitution may be altered or amended, at a regular meeting of the Council, by a two-thirds vote of the members present, and any provision may be waived at any regular meeting, by unanimous consent.

By-laws, not in violation of this Constitution, may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Council.

BY-LAWS.

1. Each active member of the Council shall pay annually two dollars, to defray the expenses of the Council.

2. The Secretary shall act as Treasurer of the Council.

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OFFICERS FOR 1893-94.

President—E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, Ohio.
Vice President—F. A. Fitzpatrick, Omaha, Neb.
Secretary and Treasurer—Charles De Garmo, Swarthmore, Pa.
Executive Committee—The President, Vice President, Secretary; E. E. White, Columbus, Ohio; D. L. Kiehle, Minneapolis, Minn.; Nicholas Murray Butler, Paterson, N. J.; J. Baldwin, Austin, Tex.

OFFICERS FOR 1894-95.

President—C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H.
Vice President—E. Oram Lyte, Millersville, Pa.
Secretary and Treasurer—N. C. Dougherty, Peoira, Ill.
Executive Committee—The President, Vice President, Secretary; E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, Ohio; Charles W. Eliot, Cambridge, Mass.; B. A. Hinsdale, Ann Arbor, Mich.; James H. Canfield, Lincoln, Neb.

MEMBERS.

NOTE.—The letter "A" following a name denotes that the member is of the class elected by the Association; the letter "C," by the Council.

	Term Expires.		*Term Expires.*
James M. Green, Trenton, N. J.	A 1895	R. G. Boone, Ypsilanti, Mich.	A 1898
Henry M. Leipziger, New York City.	A 1895	F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo.	A 1898
A. R. Taylor, Emporia, Kan.	A 1895	N. A. Calkins, New York City.	A 1898
W. R. Garrett, Nashville, Tenn.	A 1895	Joseph Baldwin, Huntsville, Tex.	A 1898
J. R. Preston, Jackson, Miss.	A 1895	Jas. H. Canfield, Lincoln, Neb.	A 1898
Geo. P. Brown, Bloomington, Ill.	C 1895	A. S. Draper, Champaign, Ill.	C 1898
Bettie A. Dutton, Cleveland, Ohio.	C 1895	Wm. H. Maxwell, Brooklyn, N. Y.	C 1898
Henry M. James, Tacoma, Wash.	C 1895	Emerson E. White, Columbus, Ohio.	C 1898
Delia L. Williams, Delaware, Ohio.	C 1895	B. A. Hinsdale, Ann Arbor, Mich.	C 1898
Wm. F. King, Mt. Vernon, Iowa.	C 1895	N. C. Dougherty, Peoria, Ill.	C 1898
Edwin C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.	A 1896	W. H. Bartholomew, Louisville, Ky.	A 1899
Andrew J. Rickoff, New York City.	A 1896	Frank A. Fitzpatrick, Omaha, Neb.	A 1899
Euler B. Smith, La Grange, Ga.	A 1896	Henry Sabin, Des Moines, Iowa.	A 1899
Charles McMurry, Normal, Ill.	A 1896	E. Oram Lyte, Millersville, Pa.	A 1899
H. K. Wolfe, Lincoln, Neb.	A 1896	J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.	A 1899
John W. Dickinson, Boston, Mass.	C 1896	Wm. A. Mowry, Salem, Mass.	C 1899
H. S. Tarbell, Providence, R. I.	C 1896	Selim H. Peabody, Chicago, Ill.	C 1899
E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, Ohio.	C 1896	Nathan C. Schaeffer, Harrisburg, Pa.	C 1899
Ella C. Sabin, Fox Lake, Wis.	C 1896	David L. Kiehle, St. Paul, Minn.	C 1899
John W. Cook, Normal, Ill.	C 1896	Mary E. Nicholson, Indianapolis, Ind.	C 1899
Wm. T. Harris, Washington, D. C.	A 1897	C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H.	A 1900
C. B. Gilbert, St. Paul, Minn.	A 1897	H. S. Jones, Lincoln, Neb.	A 1900
J. E. Bradley, Jacksonville, Ill.	A 1897	Z. Richards, Washington, D. C.	A 1900
Earl Barnes, Menlo Park, Cal	A 1897	James H. Baker, Boulder, Colo.	A 1900
Chas. W. Eliot, Cambridge, Mass.	A 1897	John T. Prince, Boston, Mass.	A 1900
Charles DeGarmo, Swarthmore, Pa.	C 1897	Aaron Gove, Denver, Colo.	C 1900
L. H. Jones, Cleveland, Ohio.	C 1897	Wm. E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass.	C 1900
C. M. Woodward, St. Louis, Mo.	C 1897	Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.	C 1900
S. G. Williams, Ithaca, N. Y.	C 1897	Lucia Stickney, Cincinnati, Ohio.	C 1900
Nicholas Murray Butler, Paterson, N. J.	C 1897	H. H. Seerley, Cedar Falls, Iowa.	C 1900

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HONORARY MEMBERS.

Henry Barnard, Hartford, Conn.
William N. Barringer, Newark, N. J.
Newton Bateman, Galesburg, Ill.
D. Bemis, Spokane, Wash.
Thomas W. Bicknell, Providence, R. I.
Albert C. Boyden, Bridgewater, Mass.
Anna C. Brackett, New York City.
Edward Brooks, Philadelphia, Pa.
Matthew H. Buckham, Burlington, Vt.
David M. Camp, New Britain, Conn.
Aaron L. Chapin, Beloit, Wis.
Clara Conway, Memphis, Tenn.
Matilda S. Cooper, Nyack, N. Y.
William J. Corthell, Gorham, Me.
J. L. M. Curry, Richmond, Va.
N. R. H. Dawson, Selma, Ala.
V. C. Dibble, Charleston, S. C.
Larkin Dunton, Boston, Mass.
John Eaton, Washington, D. C.
Geo. T. Fairchild, Manhattan, Kan.
William W. Folwell, Minneapolis, Minn.
Daniel C. Gilman, Baltimore, Md.
James C. Greenough, Westfield, Mass.
John M. Gregory, Washington, D. C.
Daniel B. Hagar, Salem, Mass.
W. N. Hailman, Washington, D. C.
G. Stanley Hall, Worcester, Mass.
Ira G. Holtt, Sacramento, Cal.
J. George Hodgins, Toronto, Canada.
James H. Hoose, Pasadena, Cal.
George W. Howison, San Francisco, Cal.
James L. Hughes, Toronto, Canada.
Thomas Hunter, New York City.
Ellen Hyde, Framingham, Mass.
John S. Irwin, Fort Wayne, Ind.
E. J. James, Philadelphia, Pa.
H. S. Jones, Lincoln, Neb.
E. S. Joynes, Knoxville, Tenn.
Thomas Kirkland, Toronto, Can.
James MacAlister, Philadelphia, Pa.
Albert P. Marble, Omaha, Neb.
Francis A. March, Easton, Pa.
Lillie J. Martin, San Francisco, Cal.
Thos. J. Morgan, Washington, D. C.
Lemuel Moss, Minneapolis, Minn.
Birdseye G. Northrop, Clinton, Conn.
John M. Ordway, New Orleans, La.
Francis W. Parker, Chicago, Ill.
Warren D. Parker, River Falls, Wis.
S. S. Parr, St. Cloud, Minn.
W. H. Payne, Nashville, Tenn.
John B. Peaslee, Cincinnati, Ohio.
William F. Phelps, St. Paul, Minn.
Joseph L. Pickard, Iowa City, Iowa.
John T. Prince, Boston, Mass.
William H. Ruffner, Lexington, Va.
H. E. Shepard, Charleston, S. C.
Edgar A. Singer, Philadelphia, Pa.
James H. Smart, Lafayette, Ind.
Homer B. Sprague, ..., Cal.
J. W. Stearns, Madison, Wis.
Thomas B. Stockwell, Providence, R. I.
Grace Bibb Sudborough, Omaha, Neb.
John Swett, San Francisco, Cal.
H. S. Thompson, Columbia, S. C.
L. S. Thompson, New Wilmington, Pa.
Julia S. Tutweiler, Livingstone, Ala.
J. Ormond Wilson, Washington, D. C.
W. R. Thigpen, Savannah, Ga.

DECEASED MEMBERS.

Robert Allyn.....1894
Israel W. Andrews.....1888
Samuel S. Greene.....1883
John Hancock.....1891
William D. Henkle.....1882
Elnathan E. Higbee.....1889
George Howland.....1892
Merrick Lyon.....1888
James McCosh.....1894
M. A. Newell.....1893
Elward Olney.....1886
Gustavus J. Orr.....1888
John D. Philbrick.....1885
R. W. Stevenson.....1893
Eli T. Tappan.....1888
Charles O. Thompson.....1885
James P. Wickersham.....1891

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STANDING COMMITTEES.

The committees from which reports are due in 1895 are Nos. I., V., VI., VIII., IX. and XI. The topics already reported on will be found in italics, with the years of the reports in parentheses.

The Chairman of each of the standing committees should communicate with the other members of his committee at once, select a subject, and notify the President, Charles C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H., by Feb. 1, 1895. It is the wish of the President of the National Educational Association that the programs of the National Association, its Departments, and the National Council, be issued by Feb. 15.

Attention is called to statements of the Constitution of the Council in regard to the character of the work of standing committees. Provision is made in the Constitution for "round tables," and it is expected that arrangements will be made for these by those standing committees to which formal reports are not assigned.

I.—On State School Systems—

SUB-TOPICS:

1. *Organization* (1883).
2. *Supervision* (1885).
3. *Licensure of Teachers* (1889).
4. School Revenues.
5. *Compulsory Education* (1891).
6. *Tenure of Office of Teachers* (1887).
7. Supplying the Schools with Text Books.
8. *State, County, City and District Supervision* (1892).

Henry Sabin, Des Moines, Iowa, *Chairman.*
Nathan C. Shaeffer, Harrisburg, Pa.
James H. Canfield, Lincoln, Neb.
J. R. Preston, Jackson, Miss.
John W. Dickinson, Newtonville, Mass.

II.—On City School Systems—

SUB-TOPICS:

1. Organization.
2. *Supervision* (1884. 1890).
3. Superintendency.
4. Qualification of Teachers.
5. *Classification of Pupils* (1886).
6. Ungraded Schools.
7. *Business Side of City School Systems* (1888, 1889, 1890).
8. Promotions and Examinations.
9. Evening Schools.
10. Enriching the Course of Study below the High School.

N. C. Dougherty, Peoria, Ill., *Chairman.*
Aaron Gove, Denver, Colo.
L. H. Jones, Cleveland, Ohio.
Ella C. Sabin, Fox Lake, Wis.
Oscar H. Cooper, Galveston, Tex.

III.—On Higher Education—

SUB-TOPICS:

1. *Higher Institutions Required* (1885).
2. *Harmonizing of Higher, Secondary and Elementary Schools* (1882).
3. *Admission to College* (1884).
4. *Elective System* (1888).
5. College Government.
6. What Should Precede the University?
7. The Seminary Method of Instruction.
8. *Professional and Technical Instruction in the University* (1894).

J. E. Bradley, Jacksonville, Ill., *Chairman.*
Wm. F. King, Mount Vernon, Iowa.
James H. Baker, Boulder, Colo.
A. S. Draper, Champaign, Ill.
S. G. Williams, Ithaca, N. Y.

IV.—On Secondary Education—

SUB-TOPICS:

1. *High Schools* (1882).
2. *Academies* (1885).
3. *Preparation for College* (1884).
4. *Relation of High Schools to Colleges* (1887).
5. *Opportunities of the Rural Population for Secondary Education* (1889).
6. Schools by Correspondence.
7. *Uniformity in Requirements for Admission to College* (1891).
8. Difference between College Methods of Instruction and High School Methods.

H. S. Tarbell, Providence, R. I., *Chairman.*
W. H. Bartholomew, Louisville, Ky.
F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo.
H. H. Seerley, Cedar Falls, Iowa.
Delia L. Williams, Delaware, Ohio.

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V.—On Elementary Education—

SUB-TOPICS:

1. *Course of Study* (1882).
2. *Oral Teaching* (1884).
3. *Text-Books* (1886).
4. *Waste in Elementary Education* (1888).
5. Kindergarten.
6. Language Lessons in Elementary Schools.
7. Science Teaching in Lower Grades.
8. *Essentials in Elementary Education* (1890).
9. *The Uses of Literature in Elementary Education* (1892).

Bettie Dutton, Cleveland, Ohio, *Chairman.*
Wm. E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass.
George P. Brown, Bloomington, Ill.
Zalmon Richards, Washington, D. C.
J. H. Phillips, Birmingham, Ala.

VI.—On Normal Education—

SUB-TOPICS:

1. Kind of Normal Schools Required.
2. *Academical and Professional Training* (1883, 1889).
3. *Practice Departments* (1885).
4. *City Normal Schools* (1891).
5. *Teachers' Institutes* (1887).
6. *The Relation of the Normal School to Other Institutions of Learning* (1892).
7. Normal School Extension.

John W. Cook, Normal, Ill., *Chairman.*
R. G. Boone, Ypsilanti, Mich.
W. R. Garrett, Nashville, Tenn.
Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.
James M. Green, Trenton, N. J.

VII.—On Technological Education—

SUB-TOPICS:

1. *Technical Training in Public Schools* (1881).
2. Preparation for Institutes of Technology.
3. *Pedagogical Value of the School Workshop* (1886).
4. *Agricultural Colleges* (1888).
5. Summer Schools of Science.
6. *Relation of Technological to Liberal Education* (1894).

C. M. Woodward, St. Louis, Mo., *Chairman.*
H. M. James, Tacoma, Wash.
Selim H. Peabody, Chicago, Ill.
Euler B. Smith, La Grange, Ga.

VIII.—On Pedagogics—

SUB-TOPICS:

1. *Chair of Pedagogy in Colleges* (1882).
2. *Pedagogy as a Science* (1884).
3. Pedagogical Inquiry.
4. *Function of Public Schools* (1886, 1887).
5. *Educational Value of Manual Training* (1889).
6. Moral Education.
7. Pedagogical Terminology.
8. *The Education of the Will* (1891).
9. Distinguishing Ideas in the Herbartian System of Pedagogy.
10. *Scope and Character of Pedagogical Work in Universities* (1892).

B. A. Hinsdale, Ann Arbor, Mich., *Chairman.*
David L. Kiehle, Minneapolis, Minn.
Nicholas Murray Butler, New York City.
A. R. Taylor, Emporia, Kan.
Charles McMurry, Normal, Ill.

IX.—On Moral Education—

[Changed from—"*On the Education of Girls*," 1891.]

SUB-TOPICS:

1. *Coeducation* (1883, 1890).
2. *Technical Training for Girls* (1886).
3. *What Education is Best* (1888).
4. *The Education of Girls* (1891).
5. *Practical Culture of the Moral Virtues* (1892).
6. Direct and Indirect Moral Teaching.

Emerson E. White, Columbus, Ohio, *Chairman.*
Charles De Garmo, Swarthmore, Pa.
Lucia Stickney, Cincinnati, Ohio.
H. M. Leipziger, New York City.
Charles C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H.

X.—On School Sanitation, Hygiene and Physical Training—

[Changed from—"*On Hygiene in Education*," 1891.]

SUB-TOPICS:

1. *Sanitary Exercises and Appliances in Public Schools* (1883).
2. *Recesses* (1884, 1885).
3. *Relation of Mental Labor to Physical Health* (1887).
4. *Harmonious Development* (1889).
5. *Physical Education* (1891).

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Wm. A. Mowry, Hyde Park, Mass., *Chairman.*
Mary E. Nicholson, Indianapolis, Ind.
Joseph Baldwin, Austin, Tex.
Frank A. Fitzpatrick, Boston, Mass.
C. B. Gilbert, St. Paul, Minn.

XI.—On Psychological Inquiry—

[Changed from—"*On Educational Literature,*" 1891.]

SUB-TOPICS:

1. *School Reports* (1885).
2. *Books on Pedagogy* (1888).
3. *Use of General Libraries* (1887).
4. *Educational Literature* (1890).
5. *Relation of Mnemonic Systems to the Cultivation of the Powers of Thought* (1892).
6. *The Psychology of the Imitative Functions in Childhood* (1894).

E. O. Lyte, Millersville, Pa., *Chairman.*
Wm. T. Harris, Washington, D. C.
N. A. Calkins, New York City
Edwin C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.
Earl Barnes, Palo Alto, Cal.

XII.—On Educational Reports and Statistics—

[Changed from—"*On Educational Statistics,* 1891.]

SUB-TOPICS:

1. *Reforms in Statistics* (1885, 1887).
2. *What Statistics Should be Collected* (1889, 1891).

Wm. H. Maxwell, Brooklyn, N. Y., *Chairman*
J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.
E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, Ohio.
A. J. Rickoff, New York City.
H. K. Wolfe, Lincoln, Neb.

IN MEMORIAM.

GEORGE HOWLAND,
BY JOHN W. COOK.

ROBERT WALLACE STEVENSON,
BY EMERSON E. WHITE.

ROBERT ALLYN,
BY EDWIN C. HEWETT.

[The above named papers, read in the Council, will be found in the Report of the Committee on Necrology of the General Association.]

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SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST DAY—OPENING SESSION.

ASBURY PARK, N. J., July 6, 1894.

The Council was called to order at 9:30 A. M., with President Coy in the chair, in the First Presbyterian church.

After an opening prayer by J. E. Bradley, the report of the Committee on Technical Education was read by the Chairman, C. M. Woodward, upon "The Relation of Technical to Liberal Education."

The discussion of the report was opened by Dr. Harris.

Report received and ordered printed.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The session opened at 2:30 P. M., with a paper by Nicholas Murray Butler, Chairman of the Committee on Righer Education. Subject: "Professional and Technical Instruction in the University."

The discussion was opened by Mr. Sheldon, and reported by Mr. Rounds.

Report received and ordered printed.

SECOND DAY.—JULY 7TH.

MORNING SESSION.

The Council met at 9:30 A. M. Prayer by B. A. Hinsdale.

A tribute to the memory of George Howland was read by John W. Cook. The memorial addresses upon Robert Wallace Stevenson and Robert Allyn were postponed until Monday morning.

A paper was then presented by B. A. Hinsdale upon "The Dogma of Formal Mental Discipline."

The discussion was reported by Wm. E. Sheldon.

At the close of the session the following committees were appointed:

Committee on New Members—W. T. Harris, Nicholas Murray Butler, C. C. Rounds, J. H. Canfield, W. H. Bartholomew.

Committee on Nominations—N. A. Calkins, N. C. Schaeffer, D. L. Kiehle.

Auditing Committee—E. C. Hewett, J. E. Bradley, H. S. Tarbell.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Dr. Wm. T. Harris, Chairman of the Committee on Psychological Inquiry, made a report on "The Psychology of the Imitative Function as Related to the Process of Learning."

The report was discussed by Messrs. Hinsdale, Hall, White and others. The discussion was reported by W. H. Bartholomew.

Report received and ordered printed.

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THIRD DAY.—JULY 9TH.

MORNING SESSION.

Council opened at 9:30 A. M.

Edwin C. Hewett read a tribute to the memory of Robert Allyn, and E. E. White read one to that of Robert Wallace Stevenson.

Memorials received and ordered printed.

President Eliot's letter of transmission for the report of the Committee of Ten was read and ordered printed.

REPORT BY PRESIDENT ELIOT.

CHAIRMAN OF COMMITTEE OF TEN.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, July 4, 1894.

SIR: I beg to present to the National Council of Education, through you, a statement on behalf of the Committee of Ten, which was appointed at the Saratoga meeting of July, 1892.

In February, 1893, I learned from you, by a letter written in answer to an inquiry from me and dated February 15th, that there would be no regular meeting of the Council in the summer of 1893.

On the 31st of the following May, perceiving that the committee's report would be ready several months before the meeting of the Council in July, 1894, I proposed to you that the Executive Committee of the Council should authorize the Committee of Ten to present their report by sending a printed copy of it to each member of the Council. On the 22d of June you informed me that a majority of the members of the Executive Committee had approved this method of presenting the report of the Committee of Ten.

All diligence was used in preparing the report; but owing to the number of revisions which the reports of the conferences, as well as the report of the committee, underwent, it was December, 1893, before the whole document could be put into final form.

By direction of Hon. Hoke Smith, Secretary of the Interior, given at the instance of the Commissioner of Education, the United States Bureau of Education printed 30,000 copies of the report, from plates furnished by the committee, for gratuitous distribution through the bureau. Nine-tenths of this edition have been distributed during the past six months. In the meantime another edition, improved by the addition of an index and a table of contents, has been prepared by Mr. N. A. Calkins, Chairman of the Board of Trustees, and published by the American Book Company.

Mr. Calkins, as Chairman of the Trustees, had charge of all money appropriated or contributed for the purposes of the committee, and will present to the Council a statement of his receipts and expenditures.

The report itself, which has now been in the hands of every member of the Council for six months, gives a full account of the proceedings of the committee, and of their results and recommendations. It only remains for the committee to request, as I now do on their behalf, that they be discharged.

I remain, with great respect, your obedient servant,

CHARLES W. ELIOT,
Chairman of the Committee of Ten.

Mr. E. W. Coy, President of the National Council of Education.

James H. Baker then read a paper upon this report.

The discussion was reported by John W. Cook.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Council opened at 2:30 P. M.

The discussion of the report of the Committee of Ten was continued.

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FOURTH DAY.—JULY 10TH.

MORNING SESSION.

Council called to order at 9:30 A. M.

E. E. White read a paper on "The Country School Problem." Report widely discussed. Discussion not reported. Council then went into executive session.

The following reports were read and adopted:

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON NOMINATION OF OFFICERS OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION FOR 1894 AND 1895.

Your Committee on the Nomination of Officers of the National Council of Education submit the following report:

President—C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H.

Vice President—E. Oram Lyte, Millersville, Pa.

Secretary and Treasurer—N. C. Dougherty, Peoria, Ill.

Members of the Executive Committee—E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, Ohio; Charles W. Eliot, Cambridge, Mass.; B. A. Hinsdale, Ann Arbor, Mich.; James H. Canfield, Lincoln, Neb.

N. A. CALKINS,
NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER,
D. L. KIEHLE,
Committee.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON NEW MEMBERS.

To the Council of Education:

The undersigned Committee on New Members beg leave to offer the following report:

They recommend that Messrs. W. A. Mowry, Selim H. Peabody, N. C. Schaeffer, D. L. Kiehle and Miss Mary E. Nicholson, whose terms of membership expired with 1893, be re-elected for the term of five years, the same to expire in 1899.

They recommend that Messrs. Aaron Gove, W. E. Sheldon and H. H. Seerley, whose terms of membership expire with the close of the present session, be re-elected for the term of six years, the same to expire in the year 1900.

They recommend that Irwin Shepard and Lucia Stickney be elected for a term of six years, the same to end in the year 1900.

They further recommend that James M. Green be elected to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Mr. R. W. Stevenson, his term to expire in 1895; and that Charles A. McMurry be elected to fill the vacancy occasioned by the death of Mr. George Howland, his term to end in 1896.

They further recommend that Messrs. H. M. Leipziger and J. R. Preston be elected to fill vacancies occasioned by the absence for two meetings of John Eaton and J. L. Hughes, and that Messrs. H. K. Wolfe, C. B. Gilbert, Earl Barnes and S. G. Williams be elected to fill the vacancies occasioned by the absence for two consecutive meetings of J. S. Irwin 1896, D. Beamiss 1897, G. T. Fairchild 1897, W. N. Hailmann 1897, respectively, in the order here named.

Respectfully submitted,

W. T. HARRIS,
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER,
W. H. BARTHOLOMEW,
JAMES H. CANFIELD,
C. C. ROUNDS,
Committee.

It was then moved by Mr. King that separate lists of living and deceased honorary members be made.

Motion carried.

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The Treasurer's report, as follows, was then audited, received and adopted:

Charles De Garmo, Treasurer, in Account with National Council of Education.

RECEIPTS.

	Dr.	Cr.
1892—		
July 11—Received from N. C. Schaeffer, former treasurer....	$104.05	
1892-3—Dues received from July 9, 1891, to July 27, 1893....	50.00	
1894—Dues received from July 6-10, 1894.....	60.00	
1892.		
July 12—Paid Jas. H. Baker, expenses of council.....		$71.50
July 12—Paid Saratogian (abstracts).....		2.50
July 12—Paid Saratogian (abstracts).....		7.00
July 12—Paid C. C. Rounds (abstracts).....		2.00
July 12—Paid W. T. Harris (abstracts).....		5.00

DISBURSEMENTS.

1893.		
Oct. 12—Paid J. J. Little & Co. (Proceedings).....		66.05
1894.		
July 10—Paid J. J. Little & Co. (balance on Proceedings)...		37.20
July 10—Paid E. W. Coy (expenses of Council).....		12.00
July 10—Paid C. M. Woodward (abstracts).....		6.85
July 10—Paid R. A. Hinsdale (abstracts).....		1.25
Balance transferred to N. C. Dougherty.....		2.70
	$214.05	$214.05

A motion, that a Special Committee of Ten be appointed by the Council to take into consideration the subject of elementary instruction, was lost.

Mr. Hinsdale moved that President Coy, Dr. Harris and Judge Draper be appointed a Committee on the Financial Relations of the Council to the National Educational Association, with power to act. Carried.

A motion was made and carried, that the outgoing President and Secretary be authorized to prepare the matter of the Council Proceedings for publication.

It was moved and carried, that the report of the Committee of Ten be received, and the committee discharged.

The following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the Council desires, in discharging the Committee of Ten, to express its high appreciation of the spirit with which they and their conferences entered upon their work, the devotion that marked their long labors, and the great value of their report to the cause of education.

The council then adjourned.

E W. COY,
President.
CHARLES DE GARMO,
Secretary.

REPORT OF ATTENDANCE.

The following were present at one or more of the sessions of 1894:

Baker, Baldwin, Bartholomew, Boone, Bradley, Butler, Calkins, Canfield, Cook, Coy, De Garmo, Dougherty, Draper, Dutton, Fitzpatrick, Harris, Hewett, Hinsdale, Kiehle, King, Lyte, Maxwell, Mowry, Peabody, Richards, Rickoff, Rounds, Sabin, Schaeffer, Seerley, Sheldon, Tarbell, White, Woodward.

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PAPERS AND DISCUSSION.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON TECHNOLOGICAL EDUCATION —THE RELATION OF TECHNICAL TO LIBERAL EDUCATION.

BY DR. C. M. WOODWARD, WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY, ST. LOUIS, MO.

This discussion encounters two serious difficulties at the start: First, the definition of technical education; second, the definition of liberal education.

I. Etymologically, "technical" ought to include all arts as opposed to all sciences. But we all know, that, beyond vague general suggestions, etymology is a very poor guide to exact meaning.

The Greek word *techne* suggests too much on the one hand and too little on the other. In the first place, we must omit all linguistic arts. Then, the trades are not "technical," as the word is used in this report. Iron-workers, wood-workers, cloth-workers, stone-cutters, leather-workers, glass-workers, and the like, are not technical people.

"Technical" education always involves the application of the exact sciences to the arts of life, and every technical study needs the use of the higher mathematics, the principles of physics and mechanics and the aid of exact drawings. Thus, technical education belongs to the higher education. However, the fine arts of painting, and sculpture are not usually included in technical education, though they lie very close to it, since they make careful study of form and its representation, under the general heads of orthographic, isometric and perspective drawing. While technical education includes organic and inorganic chemistry, it does not include the preparation of drugs. It includes the general theories of ventilation and sanitation, but does not include the arts of nursing and healing. The arts of war on land and sea are highly technical, but in the United States these arts are taught by the general government exclusively, at Annapolis and West Point, so that they may be omitted from this discussion. None of us thinks of a naval or a military school when "technical" education is mentioned.

It thus appears that technical education is limited to substantially the following arts:

1. Civil engineering, which deals with the construction of roads, streets and bridges; with geodesy, *i. e.*, the measurement of land and the making of maps; the construction of canals; the improvement

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of rivers and harbors; the building of dams, waterworks, reservoirs, sewers, dikes, etc. This range is so vast and comprehensive that it has been subdivided many times, and one hears of hydraulic engineering, sanitary engineering, bridge engineering, geodetic engineering and of railroad engineering. The content of engineering is constantly increasing, as the exact methods of science replace the wasteful and clumsy methods of tradition.

2. Mechanical engineering, which deals with the construction and erection of prime movers, such as water wheels of all kinds; steam, air and gas engines and windmills. Next, the immediate connections of these, such as pumps, fly wheels, shafting, saw-mills, flour mills, rolling mills, elevators, hoists, furnaces, machines, and tools of all kinds, sizes and uses.

It is evident that the scope of mechanical engineering has widened rapidly ever since it adopted scientific methods and took on the dignity of a profession. People generally have a very inadequate notion of the functions of a mechanical engineer. To be sure, he knows the theory and uses of tools and the properties of materials, just as the graduate at West Point knows by actual practice how to handle a musket, how to pitch a tent, how to load a field piece and how to keep a camp clean; but when he is in the practice of his profession it is his function, as it is the function of an army officer, to plan and calculate, and to direct men. When the civil engineer, Monsieur Eifel, built his famous tower, does any one suppose that he put his hand to a single bar of steel as it entered into that elegant structure, which was as exactly calculated as are the motions of the moon? When Engineer Ferris erected his monster wheel, does any one suppose that he struck a single blow or lifted a single ounce of it with his own hand?

Please do not suppose that I am saying this for the purpose of showing how genteel a profession engineering is. I am concerned only with a correct definition. A mechanical engineer is not an engine driver nor a machinist any more than a city superintendent is a class-room teacher. An engineer, if properly trained could "run" the engine, or handle a tool, as the superintendent could conduct a recitation, and do it extremely well, too, if there should be occasion, but that is not his business.

I hardly need add that there are many excellent workmen who are anxious to be considered engineers, in the sense in which I use the term, as a product of technical engineering education, but who lack the broad training which is strictly essential to such consideration.

3. Electrical engineering, which includes the theory, science and art of construction, erection and maintenance of all the devices

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of dynamic electricity—generators, motors and the means of electrical transmission. This is the youngest of all the technical professions, and yet it is one of the most difficult. The problems involved are among the most profound and intricate. Though dealing only with one form of energy, it already covers an immense field, and its boundary is receding rapidly on all sides. As you well know, there is an army of electrical workers, but the number of thoroughly trained electrical engineers is small. I doubt if there are 500 in the United States. The need of them is very great, for a great deal of our electrical work is very wasteful.

4. Architecture, which includes the design and erection of buildings for all sorts of uses and of all sorts of materials. This is the oldest of the technical professions, but its modern developments make it almost new. So long as stone was the chief material used in buildings, and only churches and palaces were supposed to have any architecture, the problems of the architect were those of masonry and surface ornament; it was a question of columns, capitals, entablatures and arches. Modern architecture constructs with steel pillars, steel girders, steel trusses, and though surface decoration (often of the most illogical sort) is introduced, the skill of the designer is largely spent on the details, plumbing, heating, ventilating, lighting and grouping. We insist to-day on having, what the private citizens of Athens and Rome never had, homes of grace, comfort and convenience. The introduction of steel and glass and hoisting machinery demands new styles, new orders. The great need of architecture to-day is freedom. It must be liberated, set free, from the slavery of styles which were appropriate only to stone. We see the effects of this bondage in such incongruities as iron pillars that pretend to be blocks of stone, and a rigid frame of steel with a veneering of brick.

The coming architect of steel must be near at hand. Harvard recently gave an honorary degree to the man who designed the Masonic Temple of Chicago.

5. Chemical engineering, which includes the departments of metallurgy, gas, the occurrence and the treatment of ores, minerals and clays, and the production of valuable compounds. It is evident that the chemical engineer is a factor of growing importance in every highly developed community. The energy, which appears under the two closely related forms of light and heat, is the special form which the chemical engineer employs, as the alchemist of old would have used the philosopher's stone, to transmute dross to gold. With these magic wands he unlocks the secret stores of nature and increases the riches of the commonwealth.

It is evident that these various branches of engineering overlap each other at many points; for they form, not isolated areas, but

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that continuous and ever enlarging circle which bounds the domain of science and marks the conquest of human intelligence over the arcana of the material world—the victory of the known over the unknown.

There are other arts, like those of agriculture and horticulture, which, while embraced under the general term of biology, rest more or less upon the exact sciences, and hence admit of systematic presentation. They belong to the ground common to mechanical and chemical engineering. Farming is getting to be largely a matter of machinery, and the problems of soil, climate and plant culture are those of chemistry. The agricultural engineer has not yet been born. Farming is not yet a profession. It is rather a trade, with a maximum of art and labor and a minimum of science.

Again, usage puts into technical education far more than mere art, for every technical profession, properly so-called, is both a science and an art. Hence, all pure science is tributary to technical education, though, of course, not equally to all branches. A technical school is, first, scientific; and, secondly, professional. The relation of applied science to pure science may be illustrated by the relation of Greek and Latin literature to the study of Greek and Latin grammars. The eminent value of one is that it leads to the other. The Roman soldier was trained in the use of the spear, the shield and the short sword because he was expected to use them; the modern soldier expects to use repeating rifles and gatling guns, and he is trained accordingly. Technical education is equally logical.

Finally, a "technical" course of study includes a great deal that is not technical at all, but which nevertheless must be taken into account when speaking of technical education.

Take, for instance, the technical courses in the School of Engineering in Washington University. They are invariably four years long, with a possible fifth, or graduate, year. Freshmen enter with a knowledge of algebra, plane and solid geometry, the elements of drawing, elementary physics or chemistry, American and English (or ancient) history, two or three years' work in Latin, German or French, and a passable knowledge of English.

The curricula are very similar to corresponding curricula in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Cornell University. From sixty to seventy per cent of all such courses is found in the courses for bachelor's degree of all first-class colleges, and in some, the proportion is still greater.

This common, non-technical material consists of modern languages, mathematics, mechanics, rhetoric, literature, physics, chemistry, geology, mineralogy, political economy, astronomy and elocution.

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When a college is able to offer a large variety of electives, they are more often taken from technical courses, though scarcely technical themselves, such as descriptive geometry, surveying, drawing, applied mechanics, theories of structures, electricity, and the like.

An examination of the last catalogue of Harvard shows that its course of instruction offered to the candidates for the degree of A. B. contains eighty-seven and one-half per cent of our course in civil engineering, seventy-five per cent of our course in mechanical, ninety-four per cent of our course in electrical engineering, and one hundred per cent of our course in chemistry. In like manner, our own A. B. course includes nearly all of our technical branches.

II. Thus far I have considered the limitations, and, again, the great extensions of technical curricula. I have now to consider the character, meaning and content of "liberal education." Undoubtedly, it is a very loose term, and no two of us would wholly agree on its definition. Originally, a liberal education was that course of training which was befitting a freeman and a gentleman as contrasted with a slave's education to labor. The aim, to quote Webster, was "amusement, curiosity, intellectual improvement, rather than the necessity of subsistence." So long as direct utility was in view, it was not liberal. Education began to be liberal as soon as it got beyond the idea of immediate use. Hence, Lowell is said to have defined a university as a "place where nothing useful is taught."

I do not know in what connection Lowell uttered these words, but he must have meant "directly and immediately useful for earning a living, and limited to such use," otherwise the statement would be as ridiculous as it is extravagant. Is there anything in science, in art, in history or in literature, which, when thoroughly comprehended, has not a probable or a possible use? There are uses and uses; primary, secondary and ultimate uses; higher uses and lower uses; immediate and remote. The phrase "thoroughly comprehended" has a saving grace. It makes things useful which otherwise were useless. The most useless things in the whole world of education are things imperfectly learned; things taken up, then not mastered, but laid aside. Do we not tolerate too many of these useless things? So impressed am I with the utter worthlessness of much that is called "liberal" that I would define a true university as a "place where nothing useless is taught."

The word "liberal" in modern education refers, not so much to the subject studied, as to the method of studying it. The liberal method is broad, deep, generous, comprehensive. It is not limited to mere immediate use. It recognizes use only as the greater includes the less, but it is not limited to it. That thorough mastery of a subject which makes it available for all possible uses, necessarily includes the

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near as well as the remote. The liberal method aims at the artist rather than the artisan; the engineer rather than the craftsman; the head rather than the hands. Liberal culture deals with fundamental principles, typical phenomena; with general results, not special applications. It is liberal to study, under the head of political economy, the laws of manufacture, trade, commerce, finance, supply and demand; it is not liberal to learn merely the conditions of a successful business in a given community at a given time.

The list of liberal branches is ever increasing. When I was at Harvard I was compelled to give one-sixth of my time to Greek and one-fourth to Latin. I studied political economy for a single term. I never entered a laboratory except to sit down and listen. I did not do a stroke of drawing. I did not even know that there was a science as well as an art of drawing, and that its name was descriptive geometry—a sadly neglected study, which affords more mental discipline in a given time than any other study I know. I am glad to be able to testify that now, not only at Harvard, but at Washington University, and at scores of others, West and East, one may study Latin and Greek or not, as he chooses, and that everything in all sciences, arts and literatures admitting of systematic treatment, is offered freely to all who may chose, as a liberal course. People now study Greek and Anglo-Saxon, not because they are compelled to, but because they wish to, just as they may study mechanics or descriptive geometry or electricity, or thermodynamics. And they do not—or, at least, they should not—study them in any mean, superficial, perfunctory way, but broadly, comprehensively, with relish and enthusiasm. With such opportunities and by such methods all university work should be liberal, and all liberal work should be in the university. Do any suppose that our students are less liberally trained than formerly? The material of which college curricula are made has increased manyfold since most of us took our degrees.

The adoption of these ideas has lifted, and is lifting, all the work to a new dignity. The college of letters is no longer a narrow school for the training of professional men.

Remembering the fact, that, up to 1850, the purpose of our American colleges was to prepare men for the four professions of theology, law, medicine and teaching, we can see on what utilitarian lines the course of study was formed. The clergyman must read the New Testament in the original; the lawyer must read Cicero, Quintilian, and the "Institutes" of Justinian; the physician must read Galen, the professor must take Latin, Greek and mathematics. The plan was simple and reasonable.

Suddenly, a group of new professions appeared and struggled for recognition. The age demanded them, and it demanded, too, the in-

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troduction of new elements in education, just as liberal, just as closely touching life, society and progress, just as humanizing, just as logical in reference to the new demands as the old elements had been in reference to the old demands.

A professional degree is a stamp placed upon the forehead of the graduate declaring him worthy the confidence of those who may need the service of a doctor, or an engineer, or a lawyer. Before one can worthily receive such a stamp, he must be in possession, not only of a trained and vigorous mind, familiar with general laws, but of a large fund of exact information, much of which is matter of time and place.

Every technical course has more or less of this professional material, and just to that extent it differs from the highest type of liberal education. These facts of time and circumstance—dates, prices, statistics, etc.,—which to-day have value and to-morrow are ancient history, should ever be minimized in the presence of unchanging principles, general theories and inexorable laws.

It thus appears, that when we take into account the current meaning and the scope of technical education and the full significance of liberal education, we find that nearly all of the ground is common, and even when the branches of study are different the spirit and method are much the same.

I have had unusual opportunities to know what is meant by a high grade technical course of training. I know how every subject is treated historically, empirically, experimentally and theoretically. Take the subject of bridges, and you will find that the evolution of the modern most finished types involves a history as long, an analysis as profound and a variety as great as in the development of forms of government or of religious belief.

From stone arches, circular, segmental, elliptical and oblique, to tubular bridges, to truss bridges of many kinds, to steel and iron arches, to suspension bridges, and to the modern cantilever which spans 1,700 feet, is a very long story full of intellect, genius and daring. In the presence of such a history and exposition, a hundred matters that men make much of in the records of human achievement, pale into insignificance. Before that history can be read intelligently, the laws that obtain in all operations involving force, motion, energy, mathematics and mechanics, must be so mastered that they are not a "memory and a forgetting," but are the keen-edged tools ready for use in a high analysis. He who reads aright the history of the great steel arch built over the Mississippi by Capt. James B. Eads at St. Louis, reads the history of a thousand bridges. Said one of the most highly cultivated men I have ever known: "To read the full history of such work is a liberal education."

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I have mentioned but a single subject in the technical courses, and yet you see how far reaching it is, how closely it is connected with the development of our civilization, with the gradual mastery of mind over matter. When I first read Browning's pathetic little poem, "The Grammarian's Funeral," I could not avoid the feeling that it was satirical. It was impossible for me to believe that he could sincerely admire one who had devoted so much of his life to the "business" of two Greek words of three letters each.

Accustomed as I was to an intellectual atmosphere where authority was at a minimum and where the conclusions of a sound logic were supreme, I could not bring myself to see either heroism or genius in an endless conning of texts and a grouping of passages. A better acquaintance with Browning, however, convinced me that the poem is the tribute of a sincere respect and admiration. I shall not quarrel with Browning. *De gustibus*, etc. I quarrel only with those who do not see the intellectual character, the dignity and the culture of the accomplished engineer; a man who has so thoroughly mastered the laws which govern the forces of nature that he is able to make them subservient to the needs, the comfort, the luxury, the refinement of our race.

It is very easy to see the sources of a wide-spread prejudice against technical training. The history of civilization has been the history of masters and slaves, of caste, of contempt for all labor and for all useful arts. No wonder that Plato held that the useful arts were degrading, for they brought one into the companionship of slaves, for even in Athens every freeman lived in luxury on the labor of several slaves. Caste prejudices were equally strong in Milton's time in England, so that Milton places Memnon, the chief engineer and architect of the hosts of heaven, among the fallen angels. In spite of his enginery, his knowledge of ores and their treatment, and his marvelous skill in construction,

> He was headlong hurled
> With his industrious crew to build in hell.

The technical professions are all less than one hundred years old. They are all evolutions from trades. The first mechanical engineers built their own engines, and the first electrical engineer built his own dynamo. There is, therefore, an odor of the shop about the names, and a reminiscence of men who were heretics as regards theory, but firm believers in practice.

We all know the intense squeamishness of the average college professor at anything which savors of use. "Thank God, that department can never be made useful," said an eminent professor, speaking of a newly established chair in a state university.

A similar spirit would seem to have prompted Professor Patten, in an article on the "Educational Values of Studies" (see Ed. Rev.,

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ancients." He cares less for what has been than for what may be. His triumphs, his masterpieces, his heroes, his golden age, are all in the future. He walks forward, with his face to the front; not backwards, with his face to the past. When Captain Eads proposed to build a steel arch over the turbulent Mississippi with a clear span of 520 feet, the timid worshipers of the past held up their hands in protest that there was no precedent for an arch of such great length. To this unworthy opposition it was said proudly in reply: "The engineer makes precedents; other men follow them."

There is another aspect of the effects of our modern liberal technical training which is somewhat new. In that graceful liberal culture, which we all so much prize and which we more or less unconsciously set up as a standard for others, we learned how the imaginative Greeks made gods and demi-gods to account for wonderful things. Beings with superhuman strength and skill turned the course of rivers, built impregnable walls, bore messages faster than the wind, and subdued monsters, drained marshes and warded off disease. Not to know these things is now held to be wanting in the very elements of a liberal education. In these modern days, men have done all these things and more, in fact and not in fancy, and yet to know these modern heroes—men, accomplished, but in no way superhuman—who have dethroned the gods and put demi-gods to the blush, is held to be not only not liberal, but such knowledge exposes one to the suspicion of being too familiar with swarthy fellows who handle machinery and despise the ancients. Men are now struck dead by artificial lightning, while the thunderbolts of Jove are turned harmlessly into the earth by a Franklin, and the energy of which thunderbolts are made is harnessed to a car or a mill by an Adams or a Hopkinson or an Edison, and made to serve the peaceful ends of commerce and industry. The dreadful energy of a Maxim gun or a dynamite cannon is far more destructive than the twanging of Apollo's silver bow and his whole quiver of arrows. The skill of an Eads, which turns the current of the mighty Mississippi and forces it to maintain a new deep channel into the sea, dwarfs the labors of a Hercules into insignificance. The ingenuity of a Morse and a Field sends messages to the antipodes in less time than Mercury needed for binding on his sandals. The roar of Mars could be heard by whole armies; now the whisper of a Brush is heard a thousand miles.

It is now the engineer who turns away the destroying monster, redeems the waste places, brings health, peace and security where there was pestilence and death. Shall not an accurate knowledge of the exploits and rational methods of these modern times and heroes be held to be an essential part of a liberal as well as of a technical education?

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The assertion that in technical study the attentionis mainly directed to success in its outward aspects, is based on a misconception. Much is made of useful applications because they serve as illustrations of general principles. But the only "success" the student is conscious of is the success of his effort to thoroughly understand the science involved and how it is applied. That consciousness "keeps his mind alert, expectant and enthusiastic." The zeal of the technical student is akin to the zeal of the student engaged in research in the laboratory, and you know well what that is. It is as far as possible removed from the thought of "success in its outward aspects."

The belief shown by Messrs. Patten and Bryant is widespread, particularly among those who have had no direct contact with technical work. I have seen both kinds of training intimately. I have seen them in separate institutions, and I have seen them side by side in the same institution. So far as relates to vigor of intellect and high character, the influence of technical studies is in no respect inferior to that of the traditional untechnical curriculum. On the contrary (and I am not alone in this opinion), there is a widespread and uniform degree of earnestness and zeal among technical students, rarely equaled in colleges which do not admit technical branches. The sense of responsibility, which accompanies the study of subjects which cannot be slighted without leaving a defective foundation on which to build later, is helpful to serious and steady work. On the other hand, I remember, that, in my own college days, it was difficult to look upon much of the college work with any considerable degree of earnestness. It seemed to be irrelevant. The idea of thoroughly mastering a subject so that one could base something else upon it rarely entered the head of the average student. I recently met a college classmate as an officer in a technical school. We fell into conversation as regards the influence of technical study on the development of character. Said he: "The earnestness and manliness of these students has been a revelation to me. There was nothing like this when we were at Harvard."

I shall be very glad to hear what the effect of the introduction of technical studies has been at Harvard. What proportion of the senior elections are what are called technical? and what influence have they had on the character and scholarship of the seniors electing them?

The character and attitude of the educated engineer towards classical learning has much to do with the estimation in which he is held by scholarly men.

The engineer is by nature an iconoclast. He has small respect for the traditions. He snaps his fingers in scorn at all whose chief pride and glory lies in their submission to the "tyranny of the

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Is not the educational army changing front? Is not our new leader an engineer, rather than a philologist or an antiquary? We all believe in culture. The word is much abused (perhaps I have helped abuse it); but there is culture and culture. Whatever broadens one's intellectual grasp, extends his mental vision, purifies his mental taste, lifts him away from individuals to generals, builds rational ideals, is an aid to culture, and, *ipso facto*, is liberal. This high function I see in high-grade technical education. I urge most earnestly, as is done in many universities to-day, that, on the one hand, all narrow, petty, ephemeral matters, which have no logical bearing upon life, be eliminated, and that technical subjects in their most liberal form be incorporated into the college course as possible electives. No longer should it be true anywhere, as, according to the Emperor William, it is now true in Germany, that they have an overproduction of what are called "over-cultivated men," who, instead of being an element of strength to the State, are a source of weakness, being unfitted for life and its problems. The college student should have free access to all subjects liberally taught, which he may choose according to the quality of his mind or the promptings of his future.

To this end, technical and liberal departments should be brought nearer together and unified as much as possible. The wall of separation should be thrown down.

The relation between technical and liberal education should be that of the French motto: "Liberty, Fraternity, Equality."

DISCUSSION.

[Reported by D. L. Kiehle.]

Dr. W. T. Harris: I do not think that Professor Woodward has put the question too strongly in behalf of applied mathematics as one of the necessary branches in a liberal education; for mathematics furnishes the tools of thought by which we subdue nature and make it a servant of the human will. We free ourselves from thraldom to physical wants by forcing nature to supply our wants. We harness the forces of nature to machinery by the aid of such knowledge of the laws of matter and motion as applied mathematics furnishes to us. But, while I agree with Professor Woodward in his positive thesis, I cannot follow him in his negative strictures directed against the other branches in the liberal course of study. It is not sufficient to master nature and subject it to use. We must learn, as well, the three great fundamental features of human nature, as revealed in literature and history and the grammatical structure of language or logic. If we are to make comparisons, we must confess that a knowledge of man is more important to us than a knowledge of nature. But a knowledge of either by itself is

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one-sided, and a liberal education that omits any one of the five fundamental branches—the three that relate to man and the two that relate to nature—is defective. For there must be in the nature studies not only mathematics and physics and engineering, but also the biological studies that treat of organic or living beings as found in the plant, the animal and man. There must be a study of the literature of the nations that have contributed to civilization, especially the Greeks and the Romans. Literature reveals the feelings of a people, and shows the method by which they are transmuted into ideas and deeds. History shows how man unites in social bodies and forms institutions. Finally, grammar shows how the structure of the intellect is revealed in language; it shows the machinery of thought in subject and predicate and adjective and adverbial modifiers. Logic and philosophy belong, also, to this fifth window of the soul. Only this total survey of the world of human learning makes a complete liberal course of study. The technological school gives one, and only one, of the five essential branches.

MR. DE GARMO: There is a practical difficulty about giving all persons pursuing the higher education a four years' formal discipline before specialization begins. This old type of training arose when a limited class of persons were preparing for a restricted line of professional activity, and for whom their training was more practical than formal. All who go into introspective callings, like law and theology, find that their education in classics and mathematics is the best type of education to fit them for their actual life duties. But when, instead of one small class, we undertake to educate the leaders of all classes, we must look to the knowledge most needed for future use—for the mental training so necessary for future success. All great universities and progressive colleges are recognizing this fact, to such an extent as to preclude the possibility of realizing the old classical dream of a universal type of education for all types of mind.

MR. BRADLEY: I am happy to indorse almost everything in Dr. Woodward's paper. "Liberal education" has been greatly liberalized during the last four years. No education would now be considered liberal which includes no knowledge of the processes of modern times. Referring to the Minneapolis schools, if they have any pre-eminence, it springs from the incorporation into their work of the technical idea. Out of it grew the animal lessons, the plant lessons, and application of drawing for purposes of illustration to almost every branch of study, and the use of experiments in elementary science or language lessons. The popularity of technical training threatens to prove its destruction. It has led to the multiplication of low grade institutions, which require so little for admission and give so little training, except in the work-shop, that they turn out mechanics rather than liberally educated men.

MR. ROUNDS: The narrowness of the old-style liberal education, so-called, tended to close the mind against thoughts lying outside its limits. The excessive specialization which has sometimes taken its place has results often quite as unfortunate. These results are apparent in the work of teachers who have concentrated their attention upon the exhaustive study of a narrow field, while failing to acquire sufficient knowledge of related subjects. In the teaching of science to children, they require an equipment of compound microscopes. They try to begin where God began in the work of creation, and limitations of time and ability prevent their reaching the point where God presents his completed work in the variety and beauty of nature. There is great need of a new general course of instruction in our colleges, which, by giving duly proportioned attention to the important elements of modern culture, with carefully guarded and limited specialization, shall better meet the wants of the majority of students, and supply better teachers for the greater number of our schools.

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MR. WOODWARD, closing the debate, said: I heartily indorse what Dr. Bradley said in disapproval of low standards of technical training. We do a positive wrong to a young man when we lead him to believe that he is getting real technical training when he is only doing preparatory work. As a rule, the agricultural and mechanical colleges are scarcely above the grade of a manual training school, and when such is the case, they could not claim to teach engineering. Dr. Harris suggests that I may have been nettled by "dudes," and that I have gone too far in discrediting the classics. I did not intend to discredit them, but to deny them the right to monopolize liberal training. I only claim for technical subjects the right to stand with them in an elective course. I claim for all the privilege of election, Greek, as well as engineering. I taught Greek for seven years, and I know the pleasure of having an enthusiastic student. Professor Goodwin favored putting Greek among the electives, so that then he would have students who loved it, and no pack horses who disliked it. Dr. Harris asked for two years of the college course before specialization takes place. I agree with that. The student is then nineteen or twenty years of age, and it is time that he should study towards his life work. Then he should mix with his culture studies a technical study to give point and quality to his work. Dr. Bradley spoke of the quickening effect of manual training in the high schools. The same result follows technical work in a college and university. If you doubt this, compare the student of a high grade technical school with ordinary college students. Find out what occupies them, their sports, their recreations, their hours of study, their student life, and you will see which are building up character, which are earnest. I tell you, our liberal students need the technical elements which shall put them in touch with life work. Combine with their speculations some of the realities. In my paper, I spoke of a large amount of literary and general work we do, yet something must be omitted. The extent of knowledge is so vast that no one can take everything. Subjects press in upon the student from all sides, and choice is necessary. What I plead for is, that liberal technical subjects shall have equal chance, with full dignity and equal favor. We are planning for a greatly increased number of students. The people, more and more, need higher education, and they need both the technical and the liberal. Let us keep all the windows open and let in the light from all sides. As to Professor Patten, I shall be glad to know that I have read him incorrectly, as President De Garmo thinks. I have no clue to his thought except his words, and I interpreted them as best I could. I shall be more than pleased to find that his views and mine are in accord.

REPORT FROM COMMITTEE ON HIGHER EDUCATION—PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION IN THE UNIVERSITY.

BY DR. NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.

The question to which it is my purpose to direct the attention of the Council is a new one. Some of us have foreseen that the time would come when it would be pressing and of great importance to the people of this country, and it has therefore been sometimes referred to or discussed in general terms. But with the advent of a half-

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dozen American universities whose standards, efficiency and ideals are recognized the world over, together with the strong modern tendency toward a practical, or technical, as distinguished from a liberal education, the question takes on a specific and definite form: What is the duty of the university in respect to technical and professional education?

I use the word university in its proper sense, not confounding it with a large college of the arts and sciences nor with a group of separate technical or professional schools, but meaning a place where students, adequately trained by previous study to undertake advanced work, are led into special fields of learning and research by teachers of high excellence and originality; a place where, by the agency of libraries, laboratories, museums and publications, knowledge is both conserved, advanced and disseminated. Of such the United States can to-day boast perhaps six, while as many more are struggling toward the goal. Yet, so unsettled is public opinion on this point, and so free is every individual to carry out his own whims, that the commissioner of education in his last annual report (1890-91, pp. 1398-1413) enumerates no fewer than 134 American universities, so-called, and this despite the fact that one or two undoubted universities still retain the name college and so do not appear on the list. Of the 134, Illinois furnishes seven (although the new University of Chicago does not appear), Kansas eight, Ohio fourteen, Tennessee nine (of which Nashville alone contributes three), Texas eight, and the city of New Orleans four. It is perhaps hardly necessary to add that it is not a "university" of this multifarious type that is referred to in this paper.

In the same year there were in this country 133 schools of medicine, 27 schools of dentistry, 30 schools of pharmacy, 143 schools of theology, 54 schools of law, 26 colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts, and 21 scientific schools and schools of technology. Of this grand total of 434 technical and professional schools, but the merest fraction are connected, even loosely or indirectly, with a college or university. Most of them are independent, separate institutions, conducted often for gain, and admitting pupils with the most shamefully deficient preparatory training.

In order to account fully for this state of affairs, the fact must be recognized, that, both as to our higher and our professional education, we are, in the United States, in a transition state. The presinauguration of President Eliot of Harvard in 1869 and the opening ent strongly marked university movement dates specifically from the of the Johns Hopkins University under President Gilman in 1876; and the earlier of those dates is only a quarter of a century in the past. The same thing is true of the scientific and technical schools. Almost all of them have been founded and developed since the war,

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and not a few owe their existence directly to the Morrill Act of 1862. The vast industrial expansion of the past thirty years, the rapid succession of new applications of science to art and industry, have laid new demands upon these schools, and the struggle has been to grow rapidly enough to meet them. Under the pressure of this environment, the tendency has been for these schools to become and remain purely technical. Their curriculum is usually of the narrowest sort. From it all study of literature, philosophy and political science is excluded, or reduced to so low a minimum that the effect is *nil*. There are a few noteworthy exceptions, but this is the rule. The consequence is, that, year by year, our professional men and technologists, the persons whom our civilization makes leaders in our political and industrial life, grow narrower and narrower, and are more and more completely removed from the broadening, deepening and refining influence of a liberal education.

Compare these conditions with those prevailing in Europe, and observe how carefully the European nations train their professional men. In almost every European country an adequate and broad preliminary education is demanded of all intending students of law, medicine, theology or technology. This preliminary training is carefully tested by examination before the professional course is begun. There is no reason known to me why so intelligent a people as our own should not insist on the highest type of professional service. Indeed, they cannot afford to submit to the incompetent quackery that so often presses itself upon them.

It is manifestly impossible to improve the existing condition at once, or by law. The true solution is to be found, I believe, in building up a strong public sentiment against professional and technical men who are not educated men as well. To lead in this matter is both the duty and the privilege of the universities. To accomplish this the universities should build up about them strong, well-equipped professional schools of all sorts. They should insist first upon a high school training, and then, raising the standard as swiftly as possible, upon a college education, as a necessary pre-requisite to a professional degree. The school of medicine at the Johns Hopkins is the only professional school in the country that occupies the plane that a university professional school ought to occupy. The law school of Harvard University is approaching the same standard, but at Columbia, Cornell, Michigan and elsewhere, despite recent improvements, the standard is still far too low. Students who could not begin to enter the freshman class of a college are welcomed to the professional schools of these universities. Recently a professor in a large school of applied science, connected with an undoubted university, stated that many of the students in that school were practically illiterate. Of course, he did not mean that they were

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actually unable to read and write, but that they had no adequate command of the power of written expression in English and no knowledge of literature and its intellectual and spiritual message. It is this pitiable deficiency in respect to the elements of a liberal education on the part of students in professional and technical schools that I deplore, and I insist that no true university can hesitate to wage war upon it. At Harvard and Columbia, two of the largest of American universities, and the two whose professional schools, take them all in all, have probably the highest standing, the proportion of college-trained men who are pursuing courses leading to a career in law, medicine and technology is still small. In 1892-93 the proportion of college graduates in the Harvard law school was fifty-seven and four-tenths per cent, while in the medical school it was only twenty-three per cent. At Columbia, in the same year, the proportions were, in the law school thirty-eight per cent, in the medical school thirty-eight per cent, and in the school of applied science (school of mines) sixteen per cent. Low as most of these percentages are, they are probably higher than at any other American institution.

It is undoubtedly true that public sentiment in this country is not ready to demand a college education as a pre-requisite for entrance upon the practice of a profession; and perhaps it never will be. But it is the function of a university to lead, not to follow.

The professions for which I would have the universities require a preliminary collegiate training are law, medicine, theology, teaching and the higher forms of technology. For the lower forms of technical work and for agriculture, a preliminary collegiate course, though highly beneficial, need not be insisted upon, but the curriculum of schools of agriculture and the like should find a place for English literature, a foreign language, logic, psychology and political science.

The State of New York, by its system of regents' examinations, and laws based thereon, has thrown certain admirable safeguards about the entrance to the practice of law and medicine. This policy might well be imitated in other States; but it only goes as far as the average public opinion will follow. The universities can do more, and more is expected of them. A university that continues to admit students to study law, medicine and theology on less preparation than is required for admission to the freshman class of its college department is falling short both of its duty and its opportunity.

My propositions, therefore, are these:

1. The genuine universities owe it to themselves and to the country to offer the broadest possible training for the professions. This training must be based upon a preparatory liberal education, such as a college course affords.

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2. All professional and technical schools, not connected with universities and not requiring a college education for admission, should make a place in their curriculum for a representation of liberal studies.

DISCUSSION.

[REPORTED BY C. C. ROUNDS.]

MR. SHELDON: The elimination of men unfitted for professional life is a duty of the university. Many professional men are spoiled farmers or mechanics. From those who aspire to lead public thought should be exacted a guarantee that they are naturally fitted for the work.

MR. HINSDALE: Will Mr. Sheldon show how the university can make this elimination?

MR SHELDON: It can be made, in part, at least, by some such examination as we had to pass for admission to college.

MR. CANFIELD: It seems to me there is another side to this statement which has just been made. Unquestionably it is true that many good farmers have been spoiled by giving them opportunities to become poor attorneys. On the other hand, if these opportunities had not been offered very freely in this country during our past history, a good many excellent attorneys would have remained farmers; would have remained men out of touch with the vast interests and the highest advancement of the affairs of this nation. We are not as yet a leisure class; we are not as yet a wealthy class as a whole; and we have hardly, as it seems to me, reached the time when there is a very numerous class in this country with sufficient time and means at command to do the work proposed by Dr. Butler.

I fully agree with the spirit of the paper, but I hardly believe we have reached the time when we can safely say that we will take away the flexibility which has heretofore prevailed in the approach to the profession. We have comparatively few men who have risen to high rank in this country, in any profession, who have come from families where they were sustained by ample means. We try to demand in the university which I have the honor to represent a fair high school training as a condition for admission to the college of law. I sent out circulars this year to about 300 of the best attorneys in the State, asking how much they would be willing to have us add to that of the coming year. I suggested certain things I would like to see added. Two or three of the best attorneys in the State, men who stand very high, not only in legal ability, but in general ability and power, answered: "Your proposition is excellent; but don't make it retroactive, because it will cut out all the attorneys in the State."

There is, I think, a little feeling on the part of the profession which we represent here that we can determine what course in life a pupil should follow. I think that many students have made a great mistake in connection with elective courses, and I think parents have made great blunders, in their direction of their children, in undertaking to place them in definite lines of work; but I suspect that both parents and children have not made as many mistakes as teachers would make if the teachers were permitted to assume absolute control in the selection of the life-

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work for every child. I take it, that one of the marvelous things in the American system of education is, that, like a magic wand, it is waved over American society, and the best comes to the surface.

I doubt very much whether we should undertake to determine definitely. I realize that we cannot build broadly, except upon a broad foundation. I have seen too many who, at forty or forty-five, have reached just as far as they could possibly go.

Yet, after all, what shall we, west of the Alleghanies, do? If we raise these qualifications with regard to the profession, we simply send men into the profession with even less qualifications than they would have had, had they been permitted to come to us.

We must keep American education in touch with American people. It can never wisely rise above that. In my judgment, although it must lead, it can never rise very much beyond the average American life.

S. R. THOMPSON: If there has been an increase in the number of years required for a degree in the medical schools in this country, what has brought about the change?

MR. WOODWARD: I can, in part, answer Professor Thompson's question. The universities have been compelled by self-respect to raise their standard. Washington University in St. Louis has but recently established a medical department. It has been urged to do this for twenty years, but would not adopt any of the medical schools unless their standard were raised.

MR. HINSDALE: The legislation of European countries on such questions as this is much more drastic than our own. The most eminent medical men in the United States would not be allowed to practice in Germany. We must not forget that this is a democratic country, and that the government must always be kept in touch with public opinion and general feeling. Is there any logical connection between democratic government and a low state of professional attainment? Expert opinion passes for much less in the United States than in Germany or France. In this movement for higher standard the stronger institution should lead off. In the East this can be done more easily than in the West. In some cases, the high schools turn their pupils aside from callings for which they are especially fitted; yet we have no remedy, and, on the whole, more good than harm results.

MR. HARRIS: The longest average time for school attendance in this country is in Massachusetts, and is not quite seven years. The average for the United States is one-half of this. We should not try to establish a high standard by calling elementary schools secondary schools. In elementary schools knowledge of natural science is only a superstition, because the pupil cannot see the relation between various branches. It is very desirable that all should go on to higher stage of education.

MR. WOODWARD: There are many cases in which we know that people are injured by lack of high school education. Can we say that anyone has been injured by a high school course?

MR. KIEHLE: The supposed mischief that has come to pupils taking high school courses is, not that it is too high or too advanced, but rather in the failure of the teacher to cultivate the proper respect for all industry, and therefore to make him feel free to prepare himself for and to enter the industry for which his taste and ability fit him. The high school should relate itself, not only as a fitting school to the college, but to the several industries, as fitting and finishing schools for them. A pupil should not be held in the course by a false pride or a false ambition.

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THE DOGMA OF FORMAL DISCIPLINE.

BY DR. B. A. HINSDALE, UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

Professor Rein of Jena remarks, in his "Outlines of Pedagogics," that "the fiction of formal education must be given up. In general," he says, "there is no such education at all; there exist as many kinds of formal education as there are essentially different spheres of intellectual employment." (English translation, p. 42.) Professor Van Liew, Rein's translator and editor, explains "formal education," or "formal culture," as signifying "about the same as the vague expression 'discipline of the mind.' Its extreme defendants," he continues, "claim that the pursuit of classic studies renders the intellect capable in any sphere whatever, *i. e.*, it develops all the mental faculties. It is true that the study of a language renders the pursuit of other related branches easier; but it cannot be conceded that it prepares the mind directly for grasping other totally irrelevant subjects." (Page 42, note.)

On the other hand, the Committee of Ten, in its report on secondary education, assumes the correctness of the doctrine. The passages in which this assumption is made are so well known that it will suffice to quote a single one of them. "Every youth who entered college would have spent four years in studying a few subjects thoroughly; and on the theory that all the subjects are to be considered equivalent in educational rank for the purposes of admission to college, it would make no difference which subjects he had chosen from the program, he would have had four years of strong and effective mental training." (Page 53.)

The chairman of the committee, it may be observed, had previously declared, speaking of the development of observation, that "it does not matter what subjects the child studies, so that he studies something thoroughly in an observational method. If the method be right, it does not matter, among the numerous subjects well fitted to develop this important faculty, which he chooses or which is chosen for him." ("The Forum," December, 1893, p. 418.)

The views expressed by the Committee of Ten have not passed without protest. One member of the committee, President Baker, uttered his dissent. Dr. Shurman spoke of the committee as falling victims to that popular psychology which defines education merely as the training of the mental faculties, as though the materials of instruction were a matter of indifference. Education, he insists, is not merely a training of mental powers; it is a process of nutrition. Mind grows by what it feeds on, and the mental organism, like the physical organism, must have suitable and appropriate

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nourishment. ("The School Review," February, 1894, p. 93.) Dr. De Garmo remarked that the paragraph quoted above implies, that the formal discipline we have heretofore ascribed to classics and mathematics may really be obtained in the study of anything; consequently, it makes no difference what we study. This, he says, is seeking to correct an erroneous theory by making it universal. ("Educational Review," March, 1894, p. 378.)

The words that have been quoted from the several authorities reveal a wide divergence of view. It may be true, as one of the critics of the Committee of Ten observes, that no harm will follow from its theory so long as the rich programs that it offers remain. Still, the question is absolutely fundamental to the science of educational values, and cannot be waived. If one subject is as good as another for purposes of discipline, then the maxim "all is in all" must be taken in a sense that would have startled even Jacotot. Certainly such a theory, supported by the weight of authority that is behind it, may well claim the attention of any body of men whose *raison d'etre* is the discussion of educational problems.

First, we may state the theory a little more definitely. Dr. De Garmo says it consists in "the idea that the mind can store up mechanical force in a few subjects, like grammar and mathematics, which can be used with efficiency in any department of life." The process that formal discipline assumes may be likened to the passage of energy from the fires of the sun, first, to vegetation, and then to the coal beds and subterranean reservoirs of oil and gas, whence it is again drawn forth to cook a breakfast, to warm a drawing-room, to light a city, or to propel a steamship across the ocean. This is the theory that we are to examine.

I. We may first look into the analogous facts in the physiological sphere.

The result of physical activity—call it what we will—presents to our view two phases, one special and one general. The power engendered by any defined exertion of physical power is fully available for all like kinds of exertion, but only partially so for unlike kinds. Thus, the power or skill engendered by driving nails can all be used in driving nails, but only partly in shoving a plane. In the intellectual sphere, the two corresponding facts are sometimes called training and discipline. Furthermore, the generic element may be still further analyzed. Activity tends, first, to invigorate the whole body—"to tone it up," as we say; and, secondly, to overflow into new channels lying near to the one in which it was created. For example, driving nails will energize the whole body to a degree, but the hand, the arm and the shoulder to a much greater degree, and so will prepare for shoving a plane or turning an auger far more than for kicking a ball or vaulting over a bar. The law appears to

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be this; in so far as the second exertion involves the same muscles and nerves as the first one, and, particularly, in so far as it calls for the same co-ordination of muscles and nerves, the power created by the first exertion will be available. In other words, the result is determined by the congruity or the incongruity of the two efforts.

Now, the contribution that any defined exertion makes to the general store of one's bodily energy is important. At the same time, the facts do not prove that a reservoir can be accumulated by any one kind of effort that can be used indifferently for any and all purposes. There is no such thing as a formal physical discipline.[1] Energy created by activity flowing in one channel cannot be turned at will into any other channel. A boxer is not perforce a fencer. A pugilist in training does not train promiscuously, but according to certain strict methods that experience has proved. Mr. Galton has undertaken to show that the genius of the famous wrestlers of the North Country is hereditary; but he has not undertaken to show that these wrestlers are also famous as oarsmen. ("Hereditary Genius," chap. 18.)

II. We may touch for a moment on the relation of body and mind. That such a relation exists—that psychic life has a physical basis; that the saints all have bodies—is admitted; but the nicer connections of body and soul have never been reduced to formulæ. The prudent Locke's maxim, "*Mens sana in sano corpore*," is universally admired. It, no doubt, expresses a truth more or less general and is a beautiful educational ideal. Still, we cannot deny soundness to many minds that have dwelt in unsound bodies, or claim mental soundness for all men having sound bodies. Many of the saints have lived in poor bodies, while many persons with good bodies have been far from saints. Not even the wildest materialist, although he should hold that the brain secretes thought as the liver bile, would pretend that physical activity and strength and psychic activity and strength can be put in an equation.

III. Dismissing these more or less analogous facts, we come directly to the mind itself. Our general question is, the mutual convertibility of the different kinds of mental activity or power.

There is a constant relation between the three phases of mental action. Cognition, feeling and will are not names of different states of consciousness, but names of different aspects of the same consciousness. They cannot be separated except in thought. The three elements mingle in the full stream of mental activity from the moment that the stream begins to flow. The annihilation of one is the annihilation of all.

Within certain limits, these elements seem to vary together; outside of those limits they tend to inverse variation. It is well known, for instance, that a glow of equable feeling is the proper at-

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mosphere of the school-room; also, that violent emotional disturbance is as destructive of the proper ends of the schools, for the time, as a cyclone is to a village or forest. Mr. Darwin has told us with charming frankness, and in words bordering on pathos, that his own exclusive absorption in scientific study had destroyed the feelings of wonder, admiration and devotion which lie at the root of religious experience, and also robbed him of the pleasures that he had once received from poetry and art. Late in life he wrote, that the grandest scenes had become powerless to cause the conviction and feeling to rise in his mind that there is more in man than the mere breath of his body;—scenes, which had filled and elevated it, when, a young man, he stood in the grandeur of a Brazilian forest. He speaks of his mind as having become "a kind of a machine for grinding general laws out of large collections of facts," and says he cannot conceive "why this should have caused the atrophy of that part of the brain alone on which the higher tastes depend." ("Life and Letters," vol. i., pp. 281-282.) Shakespeare perfectly understood, what modern psychology explains, that the native hue of resolution becomes sicklied o'er with a pale cast of thought, and that enterprises of great pith and moment are thereby turned awry and lose the name of action. Hamlet had thought too much to kill the king; and many a man of the closet, many a speculative thinker, has undergone a like disintegration of practical character, although he may have had no purpose to commit a similar deed. It is, therefore, perfectly obvious that there is no such thing as formal mental discipline in the broadest sense of the language.

IV. Narrowing the field again, we come to the intellect. Now our question is, the mutual convertibility of the different forms of intellectual activity.

1. These forms are much more closely connected than the old psychologists thought. They indeed taught that representative knowledge is conditioned upon presentation, and that thought is conditioned upon both presentation and representation; but they did not teach how deeply the processes summed up in the word "thought" enter into perception. There is perhaps no form of cognitive activity that is pure and simple. These propositions do not need to be argued. At the same time, the cognitive elements do not vary together. Perception, memory, imagination, etc., are not convertible terms; neither is any one of these faculties, in a concrete case, the measure of any other. We find the strangest combinations of intellectual power in real life. How strong the savage is in keenness of sense! how weak in speculative reflection! The realists have deservedly emphasized the value of sense perception and of sense teaching in education; but they have not emphasized the fact that the particular and concrete mark an early and imperfect stage of

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mental advancement; that there is no greater clog upon mental progress than the habit of thinking it, and that a man's thinking capacity is gauged by his power to think general and abstract thoughts. Children, savages, all immature minds, live in their senses; cultivated men grow out of them. That is a significant anecdote which Dr. Fitch relates, of the teacher, who was testifying before Lord Taunton's commission as to the extraordinary interest which his pupils took in physical science. Asked what department of science most interested his scholars, he replied: "The chemistry of the explosive substances." ("Lectures on Teaching," No. 14.)

2. "Habits of observation" and "men of observation" are phrases often heard. We may well inquire how far such language is true.

It is well known that some persons notice faces, others actions, others attire, some manners, some language, etc. Also, that some persons are observant of several classes of phenomena. There is, however, no formal power of observation. The Indian's boasted faculty is limited to his native environment; introduced into Cheapside or the Strand, he sees nothing compared with Sam Weller or one of Fagin's pupils. Nor can any exercises be prescribed that will cultivate an all-around observation. The inductive logicians lay down their rules for conducting observations and experiments, as, that they must be precise, that the phenomena be isolated, etc.; and very good rules they are. But they do not constitute a proper organon of observation. The words of Dr. Sully remain true: "There are no good rules of observation which will enable one to teach it as an art. More will depend" he says, "upon daily companionship with an acute observer than upon systematic training." ("Outlines of Psychology," p. 214.) Still, in such case, the senses of the pupil will take the direction of the senses of the acute observer.

3. Next come the faculties of representation. Unusual powers of memory are so far from implying unusual understanding that the opinion has prevailed, which some writers have thought it necessary to refute, that the two are irreconcilable. We need not canvass the question here, farther than to remark that a good understanding is more frequently accompanied by good memory than a good memory by good understanding. Still further, memory exercises are quite as limited in their effects as exercises in observation. One person has memory for names, a second for places, a third for faces, a fourth for dates and statistics, a fifth for ideas, a sixth for language, etc.; some combine two or more of these gifts, but there is no memory that takes up everything indifferently.

What has been said of the memory is equally true of the other great representative faculty. There is the imagination of the philosopher, of the artist, and of the man of affairs, with their several subdivisions.

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Finally, we come to the logical faculty, which is supposed to be the very seat and shrine of formal discipline. Here the facts are not different from those already presented. Ability to handle formal logic is not ability to handle real logic, as the schoolmen made very plain. Deduction is not induction. Mastery of the method of difference, sometimes called "the chemical method," does not equip one for investigating the affairs of human society. On the other hand, it is sometimes said, and with perfect truth, that constant use of the more rigorous methods of science tends to unfit men for dealing with human questions. No curious observer can fail to notice how practical ability to judge and to reason tends to run in special channels. The tendency is most striking in specialization. Eminence in microscopy, in sanitary science, in engineering, in philology, in pedagogy, in a thousand specialized pursuits, is no guarantee of ability in other matters, or even of good sense in the common affairs of life. The only astrologist whom I have ever happened to know personally was an eminent civil engineer.

Every person who has attempted to make up a course of popular lectures by drawing upon the professional talent of the vicinage knows how hard it is to draw the professional man out of his *fach*. The lawyer's unwillingness to appear in such a capacity is often due to his consciousness of his own limitations. That the lawyer is especially fitted for the work of legislation by his technical knowledge of the law is a common fallacy. His mind is trained in the law as it is, and he naturally shrinks from changes that will necessitate new adjustments of his ideas and of his practice. After remarking that it is hard for a modern reader to comprehend how men who reasoned upon their data with the force and subtlety of the schoolmen could ever have accepted such data, Lord Macaulay proceeds as follows:

> It is the same with some eminent lawyers. Their legal arguments are intellectual prodigies, abounding with the happiest analogies and the most refined distinctions. The principles of their arbitrary science being once admitted, the statute book and the reports being once assumed as the foundations of reasoning, these men must be allowed to be perfect masters of logic. But if a question arises as to the postulates on which their whole system rests, if they are called upon to vindicate the fundamental maxims of that system which they have passed their lives in studying, these very men often talk the language of savages or of children. Those who have listened to a man of this class in his own court, and who have witnessed the skill with which he analyzes and digests a vast mass of evidence, or reconciles a crowd of precedents which at first sight seem contradictory, scarcely know him again when, a few hours later, they hear him speaking on the other side of Westminster Hall in his capacity of legislator. They can scarcely believe that the paltry quirks which are faintly heard through a storm of coughing, and which do not impose on the plainest country gentleman, can proceed from the same sharp and vigorous intellect which had excited their admiration under the same roof and on the same day. (Essay "Boswell's Life of Johnson.")

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It is well known that Lord Erskine, the peerless advocate at the bar, proved a disappointment in the House of Commons.

Thus we see, that, no matter what kind of mental activities we consider, they conform to the causes that excite them. Like the dyer's hand, the mental faculties are subdued to what they work in. There is no such thing as activity in *vacuo*. An incisive writer has said:

> The circumstantial evidence with which lawyers—*qua* lawyers—are familiar under our system of jurisprudence, is an artificial thing created by legislation or custom, with the object of preventing the minds of the jury, presumably a body of untrained and unlearned men, from being confused or led astray. Moreover, they are only familiar with its use in one very narrow field—human conduct under one set of social conditions. For example, a lawyer might be a very good judge of circumstantial evidence in America, and a very poor one in India or China; might have a keen eye for the probable or improbable in a New England village, and none at all in a Prussian barrack. * * * A wild Indian will, owing to prolonged observation and great acuteness of the senses, tell, by a simple inspection of grass or leaf-covered ground, on which a scholar will perceive nothing unusual whatever, that a man has recently passed over it. He will tell whether he was walking or running, whether he carried a burden, whether he was young or old, and how long ago and at what hour of the day he went by. He reaches all his conclusions by circumstantial evidence of precisely the same character as that used by the geologist, though he knows nothing about formal logic or the process of induction. Now, what Dr. ——— would have us believe is, that we can come out of his study and pass judgment on the Indian's reasoning without being able to see one of the "known facts" on which the reasoning rests, or appreciate in the slightest degree which of them is material to the conclusion and which is not, or even to conjecture whether, taken together, they exclude the hypothesis that it was not a man, but a cow or dog, which passed over the ground, and not to-day, but yesterday, that the marks were made. ("The Nation," Nov. 16, 1876.)

Perhaps it will be objected to the line of argument followed that it assumes the truth of an obsolete psychology. "As classification in the provinces of zoology and botany," says Höffding, "led to the notion of eternal and unchangeable species, so that it now costs a hard struggle to furnish proof that these species are the fruits of a natural course of evolution, so psychological research for a long time thought its end had been attained when it reduced the various inner phenomena to various 'faculties' of the mind, a procedure which conflicted strangely with the strictly spiritualistic conception of the unity of the mind. At the same time, these 'faculties' were regarded as causes of the phenomena concerned, and thus the need of a casual explanation was satisfied in a very convenient, though quite illusory, manner. In particular, it was overlooked that in classification attention is given only to a prominent characteristic; that it is not therefore actual concrete states themselves which are classified, but the elements out of which a closer examination shows them to be formed. There is scarcely a single conscious state (as will be shown later in detail) which is only idea, only feeling, or only will." ("Psychology," p. 19.)

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I am not about to attempt the rehabilitation of the much derided "faculty" psychology. It cannot be denied, that, with all its defects, this psychology did furnish a convenient mode of describing mental phenomena. But, no matter what psychology we adopt, the phenomena of the individual mind cannot be explained, at least so far as appears, on the theory of the correlation of forces.

V. We come now to some remarks and applications.

1. What has been said of physical activities may be repeated of psychical activities. They present to our minds a specific and a generic phase. Any defined intellectual exertion, for example, besides generating power that is subject to draft for like efforts, also tends to energize the intellect, and to a degree, the whole mind. This overflow of power—this mobilization of the mind, if we may so call it—is an important factor in psychic life. It furnishes the dogma of formal discipline its only support. How strong this support is, we cannot say in quantitive terms, but certainly it is far from sufficient to uphold the dogma as commonly understood.

2. These last remarks suggest the harmonizable quality—the congruity or incongruity—of mental activities. This subject belongs to the psychologist; but a related one, which has even more practical importance, belongs to the pedagogist. Reference is now made to congruity as a principle to be employed in the classification of studies. The first question is: What studies are congruous? what incongruous? And the second one: How far should the principle of congruity be followed in the choice of studies and in their arrangement year by year, month by month, day by day? The two subjects of congruous mental activity and of congruous studies call for a fuller investigation than they have ever received.

3. Even this cursory survey would be inadequate without mention being made of two topics that receive large attention at the hands of teachers and educational writers. Certain arts were long ago called liberal (*artes liberales*), because they were supposed to liberalize the mind; that is, set it free from its ignorance, narrowness, prejudice. This claim was well founded. In time, however, a liberal education came to be understood as a general education, in contradistinction to one that is special. The phrase now conveyed the idea of extent rather than quality of study, and such appears to be the present acceptation. But it is almost needless to remark that liberal study, and particularly as pursued in colleges and universities, is possible only in a relative sense. There must be a definite limitation of the field if we are to secure thoroughness and efficiency. Men cannot now take all knowledge for their province. But this is not all. Good specialization must also attain a certain breadth. A Greek scholar must study Latin; an English scholar, German; a physicist, mathematics; a pedagogist, psychology, logic, ethics. Over-

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specialization, like too wide general study, defeats itself. The adjusting of the two factors, extension and intention, is a problem as difficult as it is important. At one stage they vary directly; at another stage, inversely. Liberal culture is but a broader specialization; specialization but a narrower liberal culture.

4. The only practical reason for discussing formal discipline in this place is, that it involves studies and courses of study. The first question relative to the educational value of any subject is: What kind of mental activity does it stimulate? This question reaches much farther than is commonly supposed. If the subject is said to develop the faculties of observation, then we must ask: Observation in what direction? In the direction of nature, or of man? And, if of nature, then of what department of nature? The same analysis must be made in respect to memory, imagination, comparison, judgment and thought. But this is not all. Because a subject develops the kind of activity that is desired, we are not therefore at once to assign it a place in the curriculum. The quantitative question is equally fundamental, viz.: How much activity does the subject stimulate? Even the most worthless subjects have some educational value; and we cannot assign any subject its place until we have compared it with others in respect to the measure of the effect that it produces.

5. Applying these criteria to leading studies, we have no difficulty in seeing that their ardent cultivators often claim too much for them. The partisans of scientific education claim that the sciences stimulate strongly all the intellectual faculties. We must admit the claim. This, however, does not cut us off from asking what channel the observation, comparison, analysis and thinking run in. Mr. Todhunter repels the claim that the natural sciences "are eminently and specially salutary as a means of developing the powers of observation." He argues that "the study of any subject tends to make men observant of the special matter of that subject; the study of botany doubtless trains the habit of observing botanical phenomena; the study of chemistry doubtless trains the habit of observing chemical phenomena. But I have never noticed that the devotion to any specific branch of natural history or natural philosophy has any potent influence in rendering the student specially alive to phenomena unconnected with the specific pursuit. I could give some striking examples to the contrary." ("The Conflict of Studies," p. 28.) Unfortunately, Mr. Todhunter did not generalize the principle that underlies his very just remarks. It is the principle of specific and generic products of mental activity. It is the principle to which Rein goes counter, when he says, in words that are somewhat over-strong: "There exist simply as many kinds of formal

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education as there are essentially different spheres of intellectual employment." Still more unfortunately, Mr. Todhunter prefers claims for mathematics that are quite as absurd as those that he repels in the case of natural science. In their own field the mathematical sciences are invaluable, both as disciplines and as tools, but no field is more closely limited or more definitely marked off.

All in all, language is the greatest educational agent that we possess. It is the content or substance of thought. Through it we receive the accumulated cultivation of our race. We master it as a tool for the expresson of our own thought, which is inferior to no other discipline that we are capable of receiving. When we become scholars, we study language as the form of thought, or as grammar, and here we deal with some of the broadest and most abstract relations that ever receive our attention. Language appeals to us under its historical aspect, under its comparative aspect, and, finally, as one of the noblest, if not indeed the noblest, of all the arts. But great as is its educational value, you cannot adequately educate a child by teaching him language.

VI. We may now sum up the principal ideas that have been advanced in the course of this paper.

1. The power generated by any kind of mental activity must be studied under two aspects, one special and one general.

2. The degree to which such power is general depends upon the extent to which it energizes the mind, and particularly the extent to which it overflows into congruent channels.

3. Such power is far more special than general; it is only in a limited sense that we can be said to have a store of mobilized mental power. In a sense, men have perceptions, memories and imaginations, rather than perception, memory and imagination.

4. While liberal study and specialization look to somewhat different ends, they are, in fact, only parts, and necessary parts, of the same thing.

5. No one kind of mental exercise—no few kinds—can develop the whole mind. That end can be gained only through many and varied activities.

6. No study—no single group of studies—contains within itself the possibilities of a whole education. That balance of development which we should call a liberal education can be gained only through a measurably expanded curriculum.

A few words in relation to the genesis and permanency of the doctrine of formal discipline will fitly close this paper. That doctrine is a survival from the days of scholasticism. Those days were the halcyon period of formal studies. Formalism, which rests upon the machine tendency of the human mind, then gained a hold which four centuries of real studies have not sufficed to throw off. In

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truth, the downfall of scholasticism was due, primarily, to an agent that, in one way, perpetuated its power. Humanism brought such intense relief to the minds of men, long starved upon merely logical elements, that it became the badge of a new servitude. The Greek and Latin literatures took possession of cultivated minds. The classical tradition was established, and it soon became the most powerful educational tradition that the world has ever seen. As the classical cultures were not vernacular cultures, the schools were necessarily made engines for teaching foreign languages. Admire as we justly may the classical chapter in the history of human cultivation, we cannot deny that there grew up a classical formalism which was only less tyrannous than the old scholastic formalism had been. When the new regime came to be challenged, its devotees cast about them for means of defense. Unconsciously borrowing from the scholastics the formal idea, they poured into it the notion that the classics have an exclusive, or an almost exclusive, educational value, because, as alleged, they alone furnish that liberal or general culture which, relatively speaking, must form the basis of complete education. Knowledge, content, substance, mental nutriment, were relegated to a secondary place. It became the business of teachers to "discipline" minds, which, indeed, is well enough if the matter is rightly understood. This tendency went so far that knowledge, thought, ideas, had little to do with fixing a man's place in the intellectual world. The supreme question was whether he had read certain books. This exaggerated claim has at last been cast off. Greek and Latin have been relegated to their own proper place as educational powers; but, most unfortunately, the conception of formal discipline, which was the joint product of the scholastic and the humanistic minds, still remains somewhat to vex our peace.

DISCUSSION.

[REPORTED BY WILLIAM E. SHELDON.]

DR. E. E. WHITE of Ohio asked in how wide a sense is the term "general" used in the first statement as contrasted with "special?"

DR. HINSDALE: In the ordinary sense.

DR. SCHAEFFER of Pennsylvania recognized the fact that every one thinks, but that special questions require special thinking. Thinking, he said, is a process of comparison. We cannot create concepts with special reference to general topics. They must be definite and specific in character.

DR. HINSDALE replied, that general study would fit one to think and act on various things.

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DR. SCHAEFFER said we need to understand clearly what was meant by discipline. There are various kinds of discipline—military, family, etc.

MR. DE GARMO thought a wide range of knowledge essential to mental power. In a given subject, the pupil acquires a store of ideas between which he is taught to see relations, as in the study of a language. This acquired power has a certain validity in related realms of knowledge, but it will not enable the mind to see the relations of ideas it does not possess or of those that are not brought into juxtaposition. Dr. Harris talks of the five windows of the soul, taking history as the representative of the will. But contemplation of will activities, as in the study of history, is not more important than participation in them. The will should be trained through instruction, so that every great group of ideas developed by instruction should function in economic or practical activities. This paper brings us down to date, and explains the new movements in education, such as those represented by Mr. Woodward.

DR. E. E. WHITE: Every act of the mind increases its power to act in the same direction, and also in related directions. Every power of the mind is trained by its own activity. An act of observation is broader in its results than that which is secured by the observation of a single or special object. Every activity of the mind requires and brings into exercise the will power, the feelings, etc. The will not only holds the mind, enabling it to develop with reference to a special class of objects of thought, but the power of the will is increased with reference to other activities. Life is not shut up to any one special study. The mind is thus really developed in general, as well as special, directions. He liked the word "develop" better than the term "generated" used in the paper. Power is not properly thus generated, there being no genesis. If we would increase mental power, educationally, we must exercise it in all directions, thus giving vitality and energy to the mind as a whole. General training comes by an exercise of the varied powers of the mind in many ways. Activity in specific directions gives special power in these directions. He was greatly pleased with the doctrines of the paper.

DR. SCHAEFFER: Too much specialism has been a source of weakness rather than power in the judgment of some of the best thinkers of our day. In my judgment, no technical course of study can fill the place occupied by the old classical courses of study. Special training of any kind certainly has not produced such results. There is a possibility of exhausting the mind by too much special work.

DR. BOONE of Michigan: The mind is not made up of separate faculties. The mind should be treated and disciplined as a whole. There is a distinction between what is called education and mental training. Exercise on typical forms will furnish training for the mind as a whole, and all general culture comes to the mind, not as composed of separate faculties, but as a whole.

DR. WHITE: The power of the mind to act in all directions is very largely controlled by the exercise of the will. "Power" is a vague term, and it can only be secured by a wide range of investigation. Much of it comes from our contact with actual life. Life is quite as essential to a liberal education as a specific college training. The doctrine of typical activity is liable to mislead those who would give a broad culture to the mind.

DR. ROUNDS: In my judgment, the ideas of the old classical communities have so dominated the forms of culture in many places that new ideas get a very unwelcome reception. There is danger of expanding the courses of study in our schools too much. I agree that they should be "measurably" expanded. We may err in attempting too much. We must keep the mind of the pupil in constant contact with the outside world.

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DR. HINSDALE said, in closing, that he was pleased with the kind reception that had been accorded to the word "measurably" in his report. It is indeed a very useful word. Discipline demands some general rule or course of action. The will has very much to do with all disciplinary processes. Forty, and even twenty-five, years ago the text-books of mental science treated of the faculties of the mind as so many separate parts. The mind has no organs. It is unlike an animal or a vegetable. If the mind were a potato, it might possibly be treated in its organic character, but it must be treated as a whole. How far we have acted wisely in the change of the nomenclature from the word "faculty," I am not prepared to state. The language used in connection with the faculty of the mind is largely figurative, and as used is mostly in metaphor. It is true we have no other satisfactory terms than those which we gain from the use of figures of speech. The serious question still remains, whether we have gained anything by throwing aside the old term "faculty of the mind" and substituting those which are not, perhaps, any more intelligible. I neither affirm nor deny anything on this point; I simply call attention to the fact.

Questions and suggestions were made by Z. Richards, Dr. De Garmo and others.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON PSYCHOLOGICAL INQUIRY—THE PSYCHOLOGY OF THE IMITATIVE FUNCTIONS IN CHILDHOOD AS RELATED TO THE PROCESS OF LEARNING.

BY WM. T. HARRIS, CHAIRMAN.

The undersigned Committee on Psychological Inquiry beg leave herewith to present their report, calling attention to a new and promising opening for educational psychology, which has been made through a study of the imitative functions in childhood with a view to explain mental development and the process of learning.

The felicity of this selection of imitation as the opening study in the psychology of education will appear upon consideration. For imitation, in its purest and simplest form, that of mechanical repetition of the actions of another person, is, by common consent, placed at the bottom of spiritual achievements. A monkey or a parrot can mimic actions or speech, and to call the action of a human being parrot-like repetition or a process of aping is to express reproach and contempt for it. What teacher is there that does not despise mere verbal repetition in his pupils? Can there be a greater paradox in educational psychology than the theory, which sets out with the function of imitation, and attempts to show that all forms of intellectual and moral activity are only varieties of this despised mode of action? If there is an attractive method of bringing psychology to the attention of teachers, surely it has now been found. The sheer audacity of the theory, that places the stone which the teachers had

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rejected for the head of the corner, will fix the attention alike of the primary school mistress and the professor in college.

But there is a consideration connected with imitative action which makes it the most fruitful approach to psychology, for it explains the mode in which the individual man unites with his fellow men to form a social whole. It introduces us to the formation of institutions, the family, civil community, the State, the Church—those greater selves which reinforce the little selves of isolated individuals. For the study of imitation leads to the discovery of the modes by which the individual man repeats for himself the thinking and doing and feeling of his fellows, and thus enriches his own life by adding to it the lives of others. Thus, his own life becomes vicarious for others, and he participates vicariously in the life of society.

What are manners and customs but imitated forms of doing, that preserve the results of successful experience in dealing with nature or in co-operating with one's fellows? What is fashion, with its apparently capricious changes, but the method of emancipating individuals from the tyranny of old customs and usages, that insist on minute punctilios in matters that are unimportant, except as symbols of our membership in the social whole? Thus, one kind of imitation supplants another as more progressive. The fashions of the semi-civilized and savage people last without change from generation to generation—and, indeed, it is likely for hundreds, and even for thousands, of years—because the savage intellect cannot as yet attain the strength to discriminate between moral and indifferent actions. The savage has only two kinds of deeds, moral and immoral; while the civilized man has three kinds, moral, immoral and unmoral. Thus, that form of imitation which we all despise as mere fashion, has significance as the means of emancipating us from that heavy yoke of ceremonial that once prescribed the forms of our indifferent actions as though they were of moral or religious import.

Imitation develops, on the one hand, into habits, or customs and morals, and this is the will-side of human mind; and on other hand, it develops into perception, memory, ideas and insights, this being the intellectual side of mind. It is evident that the pedagogic interest in psychology is the evolution of the higher faculties out of the lower. It is all important for us to understand this progressive step by which free moral action develops in the place of mere unconscious use and wont. We must discover how mere external memory of borrowed ideas gives place to insight. It is necessary, first of all, to discover the most elementary forms of imitation. In this research the students of psychical phenomena have greatly aided. The discovery of the fact that a small per cent of people are so sen-

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sitive to the mental influences about them that they can, without the intermediation of words, read the thoughts of others, has been made and verified in numerous instances. The study of hypnotism has taken up this fact into a class of related facts belonging, not only to the intellect, but to the will and the emotions as well. The phrase "hypnotic suggestion" has come to play a great role in elucidating the rudimentary facts of imitation. The hypnotizer suggests an idea, which the hypnotic subject takes up and carries out in feeling or action. The rapid progress of scientific investigation in this field of psychic research promises to throw light on all social thought, feeling and action. It will help us to understand much that has been obscure in the rise and spread of popular beliefs, the genesis of social tornadoes, like the Crusades, the French Revolution, the Tartaric invasions of Europe, or even such local affairs as strikes and mobs.

We must not lose sight of the essential fact that shows itself even in the most rudimentary of the phenomena of imitation. There can be no imitation whatever except on the part of self-active beings; in other words, only souls can imitate. "Imitation," says Compayré, "is the reproduction of what one has seen another do." It is, therefore, always to some extent an act of assimilation. Even if we extend the meaning of imitation so as to include unconscious mimicry and all phenomena akin to hypnotic suggestion, still it is self-activity that does the imitating. What is beheld as an act of another is converted by adoption into an act of self. The pride and pleasure that the infant exhibits on the occasion of his first conscious imitation has its root in this, that he has made something his own—has proved himself equal to imitating a movement in himself by his will—he has revealed his selfhood to some extent. This is the significance of play, which is chiefly imitation, that the undeveloped human being is learning to know himself by seeing what he can do. He is revealing himself to others and to himself, and getting strength in his individuality.

Thus, we see that there is an element of originality in the most mechanical phase of imitation. The self is active and assimilative. It sees an external deed which it proceeds to make its own deed by imitation.

It proves itself to possess a human nature identical with the one whom it imitates.

Originality grows by progressive deepening of the insight into causes and motives of the thing imitated. The lowest stage of imitation superstitiously imitates all the details, because it has no insight into the grounds and purposes of the action imitated and but little comprehension of the means employed. When it understands the means and the motives, it strikes out for itself and makes new

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adaptations. It modifies its imitation to suit differences of circumstances.

Originality grows with this ascending comprehension of means and purposes. There comes a time when the imitative child comprehends the principle as well as does the master whom he imitates, and then he is emancipated from all imitation in this part of his education. If he keeps on and comprehends the genesis of the principle from deeper principles, he emancipates himself from even the "hypnotic suggestion" of the principle itself, and all external authority has become inward freedom.

M. Tarde, who published his great book on the "Laws of Imitation" in 1890, speaks of self-imitation, as in the case of habit (page 83), which he defines as a sort of "unconscious imitation of one's self by one's self." Here, in the stages of originality, where the person has learned to comprehend what he once imitated, and now understands it in its causes and in the reasons for its existence, is self-imitation, if we are to speak of imitation at all. It is no longer an activity at an outward suggestion, but purely spontaneous. It has vanquished the external object by ascending to its causes.

It is worthy of note that this book of M. Tarde is a study of sociology. For, in the French Revolution, the thought of Rousseau produced individualism, and the social whole was denied a valid existence in the shape of the State, except in so far as it appeared as a free contract between individuals. It was not considered that any contract presupposes a pre-existence of state or government, a social whole to give validity to the contract. It is well that this new movement in psychology, which proves the substantial basis of mental evolution to lie in social institutions, should receive its great impulse from a Frenchman. M. Tarde is the anti-Rousseau.

The profoundest thinker of the human race, Aristotle, hits upon this subject of imitation in his "Poetics," making it the basis of his philosophy of art. What he says in the fourth and ninth chapters of the book on the subject of "Mimesis," or imitation, rather leads us to see a deeper meaning in the word than mimicry or mechanical repetition. It seems almost to mean symbol-making. "Man is the most imitative of animals, and makes his first steps in learning by aid of imitation," he tells us. Man is a symbol-making animal always, in whatever he does; making a symbol of what he is in his essential nature; always repeating in himself the symbols of the existence and actions of all other beings.

Leibnitz, the philosopher who translated Aristotle's ideas for modern readers, has told us in his monadology that each soul is a monad which, by its self-activity, repeats for itself or represents the whole universe. This is imitation on a grand scale—imitation transfigured, we might say—that, by self-activity, assimilates the whole

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universe. The monad creates for itself the world that it perceives. Here, we see, is the harmony of freedom and authority. The soul is not determined by what lies outside it, but determines itself so as to reproduce the beings and the causes that are outside it.

Here, too, is the social man again of M. Tarde. For each man has this one destiny, to sum up in himself the life and deeds of the race.

The latest great world-poet, Goethe, in his "Wilhelm Meister," treats the problem of culture or education, in its widest sense, in connection and contrast with the problem of dramatic art,—how to make an actor. The individual sees ideals above him, and impersonates them; loves them, and imitates them; wears them as a player acts his part. Gradually he acquires as a second nature his ideals, and must keep growing on into new and higher ideals. The mere actor (he shows) must be able to assume quickly all characters, and yet possess no character himself; he must be a sort of professional wig block to hold, one after another, all kinds of wigs, but to have not even a scalp of its own. Goethe's favorite characters were those who react against their environments by internal development. They always press beyond imitation toward the indwelling principle of that which is imitated, and thus attain freedom. Prof. Mark Baldwin, now of Princeton University, was one of the first to take up and develop this function of imitation as the key to educational psychology. His articles in "Science," in 1891 and 1892, and more recent articles in "Mind," 1894, and finally his work on "Mental Evolution in the Child and the Race," form a large and valuable contribution to this study.

Prof. Josiah Royce of Harvard has taken up the same theme, and, with the extensive resources at his command, has presented it in more suggestive and more popular forms than had been done before. Those who have read his charming article in the May number of the "Century" on "The Imitative Functions and Their Place in Human Nature," need not be told so much as this.

Your committee in this, their report, have not attempted to illustrate the application of this important category of imitation to the subject of the process of learning in childhood, but have preferred to leave this illustration for the round table discussion of Monday evening, in which Professor Royce has consented to assist and give his own presentations of one of the phases of this theme.

Respectfully submitted by

W. T. HARRIS, *Chairman*,
E. C. HEWETT,
JOHN W. COOK,
E. ORAM LYTE,
N. A. CALKINS,
Committee on Psychological Inquiry.

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DISCUSSION.

[REPORTED BY W. H. BARTHOLOMEW.]

DR. S. S. LAWS, Columbia, S. C., being introduced to the Council and invited to discuss the report, said: Having profited by the discussions of others on this and previous subjects, I am not unwilling as an honorary member, in response to this courteous request, to try to contribute something in return.

1. My first remark is this: That this topic of "imitation" appears to me to be only a special phase of the broader subject of assimilation, as it is responsive co-action. Draw the bow on a violin near a piano and its sympathetic strings will pick up the notes and vibrate in harmony. A band of instruments by being played together gradually assimilate and rectify discordances. The same is true of a choir of human voices. These instances in music illustrate a law of the material world whose operation is strikingly exhibited in the experiments of co-vibration in the physical laboratory.

2. In the next place, it is to be noticed that this reciprocity is conditioned on what is possessed in common by the related objects. The more points in common, the more extended the field of responsive action. Hence any human being has a wider range of imitation of other human beings than of any lower animals or still lower objects. There are only two modes in which our living selves manifest themselves to and through the sense; one is by word and the other is by action. We readily recognize our limitations in these respects. But we have invisible states associated with these sensuous manifestations which are just as real, and, in fact, are more strictly constitutive than they are of the personal self. Now, it is on this inner self that the die leaves its impress so as to affect all of its powers, its character and its destiny.

A mere glance at what childhood possesses in common with all human beings must suffice. If there is any one thing that the history of the human race shows, it is that every child born into this world has identically the same powers as every other child, irrespective of nationality, race, condition or color. We do not have any innate ideas, but we do have innate powers. All our knowledge is acquired, but none of our fundamental powers are or can be acquired. It does not follow, however, that these powers are, in all persons, equal in degree. To illustrate: Every one of our bodies has identically the same seven anatomical systems compactly united in functioning our organisms. Each of us has the same number of muscles and these muscles have the same origin and insertions, and perform the same functions. If the fibers are placed under a microscope, the same muscles in all human beings are seen to have the same innate structure. Yet we are very unlike in size, weight and strength. What a disparity between any one of us and some giant athlete, and we feel in no manner disparaged to be told that we are not bodily equal to even the vulgar hero of the prize-ring, a Sullivan or a Corbett.

3. As to the number of these fundamental and innate powers of mind, I have endeavored to satisfy myself and also to serve others in grouping them. I have felt constrained to dissent from the current threefold classification into intellect, feeling and will, which is very serviceable as far as it goes, though certainly quite inadequate. I have not satisfied my own mind with another classification as a substitute for this tricliotomy, but I have entirely satisfied my own mind that there are ten, and only ten, of these primary, innate fundamental powers. As yet, I arrange them in Indian file, and treat each in its order and relations. I assure you, Mr. Chairman, that I am not about to inflict that abstract on this Council.

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Allow me to explain, however, that I have here used the word "power" as a generic term under which faculty and capacity are species. I agree with those who hold that we have as many faculties as outgoing activities and as many capacities as incoming receptivities. For example: Sensation proper is a capacity, for the reason that it is a receptivity; whereas perception proper is a faculty, being an activity going out to its object, whether that object be a subject-object or an object-subject. As the soul itself is simple and invisible, so these faculties and capacities are but positive and negative poles of the same magnet.

4. Now, imitation being in its very nature a response to something abstract, it primarily calls into requisition the receptivities and capacities of the soul. This influence seems to settle in the bosom of causality and sufficient reason, and tends to produce and reproduce a progeny like itself. As our receptivity is the action of a voluntary agent, the reaction consequent manifests itself in an outgoing activity analogous, on our part, to that of the object that has impressed us. It is a transparent mistake to suppose this reaction is merely bodily and sensuous. It may be, and in most cases is, pre-eminently spiritual—religious. It is not the dress, nor the voice, nor the walk, nor the manners, but the personal qualities of the teacher which most impress the child in its growth. The same holds true of all its other associations. It takes on their beliefs and their disbeliefs, their piety and impiety and profanity, and even imbibes their false philosophy; it may be without dreaming of the vipers that may be hatched from the eggs. It takes on their emotions, and weeps with them that weep, and rejoices with them that rejoice, and curses and fights their enemies as its enemies. By like inspirations, we may rise on wings as angels or become the pigs of Circe.

5. I see no limit, Mr. Chairman, that can be fairly placed on this process of imitation or responsive co-action short of the complete assimilation of the objects brought into generic correlation. It is only in a state of stable equilibrium that transforming action and reaction can cease. The process of learning, or of any rising knowledge, is a process of assimilation. The truth itself is the proper and highest end and aim of learning and it is the touchstone and corrective of falsehood. But the truth speculatively may be defined as the conformity of our convictions to the reality of things, and, practically, as the conformity of our expressions by word and acts to our convictions. Hence, the perfect harmony of the outer and inner self and the perfect harmony of the entire self with all man's relations and environments presents a goal of rational, legitimate aspirations, from the pathway to which the limitations of time fall away and which places under requisition the possibilities of immortality—individual personal immortality—and to such an immortality I presume all in this presence would assent.

6. It occurs to me, in closing these remarks, to refer to the view that our higher powers are evolved out of, or derived from, our lower powers. If it be true that all our fundamental powers are innate, then each of one of us has them all as a dowry from nature, and no one of them is derived from the others. All of them grow up, in and from childhood, together; and the teacher has to do with them, all and severally, in the concrete at every stage of education. Moreover, from the oneness and simplicity of the very nature of the soul, of which these several powers are but specialized functions, it is the province of a solid and sound education to develop them all symmetrically, taking due account of the fact of growth from the stage of sensuous spontaneity to that of rational and accountable individuality.

DR. E. E. WHITE: I am pleased to learn that an association of specialists is investigating the subject of imitation, but I do not see that this should arrest all discussion of the subject. This is not a new subject, though now receiving special attention. New observations will undoubtedly throw some light upon the question, but the facts already known are not few or unimportant, and new facts

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are not likely to set them aside. All the facts, new or old, must be interpreted in the light of philosophy. There are three somewhat distinct phases of imitative action in school training. In the first of these phases, external reality is imitated. The child reproduces the voice or manner of another. This is the copying phase in the several arts, as in reading, singing, drawing, etc. In the next phase, the pupils reproduce or imitate ideals. Reality is modified by imagination, and an ideal is formed and this guides action. This is a higher form of training than copying. In the third phase, ideals are formed more by thought. There is, as Dr. Harris has stated in his able paper, a deeper insight into the grounds of action, its purpose, adaptations, etc., and out of these thought-materials, so to speak, original ideals are formed, but these original ideals have imitative elements. They are, indeed, a combination of thought elements and memory elements, more or less modified.

In school training it is important to lift the pupil above the low plane of mere imitation or copying, substituting for reality inspiring ideals, and more and more reaching originality. These three steps or phases appear in all true art training in the schools.

MR. HINSDALE, expressing his interest in the subject, said that he had read with attention Professor Royce's article in the "Century," and appreciated, in part, at least, the educational bearings and applications of imitation. They were, no doubt, very important, and deserved a much fuller investigation than they had received. If he might refer to a congruous subject, he would speak of the relation of originality to imitation. Both are essential factors in a living civilization. Imitation produces only sameness, only uniformity, while we want movement, freedom, progress. There must first be a pattern, or a mold; but the pattern must be thrown away when the time comes—the mold broken, or there will be no progress. What is the relation of the second element to the first one? Evidently the two are wholly unlike, although the first is preparatory to the second. Dr. Harris includes the inquiry into causes under imitation. Is not this using the word in too broad a sense? What is there that is imitation in such an inquiry? Imitation always relates to what others do, say or are. It may be accompanied by more or less individuality, but the two are essentially unlike. It appeared to him that Dr. White had fallen into a similar mistake. He makes three stages of imitation. The first two stages are imitation undoubtedly, but the third one is characteristically something quite different. Bagehot, in his "Physics and Politics," has discussed the subject of imitation as a factor in social progress, and his argument has proved weak at the point where imitation and movement come together. Mr. Hinsdale further remarked that some of the facts gathered by the students of child study seemed to him curious rather than important, and he called upon Dr. Hall, who had said that the facts collected by Mr. Russell were of immediate value to the teacher in the school-room, to formulate the educational uses and applications of those facts, so far as at present it is possible to do so.

W. T. HARRIS: I wish to call attention to the two points made in the report. First, that the opening to the study of educational psychology is very happy, because it is a sort of paradox to claim a high place for imitation. The teacher's attention will be aroused by such a claim. Moreover, there is so much of the work of the teacher that has to do with what is akin to imitation that there is a constant surprise awaiting him as he reads these writings on the psychology of that idea. In the next place, I call attention to the fact that imitation opens the view to the psychology of society, and this is more important than the other. But I admit that these writings stretch the ordinary definition of the word imitation, and make it cover phenomena which, like hypnotism, are below the imitative function, as well as phenomena which, like moral self-determination, are altogether above

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imitation. Thus, there is a literal use of the word and two quite different symbolic applications of it; for imitation literally means, what Compayre says, namely, the reproduction of what one has seen another do. But repetition of what another has suggested, or what another has impressed upon our minds without our consciousness, can be called imitation only symbolically. But such extension of meaning is very suggestive, because there is real continuity of function underlying the two phases. On the other hand, the moral repetition—or rather, conformity—is pure self-activity elevated entirely above outside influence. There is, of course, much action that goes under the name of "moral" which is mere conformity to custom or to the social ideal. But a strictly moral act is felt to be something supremely one's own, a responsibility not shared with anyone else, but a pure self-determination affecting solely one's being and not one's having. For the moral law is transcendent, commanding obedience at the sacrifice of all external consideration, and in direct contravention of all authority vested in other persons. Antigone and Socrates furnish examples of moral actions. But the Christian history of its martyrs is full of transcendent moral action. Moral action is a conformity, of course. It may be called a repetition or realization of what one sees as an ideal; and, symbolically, it is an imitation in this sense.

But, rightly considered, moral action is simply the conformity of the particular will to the consistent will of the Absolute Person. It is self-activity that does not contradict itself. "Do not let your self-activity contradict itself" is the sum of all moral law when stated in the language of psychology. That this is true may be seen in the fact that righteousness and goodness (loving kindness) are known as infallible criteria of God himself. A religion that should describe God as violating the ideals of goodness and righteousness would be seen at once to be a false religion. Philosophy would repudiate such an idea of God as impossible, for the reason that an absolute self-activity which was not both righteous and gracious would be self-annulling. Personality is essentially self-determination. It is that which abides the same even in its differences and distinctions. It is self-repeating, but such repetition is only symbolically called an act of imitation, or "self-imitation."

REVIEW OF THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF TEN.

BY DR. JAMES H. BAKER, BOULDER, COLO.

HISTORY.

In a report on "Requirements for Admission to College," made to the National Council of Education in 1891, the following recommendation appeared: "That a committee be appointed by this Council to select a dozen universities and colleges and a dozen high and preparatory schools, to be represented in a convention, to consider the problems of secondary and higher education."

In accordance with the recommendation, the committee making the report, of which the writer was chairman, was authorized to call a meeting of representatives of leading educational institutions at Saratoga in 1892. Invitations were issued and some thirty delegates responded. After a three days' session, a plan was formulated, which was adopted by the National Council. The Committee of

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Ten, thus appointed and charged with the duty of conducting an investigation of the secondary school studies, held its first meeting in New York City in November, 1893. The committee arranged for nine sub-committees or conferences, each to consider a principal subject of high school courses, and submitted to them definite inquiries. Each conference was composed of prominent instructors in the particular subject assigned. The inquiries covered such points as, place of beginning the study, time to be given, selection of topics, advisability of difference in treatment for pupils going to college and for those who finish with the high school, methods, etc. The reports of these conferences, in printed form, together with a summary of the recommendations, were in the hands of the Committee of Ten at their second meeting in New York, November, 1893. The report of the Committee of Ten, including the conference reports, through the good offices of the commissioner of education, was published by the government, and it has now been before the country for some months.

GENERAL COMMENTS.

The manner of investigation took a somewhat different turn from what was anticipated when the original report, which led to the undertaking, was made, but I do not doubt the wisdom of the plan finally adopted. The committee is confident that it would be difficult to find groups of men in America better fitted than the members of the conferences to discuss the specific subjects assigned them, and their recommendations as to choice of matter, the time element, place in the curriculum, and the best methods constitute a most valuable contribution to the educational literature of the period. In the main, they represent the best thought of practical educators.

It is not my purpose to enter into a discussion of the details of these conference reports. Each report, and in many instances, each part of the report, is, in itself, a large theme. The summary of results and the recommendations of the Committee of Ten will occupy the time allotted me.

It was expected that the report as a whole would excite much discussion and invite extensive criticism; and if no other result is attained than the sharpening of wits in controversy, the existence of the report has sufficient warrant.

It is impossible to say of any opinions that they are final, and of any methods that they are best. Some hold that the eternal verities are to be discovered in the consciousness of the few geniuses, and that obtaining a consensus of opinion is not the way to reach wise conclusions. If we are Hegelian in our philosophy of history, we shall hold to the law of development, shall believe that each stage of thought is a necessary one, that the best light is obtained by the historic method, and that the highest evolution of thought

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is to be found in the belief and practice of the advanced representatives of any line of investigation. The work of the conference was to correlate the parts of each subject by the method of applying reason to history; it was the work of the committee proper to correlate these results by the same method. Whether the committee was large and varied enough to represent all sides is to be decided by the discussions of those best fitted to form opinions.

SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS.

After a careful review of the work of our committee, I venture to make a formal list of opinions presented, most of which, I think, should be heartily indorsed, reserving till later the discussion of a few of them.

1. That work in many secondary school studies should be begun earlier.

2. That each subject should be made to help the others; as, for example, history should contribute to the study of English, and natural history should be correlated with language, drawing, literature and geography.

3. That every subject should be taught in the same way, whether in preparation for college or as part of a finishing course.

4. That more highly trained teachers are needed, especially for subjects that are receiving increased attention, as the various sciences and history.

5. That in all scientific subjects, laboratory work should be extended and improved.

6. That for some studies special instructors should be employed to guide the work of teachers in elementary and secondary schools.

7. That all pupils should pursue a given subject in the same way and to the same extent, as long as they study it at all.

8. That every study should be made a serious subject of instruction, and should cultivate the pupil's powers of observation, memory, expression and reasoning.

9. That the choice between the classical course and the Latin-scientific course should be postponed as long as possible, until the taste and power of the pupil have been tested, and he has been able to determine his future aim.

10. That twenty periods per week should be adopted as the standard, providing that five of these periods be given to unprepared work.

11. That parallel programs should be identical in as many of their parts as possible.

12. That drawing should be largely employed in connection with most of the studies.

13. The omission of industrial and commercial subjects. (This is mentioned without comment.)

14. That more field work should be required for certain sciences.

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15. The desirability of uniformity. (Not definitely recommended in the report.)

16. That the function of the high schools should be to prepare for the duties of life as well as to fit for college.

17. That colleges and scientific schools should accept any one of the courses of study as preparation for admission.

18. That a good course in English should be required of all pupils entering college.

19. That many teachers should employ various means for better preparation, such as summer schools, special courses of instruction given by college professors and instruction of school superintendents, principals of high schools, or specially equipped teachers.

20. That the colleges should take a larger interest in secondary and elementary schools.

21. That technological and professional schools should require for admission a complete secondary school education.

22. That each study pursued should be given continuous time adequate to securing from it good results.

The points of the report which I should question are as follows:

1. That Latin should be begun much earlier than now. (This is a conference recommendation.)

2. That English should be given as much time as Latin. (Conference recommendation.)

3. The large number of science subjects recommended, with loss of adequate time for each.

4. The omission of a careful analysis of the value of each subject, absolute and relative, preparatory to tabulating courses.

5. The apparent implication that the multiplying of courses is advisable.

6. The implications that the choice of subjects by the pupils may be a matter of comparative indifference—the doctrine of equivalence of studies.

7. Some parts of the model programs made by the committee.

BEGINNING CERTAIN STUDIES EARLIER.

An examination of tabulated results of the investigations of the conferences will show, that, in their opinion, the following studies should be begun below the high school:

English literature.

German or French.

Elementary algebra and concrete geometry.

Natural phenomena.

Natural history.

Biography and mythology, civil government, and Greek and Roman history.

Physical geography.

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There has been much discussion within a few years as to improvements in elementary courses of study, with, I believe, a growing tendency toward important modifications. Rigid and mechanical methods and an exaggerated notion of thoroughness in every detail have often become a hindrance to the progress of the pupils in elementary schools. The mind of the child is susceptible of a more mature development at the age of fourteen than is usually attained. There are numerous examples of pupils in graded schools, who, with very limited school terms, prepare for the high school at the age of fourteen. Under the guidance of painstaking and intelligent parents or private tutors, children cover in a very brief time the studies of the grammar school. All have noted, under favoring conditions, a surprising development at an early age in understanding of history, literature and common phenomena, a growth far beyond that reached at the same age in the school. These facts simply show the possibilities of the period of elementary education. We understand that ultimately those best prepared to judge must determine the modifications, if any are needed, of the elementary courses. Some say the courses are already overcrowded; it is impossible to add anything. It is not true, however, that by placing less stress upon a few things, by arousing mental activity through the stimulus of the scientific method, and by improving the skill of the teachers, the work suggested by these conferences may be easily accomplished. All these experiments are already old in many schools in the country.

Consider the logical order of studies. Each child, almost from the dawn of consciousness, recognizes relations of number and space, observes phenomena and draws crude inferences, records in his mind the daily deeds of his associates, and employs language to express his thought, often with large use of imagination. Already has begun the spontaneous development in mathematics, science, history and literature. Nature points the way and we should follow the direction. These subjects in their various forms should be pursued from the first. Hill's "True Order of Studies" shows that there are some five parallel, upward-running lines representing the divisions of knowledge, and that development may be compared to the encircling onward movement of a spiral, which at each turn, cuts off a portion of all the lines. If we accept this view, we must grant that geometry on its concrete side belongs to the earliest period of education; that the observation of natural phenomena with simple inferences will be a most attractive study to the child; that the importance of observation of objects of natural history is foreshadowed by the spontaneous interest taken in them before the school period; that tales of ancient heroes, and the pleasing myths of antiquity, together with the striking characters and incidents of Greek and Roman history, belong to the early period of historic knowledge; that the whole

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world of substance and phenomena that constitutes our environment should be the subject of study under the head of physiography or physical geography; that the thoughts of literature, ethical and imaginative, appeal readily to the child's mind. We may add that the tastes of children may be early cultivated, and that the glory which the child discovers in nature makes possible the art idea and the religious sentiment. The reason for beginning a foreign language early is somewhat independent, but all agree that early study of a living language is desirable.

Should we not reconsider our analysis of the elementary courses? Superintendents and teachers will find the necessary changes not impossible but easy. The sum of all that is recommended for the elementary schools by the conferences is not so formidable as at first appears.

IDENTITY OF INSTRUCTION.

The relation of the mind to a study is determined by the nature of the mind and the nature of the study, and there seems to be no reason in psychology why a college preparatory subject should be taught differently to one fitting for the duties of life. Besides, it is economy to make identical the work of different courses as far as possible. There was perfect unanimity in the opinion that the same studies should be pursued by all in the same way as far as taken.

BETTER TEACHERS.

Everyone knows that many teachers are unskilled to present in the elementary schools the beginnings of geometry, science, history or literature, and that the failures in this work are due to the mechanical efforts of those who have had no higher or special training. The demands of present methods are imperative for improved power in instruction. Science is well taught in but a few schools. I have seen, within a few months, a school which taught biology from a manual without specimen, microscope or illustrations. It was a humiliating confession of the committee that the classical course is superior, for the reason that it is difficult to find enough instructors competent to teach modern subjects by modern methods.

POSTPONING CHOICE OF COURSES.

A very important principle, recognized by the committee, is the advantage of postponing the necessity of making a final choice of courses as long as possible. In this country we have no fixed conditions of rank, and the poor man's son has the same privileges as the sons of position and wealth. Hence, the station in life is not determined by the differentiation in courses at an early period. Very

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few parents decide upon the final character of the children's instruction much before the beginning of the college period.

For these reasons, I would not agree with the conference recommendation to begin Latin at an earlier period. It would not be economy. There is enough else that belongs to the elementary stage of education, and I would not recommend a plan that is founded upon the foreign view of caste and fixed condition in life.

UNIFORMITY.

Uniformity in requirements for admission to college was the subject of the report that finally led to this investigation. Although uniformity is not prominently urged in the report of the Committee of Ten, I think that the logical outcome of the latter report will be a tendency toward uniformity. There is a vigorous conflict of opinion to-day as to nationalism and individualism, with a strong tendency, especially in education, toward individualism. In my judgment there exists a harmful slavery of the high and preparatory schools to the erratic and varied demands of different colleges; and, also, a slavery to ignorance and caprice in some schools themselves, which would be removed by a general agreement to uniformity. Men are not enslaved, but are emancipated by organization, and freedom of the individual is found in the good order of society and government. In a facetious criticism of the committee's report, by a man with whom I have had many a friendly tilt, I read the following (the writer is arguing for extreme individualism in choice of studies): "Please tell us if you and your colleagues on the conference considered any methods for the encouragement of cranks." No; for the encouragement, neither of cranks nor of crankiness; but for the encouragement of the best kind of rational education. While there are a few wise, independent investigators who need no enforced uniformity, and will not be bound by the recommendations of others, nine-tenths of the schools are largely imitators; or worse, are working independently with limited insight. And this nine-tenths would be vastly improved by adopting courses and methods growing from a consensus of the best opinions of the country. The lowest would thereby tend to rise to the highest, and from that plane a new advance could be made. Meantime, the original thinkers would be free to push forward toward higher results, to be generally adopted later. Through contact of various ideas some principles are settled, and the world is free to move on toward fresh discovery.

The selection of studies is to be determined largely by the nature of the mind and the universal character of natural and civil environments, and this fact points toward the possibility of uniformity. The period of secondary education is not the period for specializing.

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and, even if it is, there should be some uniformity in differentiation. In the United States there is a general uniformity of tradition of government, of civilization, and the educated youth of San Francisco bears about the same relation to the world as the educated youth of Boston. Hence, so far as elementary and secondary education is pursued, there is no reason why it should not be substantially the same in various schools—not in details belonging to the individual teacher, but in paper requirements and important features of methods. This is an argument for the general adoption of such recommended courses as shall be the final outcome, after free discussion, of the investigations of these conferences and of the committee.

CONNECTION BETWEEN HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

Nothing in the whole report is more important than the proposed closer connection between high schools and colleges, and this is clearly and forcibly urged. Whatever course of study properly belongs to a secondary school is also a good preparation for higher education, else either secondary or higher education is seriously in error. Whenever a youth decides to take a college course, he should find himself on the road towards it. No one can doubt that in the coming years pupils from properly arranged high school courses must be admitted to corresponding courses in higher education. The divorcement between higher education and all lower grade work, except the classical, has been a fatal defect in the past. The entire course of education should be a practical interest of college professors, and there should be a hearty co-operation between them and school superintendents and principals in considering all educational problems.

STANDARD OF PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS.

It is a fact of significance that a committee on which some leading institutions are represented, urges the professional schools of the country to place their standard of admission as high as that of the colleges; and we hope that aid will thus be given the institutions endeavoring to raise the prevailing low requirements of law, medical and divinity schools.

The reports of most of the conferences asked for continuous and adequate work for each subject, that it might become a source of discipline and of valuable insight. No doubt part of the work in high schools is too brief and fragmentary to gain from it the best results, and I regret that the committee report did not more clearly present this defect. In fact, I believe the aim should be to reduce the number of courses, the number of subjects, and the number of topics under a subject. It is not necessary that the entire landscape be studied in all its parts and details, if a thorough knowledge of the most prominent features is gained.

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CHOICE OF SUBJECTS.

In one important point I was constrained to differ from the reading of the report, as finally submitted, although the expressions to which exceptions were taken were due rather to the standpoint of the writer of the report than the resolutions of the committee. I refer to those paragraphs in which it is implied that the choice of studies in secondary schools may be a matter of comparative indifference, provided good training is obtained from the subjects chosen. This view makes education formal, without giving due regard to the content. Here are the world of nature and the world of mind. Nature, when its meaning is realized, has the same meaning for all, and in its various phases affects all in substantially the same way. The history of mankind in its various kinds and degrees of development has the same content for all. The nature of mind in generic characteristics and the universal truths that belong to the spiritual world are the same for all. Mind has the same powers in all human beings. We all know, feel and will; all persons acquire through attention; retain in memory under the same conditions, obey the same laws of association; reason, so far as rightly, from the same principles; act from motives. Men may be classed crudely according to the motives that will appeal to them. While there are infinite variations in details of men's natures, in power of insight, degree of development, methods of acquisition, predominant motives, in interests and tendencies, all persons in their growth obey the laws of human nature. Hence I argue that a science of education is possible; that it is possible to select studies with a view to their universal use in the primary development of the powers and with the assurance of superior value as revealing to man his entire environment and the nature of his being.

Mere form, mere power, without content, means nothing. Power is power through knowledge. The very world in which we are to use our power is the world which we must first understand in order to use it. The present is understood, not by the power to read history, but by what history contains. The laws of nature and deductions therefrom are not made available by mere power, but by the power which comes from the knowledge of them. Hence, the education which does not include something of all views of the world and of the thinking subjelt is lacking in data for the wise and effective use of power.

ANALYSIS OF STUDIES.

In view of this position, I would regard it the duty of the committee to analyze carefully the nature and importance of each leading subject representing a part of the field of knowledge, to the end that a wise correlation of the work of the conferences might be made.

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The study of number in its concrete form and in its abstract relations, the study of space relations as founded upon axiomatic truths, are necessary as the basis of many kinds of knowledge, as representing an essential view of the world, as a foundation for the possibilities of commerce and structures and as furnishing important training in exact reasoning. Science includes many things; but chemistry and physics, which explain the manifestations of force in the material world, biology, which reveals important laws of plant and animal life, and physiography, which acquaints us with our entire environment as to location, phenomena and partial explanation—these are connected with the practical side of civilization and the welfare of humanity, and are a guard against superstition and error. They are indispensable for practice in induction, and they should be well represented in a course of study. History, in which man discovers the meaning of the present and gains wisdom for the future, which is a potent source of ethical thought, must not be omitted. English language, as the means of accurate, vigorous and beautiful expression, and English literature, which is the treasury of much of the world's best thought, are not subjects to leave to the election of the pupil.

In addition to the training in observation, memory, expression and inductive reasoning which most studies offer, we must consider the development of imagination, right emotion and right will. In other words, æsthetic and ethical training is most essential. Secondary schools need not employ formal courses of study to this end, but various means may be employed incidentally. There are a hundred ways in which taste may be cultivated, and literature is one of the best means for developing the art idea. Moral character is developed by right habit, by the right use of the powers in the process of education, by growth in knowledge of ethical principles, by growth of the spirit of reverence and by the ethical code of religion. All of these means, except the formal use of the last, may be employed by the schools. And the ethical element is inherent in the very nature of right education. To educate rightly is to educate ethically. History, biography and literature make direct contributions to ethical knowledge.

We now reach the study of foreign classical tongues. If there is nothing more than formal training, for instance, in Latin, the sooner we abandon its study the better. But we find in it, also, a valuable content. In the process of development some phases of human possibility seem to have been almost fully realized, while the world has continued to develop along other lines. In such cases, we must go back and fill our minds with the concepts that belong to the remote period. The insight into the character of the peoples and their institutions, the concepts of their civilizations, the beauty of their literatures, the practical contribution to the knowledge of our

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own language, form an important content to be realized by the study of the Greek and Latin classics. From the foreign modern tongues, German may be chosen because of its valuable literature, its contributions to science, its dignity and its relation to the Anglo-Saxon element of our own language.

We have endeavored to show that the choice of studies is not a matter of indifference, that mathematics, science, history, the English language and literature, foreign language and art and ethics all belong to the period of secondary education, and we have tried to suggest the inference that all should be employed. The relative importance of each cannot be exactly measured, but experience and reason must guide us.

ORGANIZATION OF COURSES.

Granting that these are the subjects to be used in making secondary school programs, we must consider the time element, the most difficult problem of all. But we must grapple with it calmly and firmly, as did each of the conferences in their recommendations, and correlate, in the light of history and reason, the data given by the conferences. We must grant the possibility of certain differentiations at some points in the high school courses. For instance, pupils choosing the classical course must depart in a measure from the normal modern program.

I have placed at the end of this discussion, for comparison, tables which group subjects under the four heads named in the analysis—mathematics, science, history and English, and foreign language.

TABLE OF SUBJECTS AS ASSIGNED BY THE COMMITTEE.

The first table shows, classified, the nine divisions of subjects as assigned to the nine conferences, respectively.

The second table shows the recommendations of the conferences classified in the same way as above. Since the conferences worked separately, this table shows at almost every point need of adjustment. For the first year an aggregate of twenty-two periods per week is recommended; for the second thirty-seven and one-half; for the third thirty-five; for the fourth thirty-seven and one-half. The program-maker must either choose a few subjects, omitting other essential ones, or must adjust the time and order relations of the table. The latter appears to be the preferable alternative.

I would base the whole subject of program-making upon the relations of the child to the world of knowledge; would make mathematics, science, history and literature the foundation, and provide for the foreign languages by additions or by modifications and substitution. I would adopt the present standard for mathematics; and

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would limit the number of sciences recommended by the conferences. Arranging for convenience the studies in four parallel lines under the head of mathematics, science, history and English, and foreign languages, I would give to history and English the time of one of the four divisions. English is the native tongue and is already familiar, and English literature will be read voluntarily through life, if the taste for it and the power to understand it are acquired in the schools. History, if the right method of study be imparted and the interest be cultivated, will also be pursued voluntarily. We may allow for Latin about the usual time, and, in the classical course, we may substitute Greek for some of the science and mathematics. In case an additional foreign language is taken, it must be an extra, or the time of each line of work must be shortened, or further substitutions must be made as wisely as possible.

The table, showing the proposed arrangement of courses, is not worked out in detail. It suggests that, approximately, one-fourth of the time be given to each column; that in other courses than the classical, if a second foreign language be taken, it should be regarded as an extra, if possible; that Greek, if taken, be substituted for the science of the last two years and the mathematics of the last year. This combines simplicity of plan, identity of instruction in the same subject for all courses, and continuous and adequate work with the necessary differentiation.

In view of this discussion, I would offer the following criticisms of the four model courses presented by the committee.

1. While there is much to be said in favor of the courses as they stand, I think they lack more or less in simplicity of arrangement, in proper classification, in proportion, in continuity and adequateness of time for some of the subjects, in economy to a slight degree, and in failure to properly limit the number of studies.

2. Taking eighty as the aggregate number for each of the four courses, the proportionate number of each group is as follows:

	Mathematics.	Sciences.	History and English.	Foreign Languages.
Classical	14	9	18	39
Latin-Scientific	14	18	19	29
Modern Language	14	18	19	29
English	14	18	30	18

Except in the English course, foreign language appears to have more than its just proportion, and history and English claim a very large share in the course with one foreign language.

3. It is doubtful whether higher algebra belongs to a high school course, although it is inserted in my own scheme.

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4. The scheme for science violates the principle, so strongly urged, of adequate time for each subject. Too many science subjects are inserted. It is better to pursue four sciences, each one year, than to take twice the number, with half a year for each. If we select as the most important high school sciences, for instance, physical geography, physics, chemistry and biology, we shall see that the committee have added (1) botany or zoology, (2) astronomy, (3) meteorology, (4) geology or physiography, (5) physiology. In the second and fourth years two sciences are presented side by side. Moreover physics, the generic science, is given only three hours, no more than is given botany or zoology.

5. In two of the courses besides the classical no history appears in the second and fourth years, except as an option in the fourth.

6. Since in small high schools pupils in all courses should be taught the same subject in one class, there appears to be a mistake in that, in a few instances, divisions are made necessary.

FINAL STATEMENT.

The criticisms of the report of the Committee of Ten which I would emphasize most are these: The lack of a bold and clear analysis of the value of subjects before correlating the recommendations of the conferences; the implications that the committee favored an extreme theory of equivalence of study; practical details in the organization of the model courses.

I do not know how far other members of the committee may agree with me in any of these adverse views, nor what stand may be taken by the Council, and I feel a diffidence in taking exceptions to any parts of results, the most of which can but be heartily approved. If the committee consent, and the Council wish it, it would seem very desirable that these points be given further consideration. It would be easy to obtain by correspondence the views of a few of the most intelligent program-makers in the country, and the committee could hold another meeting at some convenient time. We must remember that a large percentage of the schools will look chiefly at the practical and formal results of the investigation; hence, the importance to be attached to the model courses. May I add that the recommendations of the conferences to introduce certain subjects in the elementary school period are worthy of the most careful and extended consideration at no remote date by a competent committee.

In closing, I wish to express my most hearty appreciation of the work done by the other members of the committee, and especially by the chairman, who took the greater share of the burden, as well as faith in the general results, which should be but the beginning of a much needed work in this country.

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COMPARATIVE TABLE OF STUDIES

RECOMMENDED BY THE CONFERENCES.

PROPOSED DIVISIONS.	MATHEMATICS.	SCIENCE.	HISTORY AND ENGLISH.	FOREIGN LANGUAGES.
SUBJECTS AS ASSIGNED BY THE COMMITTEE—NINE IN NUMBER.	5. Mathematics.	6. Physics, Astronomy, Chemistry. 7. Natural History (Biology, including Botany, Zoology and Physiology). 9. Geography (Physical Geography, Geology and Meteorology).	8. History, Civil Government and Political Economy. 3. English.	1. Latin. 2. Greek. 4. Modern Foreign Languages.
First Year. Periods 22.	Algebra 5.		History 3. English 5.	Latin 5. German 4.
Second Year. Periods 37½.	Algebra and Geometry 5.	Astronomy (12 weeks) 5. Botany or Zoology 5.	History 3. English 5.	Latin 5. German 4. Greek 5. French 4.
Third Year. Periods 35.	Algebra and Geometry 5.	Chemistry 5.	History 3. English 5.	Latin 5. German 4. Greek 4. French 4.
Fourth Year. Periods 37½.	Higher Algebra and Trigonometry 2.	Physics 5. Physiology (½ yr.) 5. {Geology or Physiography (½ yr.) / Meteorology (½ yr.)} 3.	History 3. English 5.	Latin 5. German 4. Greek 4. French 4.
	17	22	32	61

PROPOSED ARRANGEMENT OF COURSES.

(Not worked out in detail; intended to be merely suggestive.)

An average of four periods per week to be given to each column.

YEAR.	MATHEMATICS	SCIENCE.	HISTORY AND ENGLISH.	FOREIGN LANGUAGES.	ART AND ETHICS.
First Year. Periods 16 or 20.	Algebra.	Physical Geography.	History. English.	Latin.	Incidental.
Second Year. Periods 16 or 20.	Algebra and Geometry.	Physics.	History. English.	Latin. German*	Incidental.
Third Year. Periods 16 or 20.	Algebra and Geometry.	Chemistry.	History. English.	Latin German. Greek.†	Incidental.
Fourth Year. Periods 16 or 20.	Higher Algebra and Trigonometry.	Biology.	History. English.	Latin. German. Greek.	Incidental.
	16	16	16	16	

* German, if taken, to be an extra, giving the pupil 20 hours instead of 16.
† Greek, if taken, to be substituted for Science for last two years and Mathematics of last year.

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COURSES AS ARRANGED BY THE COMMITTEE OF TEN.

(Studies classified for comparison.)

CLASSICAL.

YEAR.	MATHEMATICS.	SCIENCE.	HISTORY AND ENGLISH.	FOREIGN LANGUAGES
First Year.	Algebra 4.	Physical Geography 3.	History 4. English 4.	Latin 5.
Second Year.	Geometry 3.	Physics 3.	History 3. English 2.	Latin 5. German 4.
Third Year.	Algebra and Geometry 4.		English 3.	Latin 4. German 4. Greek 5.
Fourth Year.	Trigonometry and Higher Algebra 3.	Chemistry 3.	English 2.	Latin 4. German 3. Greek 5.
	14	9	18	39

COURSES AS ARRANGED BY THE COMMITTEE OF TEN.

(Studies classified for comparison.)

LATIN-SCIENTIFIC.

YEAR.	MATHEMATICS.	SCIENCE.	HISTORY AND ENGLISH.	FOREIGN LANGUAGES.
First Year.	Algebra 4.	Physical Geography 3.	History 4. English 4.	Latin 5.
Second Year.	Geometry 3	Physics 3. Botany or Zoology 3.	English 2.	Latin 5. German 4.
Third Year.	Algebra and Geometry 4.	Astronomy and Meteorology 3.	History 2. English 3.	Latin 4. German 4.
Fourth Year.	Trigonometry and Higher Algebra 3.	Chemistry 3. Geology or Physiography. Physiology 3.	English 4.	Latin 4. German 3.
	14	18	19	29

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COURSES AS ARRANGED BY THE COMMITTEE OF TEN.

(Studies classified for comparison.)

MODERN LANGUAGES.

YEAR.	MATHEMATICS.	SCIENCE.	HISTORY AND ENGLISH.	FOREIGN LANGUAGES.
First Year.	Algebra 4.	Physical Geography 3.	History 4. English 4.	German 5.
Second Year.	Geometry 3.	Physics 3. Botany or Zoology 3.	English 2.	German 4. French 5.
Third Year.	Algebra and Geometry 4.	Astronomy and Meteorology 3.	History 2. English 3.	German 4. French 4.
Fourth Year.	Trigonometry and Higher Algebra 3.	Chemistry 3. Geology or Physiography, Physiology 3.	English 4.	German 3. French 4.
	14	18	19	29

COURSES AS ARRANGED BY THE COMMITTEE OF TEN.

(Studies classified for comparison.)

ENGLISH.

YEAR.	MATHEMATICS.	SCIENCE.	HISTORY AND ENGLISH.	FOREIGN LANGUAGES.
First Year.	Algebra 4.	Physical Geography 3.	History 4. English 4.	Latin or German or French 5.
Second Year.	Geometry 3.	Physics 3. Botany or Zoology 3.	History 3. English 3.	Latin or German or French 5.
Third Year.	Algebra and Geometry 4.	Astronomy and Meteorology 3.	History 4. English 5.	Latin or German or French 4.
Fourth Year.	Trigonometry and Higher Algebra 3.	Chemistry 3. Geology or Physiography, Physiology 3.	History 3. English 4.	Latin or German or French 4.
	14	18	30	18

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DISCUSSION.

[REPORTED BY DR. JOHN W. COOK.]

MR. WOODWARD: I appreciate highly the work of the committee. The suggestions of what shall be taught, and still more, of how things shall be taught, give the report great value. The criticism I propose to make is the one you all expect me to make, viz., that the committee left out manual training and art. No conference was appointed to report on these subjects. They were ignored in the organization. The Committee of Ten, in a sentence, granted that they had some importance, but could find no room for them.

The report seems to me to have in mind, not secondary education in general, but literary high schools and academies. The conferences are largely made up of representatives of those schools and of college men, and they discussed the proper curriculum of students now in those schools, all of whom are preparing for higher education, whether they will actually go or not. While I think they made a mistake in omitting the manual and art elements from the programs of the literary high schools, they made a greater mistake in ignoring that vast army of youths who do not go to the literary high schools at all. They took account of the ten per cent and left out the ninety per cent. I plead for the ninety per cent. They do not ask for the extended course in literature and the college course, but they do want a species of secondary training. In providing for secondary education for the next ten years, we must consider, not only those who now come, but that vastly greater number who ought to come, and who must be attracted to the secondary schools.

We, therefore, need a still wider program. I like President Baker's proposed program very well. I accept his mathematical work and his science work with no essential change. Under the head of "Incidentals," we can put manual training and art as "unprepared work." But to suit his program to all comers, he should provide an opportunity to reduce the literary work to one period per day, and so leave two periods for the missing elements. His program shows a minimum of the manual features and a maximum of the literary features. The alternative program should show a revised relation.

DR. E. E. WHITE: The report of the Committee of Ten is least satisfactory in that which relates to elementary education. It seems to me strongest in its treatment of college education, and next of secondary education. I am not a little surprised to see, that, in the course for secondary schools, physiology is postponed to the fourth year, while physiography is put in the first year. The instruction in physiology that properly falls within the high school course can be given the first year, and as to physiography there is probably only one man in the country competent to teach the subject.

But my special objection to the approval of the report is based on its incongruous and impracticable suggestions with reference to elementary instruction, and especially as the report has taken the form of a dictum. As mere suggestions they would do, perhaps, little mischief, but as authoritative recommendations they are likely to be adopted in many schools without due examination. It is true that the committee concedes that the recommendations of the several conferences are incongruous and cannot well be co-ordinated, but these recommendations are reviewed and summarized in such a manner as to add the approval of the committee. Indeed, the references of the report to elementary schools seem to be based on the assumption that the grammar school pupils are ninnies in arithmetic and philoso-

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phers in geography and history. The report seems to justify the statement, that the conferences included few men who had made a special study of elementary education and fewer who had much experience in elementary teaching.

The course suggested in English is much below the work now done in our best schools. The exercises described are inadequate for effective language training, while the tabular summary is ridiculously meager and narrow. He agreed with the suggestion that English grammar should come late in the grammar school course, but the time assigned to the study is wholly inadequate. When English grammar is reached it should have not much less than two years. It excels any other study in the course in its training in accurate thinking. It is, indeed, minor logic, with an inductive element of much educational value. The studies substituted for grammar, Latin excepted, deal with more or less uncertain facts and permit loose thinking. They are, it is true, important studies, within proper limits, but, as a preparation either for secondary schools or for life, they cannot take the place of such studies as English grammar and arithmetic. The course in arithmetic mapped out is very limited. It can be completed within the first five school years. It is true that arithmetic has been overtaught in many schools, but the committee goes to the opposite extreme. What the committee calls "commercial arithmetic" has received too much attention, but the written examinations are largely responsible for this. They have failed to make proper distinctions between the fundamental things in percentage and its less important applications, and, as a result, teachers have multiplied problems and drilled on details beyond reason. But we ought not to go to the opposite extreme. There is a golden mean here. The pupils in our grammar schools ought certainly to know the difference between annual and compound interest. Even the girls need a practical knowledge of business arithmetic. Many of them will be widows, and so will be obliged to manage business affairs, or be cheated and robbed by those who will take advantage of their ignorance.

There are not a hundred grammar school teachers in the country who can teach successfully the courses laid out in history and geography, and the courses taken together cannot be taught in any school, as the committee virtually concedes. There are many excellent suggestions in the report, but it will not do to follow it. And yet this is just what is likely to be attempted in not a few schools.

The part of this report relating to elementary education ought to be referred to a new committee, composed of experts in elementary schools, and the whole ground should be thoroughly reviewed.

DR. JAMES C. MACKENZIE, a member of one of the conferences, was invited to discuss the question. He said that the report was intended to reach the ninety-seven per cent of the boys and girls of the high school course who do not go to college. If the committee failed, it was through ignorance and inability.

He believes that a Committee on Elementary Instruction should be appointed. Such a committee would have an admirable opportunity for reprisal. If the teachers present would try the tentative programs, they would be able to make some admirable suggestions respecting them. It was indeed remarkable that the conferences had been able to reach any definite conclusions. He, himself, would have been glad to make a minority report, as President Baker had done. But public business is often managed by committees, and he had indeed wished that we had some educational popes. Do not scalp the committee. Be good to them. They submit their report, grateful to the Council, and ask its careful consideration. If this is to be accounted a failure, where shall we find success? The report devoted itself especially to secondary education, and only incidentally touched the college and the elementary school. He sympathized very deeply with Dr. Woodward, and stood for the same idea, but was voted down. The report already has been called

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the "gospel of cram." If art studies had been crowded in, what would have happened?

MR. ROBINSON of Albany, another member of one of the conferences, by invitation, took part in the discussion. He said, that while there were representatives in abundance of the academy and similar schools the typical high school had but one. There seemed to be only two or three who were really acquainted with such schools.

The most valuable thing accomplished was the fact that there were so many programs. Criticism will have the effect of correcting their evils.

DR. HALL: The report is a fine thing, and is nearly all good. It interferes with so much, however, that I am not surprised that it should meet with opposition, and yet it seems almost sacrilegious to oppose it. I heartily advise you all to vote for it.

And yet there are certain criticisms to be made upon it. The greatest objection, it seems to me, is the lack of co-ordination. The committee has dodged the most critical question. I am glad, indeed, that they did not try their hands on any more subjects.

The report was inspired by a man who believes in a mob of subjects, hence I am not surprised at the lack of organization. The report is wrong in that it advocates the doctrine of an equivalence of subjects. This I believe to be very highly pernicious. It is also wrong in asserting that all pupils should be taught in the same way. The opposite view is held in Germany and France, where it is regarded as a radical heresy. For illustration, in the subject of chemistry Northern Europe pays especial attention to inorganic elements, while Southern Europe emphasizes especially organic elements.

We should not, however, expect perfection, and notwithstanding criticisms that are to be made upon the report, I regard it as a most valuable contribution.

MR. MOWRY favored the appointment of another commiftee to consider the question of elementary education. The best men and women available should be engaged for this work. We cannot avoid the lesson of history. Education was, first, superior; second, secondary; and, third, elementary. It has always been dictated by the upper stratum, and always will be. There is, of course, something absurd in overlooking the advice of the college.

In criticising President Baker's paper, he admitted that it contained most important suggestions. Still, he did not see why everything should come in squares, as proposed by the speaker. Why can we not put in an elementary course in science? He did it by means of courses of lectures, in which the classes for three years were grouped together. He conceded that Mr. Baker's work was, of necessity, only a blocking out of the course, and perhaps that was a sufficient answer to his criticism.

MR. WOODWARD: I learn that I was misunderstood this morning. Mr. Mackenzie understood my mention of ten per cent to refer to the proportion of high school pupils who go to college.

I was not thinking of those who go to college, but the number of grammar school and district school pupils who go to the secondary school. I will illustrate: A few years ago, I found from the census reports, that there were 15,000 boys in St. Louis of high school age (fourteen, fifteen, sixteen and seventeen years old). I carefully canvassed every school in the city, having boys of that age, and found about 1,500 of these boys in school, presumably engaged in secondary education. I think we owe something to those nine boys. For various reasons, they do

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not go to the high school. At least one of them, or 1,500 boys in all, would, I am convinced, attend a manual training high school if one could be found free in the city. That is a sort of secondary education for which the Committee of Ten made no provision. Was it an oversight, or a mistake in judgment?

DR. BENJAMIN I. WHEELER of Cornell University said: In discussing the committee's report, it is essential to bear in mind that it does not, and of necessity cannot, undertake to present an ideal system. It is historically, quite as much as philosophically, conditioned, and, as such, must be criticised. It seeks to organize existing facts, and build out of existing materials. The proposed courses represent to my mind what careful, wise and well-informed, educational judgment has found to be immediately practicable in the direction of introducing order into existing chaos. But I think the outlines of an ideal may be discerned in the recommendations. Most important is the recommendation that subjects be treated precisely the same, whether taught to those intending to enter college or to those who do not. This is fundamental. It means that the secondary education shall be not merely preparatory, but a constituent part of the liberal education. It is to be so conducted that it shall not remain a hopeless torso, if the pupil fail to enter college. The higher education tends to arrange itself according to an order of progressive concentration. For instance, the classical and Latin scientific course agree for the first two years. The first differentiation occurs then, in the choice between Greek and non-Greek training. At the beginning of the college course, the opportunity of choice between certain groups offers the next differentiation, and the beginning of the third college year marks in most cases, nowadays, the introduction to specialization. The last two years of the college course represent the completion of the "liberal" education by its first application to the pursuit of a special subject. The professional and special work proper belongs to the graduate university.

We have been in confusion from conflicting methods of developing university work. One sought to create it out of the old-fashioned college by raising admission requirements and throwing the liberal training back upon the secondary schools. This followed the German dualistic idea. The other method constructed the university on top of the college. It recognized three elements in the organization of the higher education, viz., the secondary school, the college, the graduate school. This is the American solution; it recognizes the existing facts. The small college is here. It has large vested interests in endowment and in alumni loyalty. The triad system is the one likely to assert itself finally. It will leave the baccalaureate course essentially in control of the culminating stage of the liberal education.

Liberal education (or, as it is often termed, all-around education) is not characterized by fullness in the list of courses taken. The development of multiplicity of subjects in the work of the university has tended to encourage a projection of this multiplicity back upon the earlier grades of education.

This is our confusion and our great evil. It must be avoided by selection and by synthesis. The educational value of subjects is not dependent exclusively on the way they are studied, but to a certain extent upon themselves. The object of education is not so much to equip a man as to make him strong; strong in the self-directing capacity, strong to shape and create conditions, so that he may not be a slave of them.

MR ROUNDS: In treating of the subject-matter of a course of study, it should be remembered that the course is not entirely for direct culture alone, but that some subjects which cannot be pursued long enough to attain the ends of culture are yet of great value as furnishing the fundamental and essential conditions for future growth in intelligence from the experience of life. Due regard to this consideration will relieve the meagerness of many existing courses.

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It seems to me that the arrangement of studies in courses, which is common in American schools and is illustrated in the program presented by the Committee of Ten, is inconsistent with some of the principles laid down. Continuity would be aided more by the arrangement common in European programs, by which important branches, once taken up, are continued through the course, even if in the later years there be but one exercise a week. Thus, continuity of thought is preserved, and at the end of the course the pupil can easily look back over the lines which he has traveled.

DR. BALDWIN: The report of the committee is of immense value. There is one astonishing omission, however, from the courses of study recommended for secondary schools. The study of the mental economy is intensely interesting, and pre-eminently valuable to youths. It gives them an insight, which better prepares them for student life and practical life. Can we afford to send out the mass of our youths ignorant of self? Yet the report nowhere alludes to the necessity of any such study.

MR. TARBELL: This report of the Committee of Ten is a document of great value, especially to superintendents of schools, for whom it answers many questions. It is a treasure-house of good suggestions, for which we ought to be grateful. But it is not an ideal document, nor can it be adopted anywhere without modification. No one of its courses of study is practicable in any public high school.

It seems to me it will be a mistake for this Council to "adopt" the report, as has been several times suggested in this debate. Let us "receive" it, with approval of its valuable suggestions, but not put it forth as a document that represents our matured and unanimous conclusions.

One suggestion of the report, which comes with the express sanction of the one hundred men of the committee and the conferences, and which I have not heard nor seen controverted by any one except Dr. Hall in his remarks this morning, fills me with surprise, and that suggestion is, that every subject should be studied in the same way, so far as it is studied at all, by all who pursue it, whether they are to go to college, the technical school, or are to leave their school work at an earlier period. This may be convenience and economy to the school, but is not service to the pupil. The purpose for which a study is pursued, and the time to be devoted to it, must influence the selection of the topics treated under that subject and the emphasis that is given the different examples.

For example, French should be studied in one manner, if a mere reading knowledge is desired; in another, if conversational ability is the object. Latin in the class preparing for college requires one treatment; but quite a different treatment in the class using it merely as an aid in knowing the sources of our literary vocabulary. Clearly, the purpose with which a study is undertaken cannot be ignored in any scheme of instruction that is ideal or pedagogically correct.

Then, too, the plea of the committee to delay for one year beginning the study of Greek, so that the choice between a classical and a Latin course might be put off as long as possible, seems to me almost humorous, in the light of the suggestions to introduce French, German and Latin into the grammar schools, where these studies will be taken by a minority only of the pupils, and the selection of a course of study will be forced upon the pupils several years earlier than the conditions of school work have hitherto required.

PRESIDENT KING: I fear that much of the value of President Baker's paper is overlooked. This is especially true in regard to the recommendation of the paper, that the method of instruction in the different branches in the high school should be the same for those who expect to go to college and those who do not. Surely, there is great advantage in having but one method of instruction for these two

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classes of pupils. This is manifest: First, in the direction of economy, which saves the time of the teacher and the expense of the additional class; which would be a consideration of some value in all schools, and of great value in many. Secondly, separate methods of instruction require the pupils to decide at the beginning of a high school course, when they are least qualified to do so, whether they will go to college or not; whereas, if the method of instruction pursued fits for college, it gives opportunity for those at the close of the high school course to go to college who had no desire to do so at the beginning, or had not supposed it possible. One of the great privileges and duties of the high school is to stimulate towards college those pupils who might advantageously take a college course, even though they had never thought it possible or desirable. Third, the resultant advantage of different or special instruction for those pupils who do not go to college is very much less than is generally supposed. Instruction that fits for college almost equally fits for life, with the added advantage that if the pupil's circumstances or desires change, so as to make college possible, he has nothing to reconstruct in his education in order to enter college.

I believe the advantage is greatly in favor of one method for the two classes.

DR. BUTLER: In listening to the discussion of the report of the Committee of Ten, not only as it has taken place in this Council, but in other educational bodies as well, I am reminded a little of the traditional attitude of the English peasant toward a new idea. It is said that when a new idea crosses the path of an English peasant, his first impulse is to "'eave 'arf a brick at it." There has been something of this disposition on the part of some participants in these discussions. It would be a great misfortune if we were to overlook the fact that in this report we have a remarkably unanimous body of affirmative doctrine. With ninety per cent of what the report contains, we are most of us in substantial agreement. Let us not, then, unduly emphasize our ten per cent of difference; for it would be little, if any, short of miraculous, if the Council were unanimous in accepting this, or any other educational report, in the present half developed state of educational theory and practice.

Not only do we find in this report careful and systematic answers to eleven specific questions regarding secondary education, but we have the consciousness that those answers were prepared by trained and selected experts having no superiors in this country. We may take it for granted, I think, that this report will be, not the end, but the beginning of a new examination of educational values, a subject that we have neglected too long and have considered too imperfectly. Moreover, we must consider this question in the future from the standpoint of the new psychology, and from that of the new pedagogy, that insists upon the coordination and correlation of studies. In listening to what has been said concerning the educational value of grammar, and one or two other subjects, I have been reminded of that theory of psychology which would make the faculties of the mind very much like the separate parts of a telescope. First, the sensations, then the perceptions, then the memories, then the judgment, and finally the reasoning powers are pulled out from their hiding places, each separate and distinct from its fellows. I need hardly say that the new psychology provides no basis or support for any such theory as this. When we are told that any school study develops a certain faculty, we must bear in mind that it energizes the whole mental life. In other words, the mind is a unit and acts as a unit, and the faculties, so-called, are but names for the manifestations of a single energy. Let us not overlook this fundamental fact in discussing educational values upon the basis of this admirable report.

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DR. HARRIS: I think that the paper just read is admirable in nearly all of its criticisms and in its approvals. But, in the matter of natural sciences, it seems to me there is some misunderstanding on its author's part in regard to what the Committee of Ten recommended in natural science. What the Committee of Ten recommend as regards a course of study is to be found in the fourth tabular view, and there only. The greater part of the time of the committee at its meetings was taken up in forming the classical program, which is the first of the four programs there given. In the first year, three hours a week were devoted to physical geography, especially meaning by that a compend giving the outlines of the sciences of organic nature and cyclical processes. Botany, zoology, ethnology, meteorology, geology and astronomy are there given in the proper correlation. In the second year, a similar compend is given of the sciences of inorganic nature. It is called physics or natural philosophy. It gives an application of mathematics to the statical and dynamical conditions of the elements, solids, liquids and gases; to electricity, heat, light and sound. These, too, are given in their correlations. In the fourth year is given chemistry, the other branch of physics, dealing with molecules as the former dealt with masses of matter.

With these three studies, the child has gained a general view of the sciences of nature. In the other courses of study, preparing for scientific schools, or business, the science is increased by picking out certain special parts of the course that has been treated compendiously in physical geography or in natural philosophy, and devoting a half year or more to such branches as botany, astronomy, hygiene and biology. Biology, of course, is the essential part of the sciences of botany and zoology.

This special work on these parts of natural science gives an opportunity to teach the pupil something of the methods of investigation that prevail in the biological and also in the mathematical sciences of nature. A more effective handling of the scientific part of the program it would be difficult to suggest, provided the classical program had admitted botany in the third year, as a sort of re-enforcement of the study of physical geography given in the first year. I notice most of the criticisms made against this report are directed to one or more of the nine subsidiary reports, and not to any of the suggestions of the Committee of Ten. It was, of course, all-important to obtain and to offer to the public the well digested recommendations of representative committees of specialists, each committee declaring its desires in the way of matter and method, and amount of time. But how unreasonable it is to suppose that these nine partial reports devoted to special branches could be expected to be so moderate in their claims for their favorite studies and so considerate of the claims of all other branches that their respective claims could be added together without omissions or reductions.

The first part of the report of the Committee of Ten shows, in the tabular views numbered 1 and 2 respectively, the absurdity of attempting to include all that is asked. Those tables are a *reductio ad absurdum*. The Committee of Ten had no choice but to reduce and co-ordinate the claims of the several branches. This was the serious business of the committee, and it took nearly all the time of its sessions. The results of that discussion are contained chiefly in the classical curriculum, which is the first of those given in tabular view No. 4.

I wish to emphasize again, in closing, the point that the programs in that table, No. 4, are the recommendations which should be carefully investigated and condemned or approved.

WM. H. SMILEY (by invitation): It gives me pleasure to accept the invitation of your president, and I wish to return thanks for this courtesy so kindly extended by the Council to members of the conferences to participate in your deliberations. As I have listened to the discussion to-day, I have been a little surprised at the

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tendency which seems to exist to regard the utterances of the conferences as the final word upon the topics treated rather than as tentative debatable propositions. Now, as regards the Greek conference, to which I chanced to be assigned, I think I shall give true expression to the sentiment of its members in saying, that there was a feeling that our three days of discussion of the questions laid before us were insufficient to formulate adequately much that we had in mind. Furthermore, I know, that, in our report, certain points were stated with deliberate intention in the hope and expectation that they would provoke criticism, but as yet I have not seen exception taken to them.

There has been an inclination in some quarters to charge members of the conferences with a meddlesome desire to discuss the problems of the elementary school, though lacking, by association with other work, the qualifications to discuss such problems with just and fruitful knowledge of their needs. The subject of our conference was the one of which such criticism would be the most likely to be true. Yet I am sure I am right in saying that a majority of its members had at some time been connected as teachers with elementary work. The problem of the elementary school was touched in our discussions, but in no domineering spirit of unkind criticism; rather in most charitable sympathy for all engaged in working out the solution of this difficult problem.

I am in heartiest accord with this proposition to appoint a second committee, which I trust will approach this other subject in the same earnest, kindly spirit that actuated, I know, the members of the conference. I hope that teachers in secondary schools may be appointed to its membership. We high school men are as keenly interested in the character of the training that molds the pupils that come to us, as we are in settling the problem of what can best be done with this material as it comes.

I wish, also, to say how keenly I feel the force of Mr. Woodward's plea for those pupils who stop below the high school, because they do not find their powers developing with that delight which is nature's spur to self-activity. We know we ought to keep them in school, but we do not keep them there. For what reason, is a question that deserves our most careful consideration. It may be of interest to some to hear that this year sees the opening of a manual training high school in Denver, and that there is every probability that the number of pupils found in the first year of the high school next September will be greatly increased. Those who have watched the beginning lessons in laboratory work in science will know the shocking lack of training of the senses that our pupils show, and I bear most earnest testimony to the awakening power such work has upon many sides of intellectual activity.

MR. BAKER: Upon the question of considering the work of the Committee of Ten as ended, I wish to make some further suggestions, although I shall cheerfully accept whatever decision may be reached by the Council.

I have made three criticisms of that report as follows: That it lacks a bold and clear analysis of the value of studies before correlating the recommendations of the conferences; that it contains by implication the doctrine of equivalence of studies, which is rejected by a majority of educators, and was definitely voted down by the Committee of Ten itself; and that the model courses contain serious violations of important principles favored in the report.

This means more than a mere individual opinion. I have listened to public criticisms of this report in California, New York, and in other States, and the most important ones can be summed up under the three as given above.

I believe that we cannot afford to omit a rational examination of the grounds for the selection and arrangement of studies; that an extreme theory of equivalence of studies, appearing, as it does, to have the sanction of the committee, is doing a large amount of harm, and is reprobated by nearly every member of the Council: and that the model courses, with their imperfections, will be blindly adopted by

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many schools which look only to formal and definite results. At the same time, they will fail of adoption in many States where uniform courses are desirable.

These points I consider as of very high importance, and I question the advisability of discharging the committee until they have given further consideration to them.

After a discussion of the propriety of continuing the committee, a motion to receive the report and discharge the committee was unanimously adopted.

THE COUNTRY SCHOOL PROBLEM.

BY EMERSON E. WHITE, LL.D., COLUMBUS, OHIO.

It is not my purpose to deny or obscure the real difficulties involved in what is called "The Country School Problem." This is not a question of nomenclature, but a problem of school organization under special conditions.

The problem may thus be stated:

Given a school of twenty to forty pupils from five and six to, say, sixteen years of age, accommodated in one room and taught by one teacher:

To find the best possible organization and administration that the conditions will permit.

The facts that enter into the problem are (1) that the pupils possess very unequal ability and attainments, and those who, at a given time, are nearly equal in attainment, make unequal and varying progress; (2) that the pupils need instruction and training adapted to their ability and needs each successive term, and hence this instruction must have sequence, thus permitting progress; and (3) that the health and physical endurance of teacher and pupils limit the daily school session to about six hours. It is also to be kept in mind that the problem involves the providing of the best possible instruction and training, not in one branch, not merely in the "three R's," but in all the essential elementary branches.

I.—NON-CLASSIFICATION SOLUTION.

The first solution proposed makes no provision for the classification of the pupils, but each pupil is taught by himself in all branches of study. It is seen that this plan gives as a minimum as many separate teaching exercises as there are pupils in the school, provided each pupil has only one daily lesson. If only the "three R's" are taught, and each separately, there will be three times as many teaching exercises as there are pupils, and, if the three exercises for each pupil are combined in one, the length of time devoted to each ex-

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ercise must be increased. But the modern program of school instruction includes from five to seven school arts, and, in case of the more advanced pupils, several additional branches of study, as geography, English grammar, history and physiology.

It is unnecessary to take time to show that it is not possible for one teacher to instruct twenty or more pupils, each by himself, in the essential elementary branches. The number of exercises thus required reduces the length of each to so short a time that no efficient instruction is possible; and hence the non-classification solution proposed for the country school may be dismissed as impracticable. The plan of individual instruction is only feasible in a school composed of very few pupils.

We sometimes hear of the old-time country school in which there were no classes, each pupil being taught by himself, if taught at all; but I am satisfied that this school exists in the imagination, and not in history. If it ever had an existence, it certainly preceded the organization of the common school, if it did not precede any school composed of more than ten pupils. Even ten pupils under one teacher necessitate some classification to permit any efficient instruction or drill.

My father was a pupil in one of the early common schools in New England, and I was a pupil in a still more primitive school in the then backwoods of Ohio, but neither my father nor myself ever saw the wholly unclassified country school of which the present generation of teachers is hearing. In at least two of the three common branches—*i. e.*, branches common to all—the pupils in the old time school were classified. It is true that little attempt at classification was made in teaching the a-b-c's or the a-b-abs, but necessity forced an early classification in both reading and spelling—imperfect, it is true, but necessary and helpful. I now see in my mind's eye the row of big boys and girls that sat on the back seats and read together in the old English reader, and I also see the rows of boys and girls, who constituted the successive classes in spelling, standing on the floor and "toeing the mark."

No attempt was made in the first schools which I attended at classification in arithmetic, and later the attempt was first confined to the multiplication table, which few pupils perfectly mastered, and so common drills were feasible. As a rule, each pupil "ciphered" by himself, at his own gait, going to the teacher or some pupil for assistance, when needed. The fact that most of the pupils never reached fractions and fewer ever acquired much skill in integer processes, is evidence of the weakness of individual work even in such a study as arithmetic.

A few clever pupils who needed only opportunity for study, made good progress without instruction, sometimes remarkable progress,

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and this was not only true in arithmetic, but also in geography and English grammar when these branches were reached. The lack of classification in these studies was doubtless an advantage to these few exceptional pupils, but no one who actually knows the old-time country school, can commend the progress made by nine-tenths of its pupils. It is not too much to claim that its helpfulness to the great majority of its pupils was increased by improved and wider classification. I well remember the first introduction of classification in arithmetic in the rural schools of my native State. I now see the little blackboard that was first nailed to the wall of that primitive schoolhouse, for though scarcely in my teens, I was installed as teacher of the first class formed in arithmetic.

When I passed from the dignity of a pupil-teacher to the honors of a teacher, my best work for the country school was in the introduction of improved classification—not only in reading and spelling, but in all the branches taught. Nearly all of the pupils fell into groups or classes with positive advantage. Those who could work ahead with incidental assistance were permitted and encouraged to do so.

II.—THE GRADED SCHOOL SOLUTION.

Another solution proposed is the adoption of a graded course of study with term sections—the annual school session being divided into, say, two terms—the plan of grading adopted in most cities. In other words, the solution proposed is the grading of country schools with one teacher on the plan of the graded schools in cities.

It is seen that this organization divides an elementary course of study into at least sixteen sections, each including sections of the several branches, and it separates the pupils into sixteen or more corresponding grades, if there be a term interval between the grades.* The fact that the pupils in each grade study several branches necessitates as many class exercises as there are branches of study. It is thus seen that an average of three class exercises in each grade gives at least forty-eight daily exercises.

It is true that in practice there may be no pupils in several of these term grades, but the reduction in the number of classes thus occasioned will be fully offset by the fact that the pupils in several of the upper grades study more than three branches, and thus require more than three class exercises to each grade. It seems un-

*N. B.—The term "grades" is used in this paper to denote those formal divisions of pupils which correspond to the more permanent divisions in the course of study, which are separated by transitional or promotion lines. The pupils in a given grade may be taught in one or more classes in all the branches, or they may be taught in one class in some branches, and in several classes in other branches; and these classes may be changed from time to time, and without reference to grade divisions or intervals. It is thus seen that the terms "gradation" and "classification" are not used as synonymous.

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necessary to add that such a classification of the one-teacher school is wholly impracticable. I know of no successful attempt to grade the country school with a term interval between the grades.

The more common mode of grading the country school is the nominal adoption of the year or session interval between the grades. When this plan of grading is strictly adhered to, and there are pupils in all the grades, there are as many separate class exercises as there are year sections in the course of study multiplied by the average number of branches therein. This gives from thirty to forty class exercises—too many for satisfactory class instruction and drill. But in a school of thirty to forty pupils there are necessarily very few pupils in the upper grades, and none in some grades. These breaks are occasioned by the attendance of pupils only a part of the school session, by the failure of pupils to do the work assigned them, and other causes. It thus often happens that country schools may not at any one time actually contain more than five or six grades of pupils, even when they are following a graded course of study with eight or nine year sections; but the reduction in the number of class exercises thus occasioned does not make a strict adherence to this city plan of grading feasible. Hence, in practice, various modifications are made; and some of these are easily made if the school be not dominated by, and sacrificed to, the fetich called the "graded system." Several of these feasible modifications may be worthy of consideration.

1. Since the several classes are all taught by the same teacher, it is feasible to permit pupils to recite in different grades, strict grading being sacrificed to the best possible classification in each branch. Thus, a pupil may recite in the fifth grade in arithmetic, the fourth in geography, and so on.

This modification of the graded system is practicable only to a limited extent in cities, since the several grades of pupils occupy, as a rule, separate rooms and are taught by different teachers, and they are thus required to keep a common step in all the branches of the course.

2. Since the upper classes in a country school often contain not more than two or three pupils, it is feasible for a bright pupil to work ahead of his class while he continues to recite in it. Thus a pupil may be studying decimal fractions or denominate numbers while reciting with advantage in common fractions; for while these daily reviews in common fractions may give him little new knowledge, they will increase his skill in fractional processes—and skill in numerical process is the chief end of elementary training in arithmetic. Indeed, skill of some sort is the chief end of more than half of the exercises in the elementary school, and this requires repeated action. Experience shows that it is entirely feasible for capable

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pupils to work ahead of their classes in such studies as arithmetic, geography, history, etc., and that this is often successfully done with very little assistance. It is thus seen that the one-teacher school permits a happy combination of class instruction and individual work—especially in the case of bright pupils.

3. Another modification may be made in certain art studies, as writing, language, drawing and singing. For the purpose of drill in these branches, a country school may readily be divided into three classes, and these, except in music, may be taught simultaneously, as will be more fully shown later. This arrangement not only reduces the number of classes, but it greatly increases the class practice of the pupils. Nor is it found a serious objection that these classes are, at any given time, two or more years apart. These arts have phases that correspond respectively to the three psychical phases through which elementary pupils pass as they advance in the course; and the wise teacher can readily so adapt class instruction and drill to the common needs of the pupils in each phase of progress as to afford to all valuable practice. This is successfully done in many country schools.

The feasibility of these and other modifications have saved the country school in many instances from the procrustean evils that have so often characterized the graded system in cities. A clear apprehension of the difference between the two classes of schools indicates the mistake in assuming that the defects of the graded system in cities necessarily inhere in the system as practically administered in one-teacher schools in the country. The year interval between grades in cities well nigh necessitates the "lock-step" advance of the pupils. The classes are too large (or are supposed to be) to permit the teacher to give needed assistance to the strong pupils who may be capable of working ahead in any or all of the studies of a grade, and, at the same time, the interval between the classes is too wide to permit the pupils, with few exceptions, "to jump over" to the next higher grade. We have seen many city classes in which the pupils in the upper third of the class were in ability one year in advance of those in the lower third, and yet these pupils were chained together for one year, and then the only mode of relief was the non-promotion of the lower third pupils, thus necessitating their going over again an entire year's work. Thoughtful teachers know what this means. The pregnant fact is, that the year interval between the classes in elementary schools in cities is incompatible with a flexible classification of pupils. It is everywhere attended with a serious sacrifice of time and opportunity.

In the one-teacher school, the evils of the graded system may be somewhat lessened, but, after all feasible modifications have been made, the system, with even a nominal year interval between the

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grades, is not the best possible organization of the country school. The modifications permitted relate chiefly to the grading and advancement of the pupils, but the course of study must be followed. The essential thing in the graded system is the graded course of study. To abandon the prescribed sequence and co-ordination of the topics and exercises in the course of study, is to give up the system as such. But experience shows, that it is not practicable to prescribe an "invariable order" of topics and exercises for a one-teacher school. The limitations and conditions of such a school necessitate variations from the prescribed course, and hence the course of study, as well as the grading of pupils, must be flexible. System and order must often be sacrificed to the needs of the pupils and the limitations of the teacher. The adoption of well-adjusted courses of study for country schools has unquestionably resulted in great good, but the blind following of such courses in time and order has often resulted in loss. Much of the difficulty that has attended the graded system in country schools has been thus occasioned. What the one-teacher school imperatively demands, is not only a flexible and adjustable classification, but a flexible course of study.

This leads to the consideration of a third solution of the problem before us, and this may be called—

III.—THE THREE-GRADE SOLUTION.

The three-grade organization of the country school, or, if preferred, the three-department organization, is based on the psychical transitions which appear in an elementary course of training.

The first of these psychical periods includes the kindergarten and the lower primary classes, with pupils from four or five to eight years of age. This is pre-eminently the objective period of training in which primary knowledge is taught objectively, and primary skill in reading, writing, number, language, etc., is acquired by doing, largely by imitation. The reader is the only book needed by the pupils.

This is followed by say three years that may be called the transitional or middle period of elementary training. In this period pupils pass increasingly from concrete facts to their simpler generalizations; from processes to rules, and from the known to the related unknown by either imagination or thought; and skill in the several school arts is increased by practice under guidance, increasingly under ideals. The only text-books needed are in reading, arithmetic (first book), and later, geography (elementary), and these, both in matter and method, should be intelligently adapted to the psychical conditions and needs of young pupils. This is pre-eminently the fact and skill period of elementary training.

The next three or four years constitute what may be called the advanced or grammar period. The pupils have now sufficient skill

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in interpreting written or printed language, and sufficient thought power to study, with proper instruction, a complete arithmetic, a school geography, and later (seventh and eighth school years) English grammar, United States history, physiology, and the elements of natural science.

It is seen that the grading of the elementary school on this psychical basis is about the same as that secured by its division into three departments when the number of pupils is sufficient to employ three teachers—one for the lower or primary classes, another for the secondary or middle classes, and a third for the more advanced pupils.

This is a natural and simple grading for a country school with one teacher. The distinction in the work of the three grades or divisions is sufficiently marked to permit a definite statement of the knowledge and skill to be acquired in each; and, at the same time, the pupils in each grade can, from term to term, be reclassified, thus keeping the number of classes as few as possible, and, at the same time, putting each pupil where he can make the most progress.

The number of classes in the two upper grades need not exceed two each in any branch, and not more than three separate classes will be needed in any branch in the primary grade—making not more than six or seven different classes in any branch, with an average of not more than four classes in the principal branches. The grade exercises in writing, language and drawing can be given in the same period—a very important consideration, since it secures needed instruction and desired progress.

The course of study can readily be arranged on the same basis. The studies and exercises of each grade may be grouped, thus dividing the course into three well defined sections—primary, middle and advanced—and the attainments required for promotion from one grade to the next higher can be definitely prescribed. It is not necessary to divide the course into year and term sections with a prescribed order of subjects and parts of subjects for each term, as is often done in graded courses for cities. There should be a general order or sequence in the course, but the teacher should be left free to form classes with varying intervals between them, and the progress of each class should not be fixed by a time schedule—as is sometimes done in city schools with many teachers. To reduce the number of classes in a given grade, it may be necessary to take up parts of subjects in a different order from that laid down in the course of study, and no two classes may make equal progress.

The essential provision is that the work provided for each grade be completed as a condition of promotion to the next higher grade. This will establish a clear distinction between the several grades,

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and, at the same time, it will allow that flexibility of classification between grade lines which is essential in a one-teacher school.

It is not meant that pupils shall be stopped at the line that separates two grades until they have reached the standard in all branches of the lower grade, as is generally required when a school is divided into three departments, each under a separate teacher and occupying a separate room. In a one-teacher school pupils may and should be permitted to pass a grade line in any branch when they are prepared to do the work of the next higher grade. In practice, it will be found that most pupils can with advantage cross the grade line in all branches at the same time, but this result should not be forced.

THREE-GRADE PROGRAM.

A course of study on these three psychical grades of work and attainment makes a three-grade program of class exercises and seat work both feasible and desirable.

I have elsewhere presented such a program with a full statement of its uses and advantages in a one-teacher school. It must suffice to insert the program here (page 677) with a brief explanation.

This program indicates not only the class exercises, but also the study or seat work, the class exercises being denoted by boldface type and the study or seat work by common type. The day session of the school is divided into periods of twenty, twenty-five and thirty minutes each, the spelling drills in the two upper grades being considered one period; and the teacher's time is divided equitably among the three grades of pupils. The A grade pupils have eight exercises each day, the B grade pupils six exercises, and the C grade pupils five; but, as is seen, the A grade pupils have two more studies than the B grade, and the B grade pupils have one more study than the C grade. The extra time required to prepare and direct the seat work in grade C will make the time devoted by the teacher to this grade nearly, if not quite, equal to that devoted to the B grade.

A rural school of some thirty pupils will probably have two classes in several branches in the A grade, two classes, one or more branches, in the B grade, and possibly three classes in the C grade; making in all some seven different classes of pupils. The time allotted to any branch (as arithmetic) in a given grade must be divided between the several classes (if there be more than one class in the grade), but not equally from day to day, the time devoted to each class depending on the nature of the lessons. One day the upper class in grade A in arithmetic, for example, may have only ten minutes and the lower class fifteen minutes, and the next day this may be reversed. What the program requires is that the several exercises do not together exceed the time assigned to the grade. Writing, language and drawing in all three grades are to be taught simultane-

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ously in the same period. The inexperienced teacher may not see how this can be successfully done, but the apparent difficulty has been solved in hundreds of schools.

THREE GRADE PROGRAM.*

Closing Time	Minutes	Primary (C)	Secondary (B)	Advanced (A)
9:10	10	OPENING EXERCISES		
9:35	25	Seat Work †	Arithmetic	Arithmetic
10:00	25	Number On slate or with objects	Arithmetic	Geography
10:25	25	Number	Geography	Geography
10:45	20	Form Work Paper folding, stick laying, etc.	Geography	Geography
10:55	10	RECESS		
11:15	20	Silent Reading	Geography	Grammar
11:35	20	Reading and Spelling	Form Work Map drawing, sand molding, etc	Grammar
12:00	25	Excused from School	Reading	Grammar
		NOON INTERMISSION		
1:10	10	†	†	†
1:30	20	Form Work Clay modeling, paper cutting, etc.	Reading	Reading
1:50	20	Silent Reading	Seat Work †	Reading
2:10	20	Reading and Spelling	Animal or Plant Study	U. S. History or Physiology
2:40	30	Writing[2] or Language[3]	Writing[2] or Language[3]	Writing[2] or Language[3]
2:50	10	RECESS		
3:10	20	Number On slate or with objects	Spelling	U. S. History or Physiology.
3:35	25	Drawing,[2] Singing,[2] or Moral Instruction[1]	Drawing,[2] Singing[2] or Moral Instruction[1]	Drawing,[2] Singing,[2] or Moral Instruction[1]
3:50	15	Excused from School	Spelling	Spelling
4:00	10		Arithmetic	Spelling

†As may be provided for by the teacher.

NOTES.—The small figures at right indicate the number of lessons a week.

United States history may be taught the first half of the session, and physiology the second half; or each branch may have two lessons a week.

On Friday the last twenty-five minutes may be devoted to instruction in hygiene, temperance, physics, natural history, etc.

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The most hopeful improvement of the country school lies in the adoption of a simpler grading than that of the city school, a more flexible classification, with opportunity for individual study and progress, and a workable daily program. It needs system, but not rigidity—an elastic system, adapted to its conditions and limitations. The danger is that the rural school may be sacrificed to rigid grading, as has been true in so many cities. What the country school needs is not a procrustean system of grading and promotions, but such an organization as will permit its single-handed teacher and diverse pupils to make the best possible use of time and strength.

It is idle to talk of abandoning all attempts to improve the classification of country schools. Attempts at classification in reading and spelling are as old as the school itself, and classification in other branches has attended, if it has not made possible, most improvements that have been made. The disappointments have usually been due to unwise attempts to introduce into rural schools the rigid graded system as developed in the cities. Such attempts ignore conditions and limitations.

It seems wise to add here that the one-teacher school will not permit a perfect organization. It has necessary limitations and, after the best possible has been done, it will still have its imperfections. It is, however, my belief that the teacher of a country school, if competent, has some advantage over the teacher of the "highly organized" city school. It is certainly possible to make the one-teacher school a most valuable agency for the elementary education of children.

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KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.—ASBURY PARK, N. J., WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 1894.

The department met in Educational Hall, Wednesday, July 11, at 3 P. M.

In the absence of the Secretary, Miss Anna Stovall of San Francisco, Cal., Miss Mary L. Loder of Philadelphia was appointed Secretary *pro tem.*

The meeting was called to order by the Vice President and Acting President, Miss Constance Mackenzie of Philadelphia, who expressed deep regret that the President, Miss Susan E. Blow of Avon, N. Y., found it impossible to be present. Miss Blow had sent a letter of greeting to the assembly, which was read by Miss Mackenzie.

In her capacity as Acting President, Miss Mackenzie delivered the opening address.

Miss Caroline M. C. Hart, Director of the training class of the Baltimore Kindergarten Association, was prevented from attending the meeting by the railroad strikes. Her paper on "The Psychology of Froebel" was not read, but was made the subject of a running commentary and discussion by Dr. W. T. Harris, Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

Mrs. L. T. Newcomb, Inspector of Kindergartens, Hamilton, Ont., then followed with a paper upon "The Related Development of Morality and Intelligence in the Kindergarten Idea."

This subject was discussed by Mr. Henry W. Blake of Springfield, Mass., editor of the "Kindergarten News."

A paper was then presented by Miss Sara E. Wiltse of Boston, Mass., entitled "What Can the Kindergarten Do for History and Literature in the Higher Grades?"

The discussion of the afternoon was closed by Mr. William E. Sheldon of Boston, editor of the "American Teacher."

SECOND SESSION.—FRIDAY, JULY 13, 1894.

Miss Constance Mackenzie occupied the chair.

The President read the following report of the Nominating Committee.

The Committee on Nominations respectfully submit the following nominations for this department of the National Educational Association for 1894 and 1895:

President—Miss Lucy Wheelock, Boston, Mass.

Vice President—Miss Mary C. McCulloch, St. Louis, Mo.

Secretary—Miss Agnes MacKenzie, London, Ontario.

MISS SARA E. WILTSE, Boston, Mass.
Chairman Nominating Committee.
MRS. L. T. NEWCOMB, Hamilton, Ont.
MISS SCHLEPPEGRELL, Charleston, S. C.

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Mr. Sheldon then moved that the report of the Nominating Committee be adopted as read, and the Secretary be instructed to cast the ballot for the department. This motion was carried; the ballot was so cast, and the nominees were declared duly elected.

The first subject presented was "Essential Principles of the Kindergarten," by Miss Angeline Brooks, Director of the Kindergarten Training College for Teachers, New York City.

This theme was discussed by Mr. A. W. Rankin, Superintendent of Schools, West Superior, Wis.

The President regretfully reported the absence, due to the difficulty of travel during the railroad strikes, of Miss Mary C. McCulloch, Superintendent of Public Kindergartens, St. Louis, Mo., and Miss Anna Laws of Cincinnati, Ohio.

Miss Lucy Wheelock, Principal of the Chauncey Hall Kindergarten Training School, Boston, Mass., was then introduced in her double capacity as a speaker of the day and President-elect for the ensuing year.

After a few graceful words of acceptance Miss Wheelock delivered an address on "The Ideal Relation Between the Kindergarten and the Primary School."

Mr. Wm. Sheldon of Boston opened the discussion on this subject. He was followed by Mr. B. C. Gregory, Superintendent of Schools, Trenton, N. J., and Mr. F. Hinckley of Northampton, Mass.

Mr. Sheldon introduced Superintendent Gilbert of St. Paul, who closed the discussion.

The meeting was then adjourned.

MARY L. LODER,
Secretary pro tem.

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PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS.

LETTER OF GREETING TO KINDERGARTNERS ASSEMBLED AT ASBURY PARK.

BY MISS SUSAN E. BLOW, PRESIDENT OF DEPARTMENT.

[READ BY MISS CONSTANCE MACKENZIE, ACTING PRESIDENT.]

It is a great disappointment to me that I am unable to meet you at Asbury Park, and give you by word of mouth my cordial and affectionate greetings and my congratulations upon the happy auspices under which you assemble this summer.

The rapid expansion of the kindergarten within the past few years and the generous recognition it has received from the leading representatives of our public school system, open a future of rich possibilities. To avail ourselves of the opportunities offered us we need clear insight, tireless energy and unfailing devotion. If we throw away this opportunity, we shall deserve the reproach justly meted by the poet to the cowards who make great refusals.

It has been well said that the decisive battles of the world are fought in the intellect. To know exactly what we wish to do is the first condition of finding out how to do it. Nothing is more evident to anyone who reads Froebelian literature than that its ideals are vague and ill-defined. No one can observe the work done in kindergartens without realizing that it is too often both formal and vacillating. It seems to me, therefore, of the highest importance that the representatives of the system assembled at Asbury Park should carefully consider, thoroughly discuss and clearly define the kindergarten ideal.

Is the object of the kindergarten to administer sugar-coated pills of useful information? to give the rudiments of manual training? to teach the Pestalozzian elements of number, form and language? to leave the child, as some of Froebel's so-called disciples claim, to the "uninfluenced development" of his own individuality? Or did Froebel write the "Mother-Play" and found the kindergarten in order to point out the ways and means of fostering the child's activity, nurturing his sympathies and inflaming his imagination with rational ideals?

Upon the answers given to these questions will depend the validity and efficiency of the work done in our kindergartens, and, therefore, the permanency of the kindergarten as an educational appliance and an integral part of our public school system.

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PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

BY MISS CONSTANCE MACKENZIE, PHILADELPHIA, PA., ACTING PRESIDENT.

It is a matter of deep regret that to-day's kindergarten session must begin and end without the presence upon this platform of our honored president, Miss Susan E. Blow. It were especially fit, as the end of an eventful year, that the woman who stands as the greatest American representative of the kindergarten system and as its most subtle and philosophical exponent should to-day gather together the fruits of that year begun last summer in Chicago.

It is to her we turn for the earliest evidence in this country of the kindergarten as a public educator, and, a quarter of a century after the planting of the seed in St. Louis, it is to her we turn again for our most profound and original treatise on the philosophy upon which the St. Louis work was builded; the philosophy embodied in Froebel's "Mutter und Kose Lieder." The rare excellence of the book, with its remarkable insight and its grasp of principle, together with the simplicity of its practical application of principle, make "Symbolic Education" a handbook henceforth necessary in every kindergarten training school. Nor can any graduated kindergartner afford hereafter to regard it other than as one of the indispensable trio of book-mentors.

Now, of all times, we are desperately in need of such basis-forming literature upon early education.

We went to the World's Fair with a hunger for experience, that through experience we might know. We were schooled in lessons objective and subjective. We attended the remarkable congresses. Through them many of us began a process of development, individual and many-sided, by way of open-minded attention to foreign modes of thought. We found ourselves illuminated by the new side-lights of thoughts hitherto considered familiar. We became strong with the mental and moral vigor born of personal contact. The inevitable and inalienable relationship of each to all pressed upon us with the compulsion of a new truth. Impressions crowded, influences multiplied, possibilities accumulated. The sturdy purpose to do more and to be more, stirred impetuously in the thousands upon thousands, who saw more in the great fair than an assembly of things beautiful and strange.

This was a year ago. We saw things then at close range. But now, at this distance, the mass of impressions begins to adjust itself; like assorts with like; classes form; these break up into smaller classes, until finally the material reduces itself to order and we can

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decide how we may best use it as a working factor in the progress of formulated education.

In the Department of the Kindergarten it seems not unfitting, in our first national meeting since last year's prolific summer, to ask: What has the World's Fair done for us?

It has created an interest in the kindergarten movement that has resulted in making at least the name familiar where before it was scarcely known. This is no small thing, when regarded as an indication. I well remember, in the early days of the free kindergartens in Philadelphia, with what explanatory care invitations to the children to attend kindergartens were presented to the parents. It was rare for a mother to know what a kindergarten was, even in name. I don't mean to say that the World's Fair has done it all. Before 1893 there was, of course, a far more extensive knowledge of the movement than in those earlier years; but we owe it to Chicago that the name has at last penetrated backwoods and villages, carrying with it an interest sufficient to excite question as to its meaning.

This partially satisfied curiosity of the meaning of the name is abundant capital to the kindergarten movement. Early child-training being theoretically recognized as a desirable thing, it is entirely in keeping with the human constitution that it should at once be practically demanded. The result is that here, there and everywhere, boards and individuals, public and private, are bending their energies to the establishment of kindergartens to a degree unprecedented.

In these two conditions of wider-spread information and of ever-increasing kindergartens we grasp the elements of success—a success contingent, however, upon the use to which we put it. The material philosopher may say that "nothing succeeds like success." But there is in that specious proverb a deeper untruth than the superficial truth it offers. What is to count with us as success? Surely not mere numbers of kindergartens! not unintelligent popular favor! And, taking it for granted that the success we labor for lies upon a plane higher than material prosperity, by what shall we estimate its accomplishment? It is to the children we must look for the gauge of our success or failure. It is the extent of their well-being that measures the extent of our well-doing.

A child's well-being demands, first, that through wisely provided and wisely eliminated conditions his hopeful tendencies, which are threefold, shall be encouraged, and those that are unhopeful shall find no scope for exercise. It demands, furthermore, through channels individual and social, that his affection for what is good in things and persons shall be actively educated. Moreover, it requires that he shall learn through his educated affection and intelligence his place and responsibility as server and served. It insists, also, that

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he shall be permitted to live himself out in the freedom of order; acting, under law, as his nature urges; thinking, under law, his own thoughts; being, under law, the ethical, moral and spiritual being that the divinity within and without intended him to be.

When thousands of children from hundreds of kindergartens take with them in their beginnings sturdy bodies; a sense of relation among their little knowledges; unprejudiced, loving, open minds; aspirations for the good as it comes within the compass of their years; then, indeed, shall we have a right to feel that our success is free from failure.

How is it with us now? Is it reasonable for us to expect such results from an impulsive popular demand for the kindergarten, unattended by an intelligent comprehension of what is genuinely educative?

It may be worth our while to consider that question before going further. Many of the people upon whom is urged the necessity of the kindergarten—school managers, who themselves know it only in its superficial aspect—introduce kindergarten gifts and occupations, as a system of busy work, for a class of children, place at the head a teacher untrained in kindergarten philosophy, and immediately we hear that "the public school board of such-and-such a place has introduced the kindergarten into its primary grades!" The phrase, you will observe, is not unfamiliar. In that community, thereafter, the conception of the kindergarten is so far falsified that it stands for a manipulation of material, valueless in itself—for songs, for games. All that makes for true development, all purpose and unity, all that is philosophical and psychological is eliminated.

As long as such false standards are tolerated, as long as such vital misconception remains rooted, as long as the kindergarten is solely a place associated with the mental image of sewing-cards and weaving mats, building-blocks and square-ruled tables, just so long is a true estimate of the kindergarten, as a system founded upon universal principles, impossible. And to the extent that we permit such estimate to remain impossible will the "success" of the World's Fair opportunities prove utter failure.

The rapid extension of this work makes it important that the source shall be pure; therefore, let us look to the training schools. If there be one condition that may be confidently counted upon as the concomitant of an increase in the number of kindergartens it is that of a prompt supply to meet the demand. If the demand be only for what is genuine, if no kindergartner be accepted who does not fulfill the highest requirements as a trainer of children, there will, of course, be no temptation to uncultivated women to attempt to enter a field in which they will find no opening. But if the condition in

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many places be such as I have outlined, can we doubt that so-called "trainers" will promptly establish themselves in so lucrative a business, and turn out, at so much a head, as many "graduates" as offer themselves with enough money to pay for their course? "Will you please tell me how to open a kindergarten training school and what books to use?" is the tenor of half-a-dozen letters a year, as all of us can attest, I doubt not, whose work leads us into the public places of kindergarten effort.

With such dangerous possibilities staring us in the face as a consequence of mismanaged opportunity, we may well begin gravely to consider the work of kindergarten extension. The kindergartners of today are a body of sufficient weight, dignity and importance to stem the tide of misapprehension. It becomes a question of the influence of the individual and of the co-operation of individuals. Every unit in the great body of kindergartners-at-large must feel and use her double power as a whole and as a part in a whole. The responsibility becomes personal as well as social. And, in addition, we look to the organized effort of the International Kindergarten Union to exert itself effectually against an encroachment of the threatening evil.

Ignorance and greed must be compelled to give way to enlightenment and disinterestedness. The education of the many in kindergarten doctrines may be in a measure assured by good literature wisely distributed. Furthermore, a united and unswerving protest must be raised against the over-hasty establishment of kindergartens, and all attempts to lower the standard of requirements of young women attending training schools must be opposed. This is the work of organization. But it is, also, in minor measure, the work of each individual within the organization. Her own personal estimate of the kindergartner's profession, her points of view, her breadth of thought and freedom from prejudice, her attitude towards the educational question, create around her an atmosphere that others must perforce breathe in.

It is a law of the human mind that retarded progress shall accompany moral satisfaction. It is a hopeful sign that in the past we have not been satisfied with our accomplishments. Let us not be satisfied now, nor accept as success the apparent and outward, for the real and inward. May the "divine discontent" brood over us unceasingly, that, "out of the nettle, danger, we may pluck the flower of safety."

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THE RELATED DEVELOPMENT OF MORALITY AND INTELLIGENCE IN THE KINDERGARTEN IDEA.

BY MRS. LEONTINE T. NEWCOMB, HAMILTON, ONTARIO.

The problem of determining the exact relation of intellectual to moral culture is one which has perplexed man's minds from the days of the ancient Greek philosophers to the present day. Hegel says "the end of all education is ethical;" hence, there can be no plurality of ends in education. We can no more train a child in a multiplicity of directions than we can so train a tree. We talk of "mental, moral and physical" education from the very complexity of the nature to be trained, and often imply the separation of these; but the true educator ever holds to the idea of educational unity as a process, and views man, as Montaigne puts it, "It is not a soul, it is not a body we are training up, but a man, and we cannot divide him."

The supreme end to which all else must be subordinate is briefly expressed as the formation of character. Character is a term often used to denote peculiarities of mind, whether intellectual or moral, and whether showing themselves as innate tendencies or as the result of experience and education. In a more accurate sense, it signifies the acquired results of individual volitional exertion, such as intelligence, insight and firmness of will, and has come to denote from an ethical and educational standpoint moral attainments as the most valuable result of such energies. This determines at once what we will teach, as well as what we will try to lead the child to do, so that instruction as well as guidance and training may have a moral aim. This implies an intimate connection between knowledge and conduct, the latter being an attempt to realize a desire that has been accepted as a motive for action. Volition constitutes a man, and Aristotle says "Volition may be termed either reason that desires or desire that reasons." In impulse we have blind action as well as blind desire. Impulse, lifted to consciousness, creates intelligent desire, or desire that takes account of itself; and Froebel's philosophy has its starting point in the recognition of the necessity of instincts that are the foundation of impulses merely viewed on the emotional side, which are to lead to the rational through the intimate connection of love and desire. The truth of this identification has its foundation in the fact that whatever one likes one also desires to possess, and that the constant arousing of right impulse strengthens right desire to act in the right direction.

We may then assert character to be simply organized and systematized will, and, on account of the interdependence of will and intel-

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lect, organized knowledge is a potent factor in the formation of character.

Character, good or bad, is the outcome of action which is customary or habitual; and, it is often said, moral character is "a bundle of habits"—of human duties, as obedience, industry, justice, courtesy, etc. It is also significant that the words "ethical" and "moral" both have a common origin in words signifying customs or habits, and while recognizing their importance as referring to an established disposition in the right directions, we must, at the same time, acknowledge that habitual and mechanical pursuance of duties, without subordination to a supreme end or ideal that includes the determination of choice, shows no perfection of character.

Choice is the selection of a certain end of action and the identification of self with it, and is, what Herbart calls, "apperception practically directed." We are told "apperceiving in will is bringing to bear the organized centers of ability and desire upon the presented impulses, and is connected with the acquired results of past experience;" hence, it follows that the relation of character to choice is not only reciprocal, but choice becomes the expression of character.

One can do much for another, but the act of choice belongs to oneself, and the kindergarten constantly affords opportunities for making a choice in conformity to a general law, that pervades every influence about the child, and is present in everything with which he comes in contact. He soon comes to see all things in reference to law, and regulates his desires accordingly, which develops self-control that means freedom in its highest sense.

The psychical constitution of the child being the seat of his desires, all that is soul-inspiring helps his sense of moral obligation; and the appeal to act in and through an abiding interest settles character, which in turn finally decides the emotional bent of the individual along pleasurable lines that produce satisfaction in right doing, which acts as a reserve force against temptations to wrong doing. In the kindergarten, the child never receives abstract or didactic moral teaching. He is rather shown by example within the scope of his own experiences what is right; and this experience is connected with his social relations, as well as with his love of nature in its animate as well as inanimate phases. Sympathy and love, social and natural, are much more effective in securing right conduct than fear, regard for authority, or reverence for law. The solution of the problem rests in the cultivation of these right feelings, which may be relied upon to impel right action.

We find in the kindergarten idea not only the purpose, but the execution which is as necessary to complete volition as the formation of the purpose, and Froebel's whole system, when rightly understood,

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is a process of realizing this purpose. His purpose is to develop what is instinctive activity; not a formation or creation of new and artificial ones. He supplies ends which call out the fullest manifestations of these instincts, as well as the regular and constant means and appliances in his methods of working towards these ends. In the external arrangement of Froebel's appliances he surrounds the child with a mulitiplicity of special materials and influences that reinforce his natural instincts and insure an expression of them. These surroundings become aids for development, not only in organization, but in administration, and consequently are good servants but very bad masters.

The mechanical appliances, such as gifts and occupations, are tributary to the child's expression of an inward thought or feeling, and all mechanism is only instrumental as a means to an end which is best described as "renunciation," or "the abandonment of the external as a condition for attaining the highest development."

In the songs, games and stories of the kindergarten we have the phases that make a direct appeal to the emotional nature of the child. All knowledge is dependent on feeling. The mind may know what does not arouse emotion, but it is superficial knowledge unless transformed into interests and personal feeling. The growth of imagination inspires the æsthetic feelings, and the love manifested by the children for songs and stories of the good, the true and the beautiful in nature and in art, suggested the songs, stories and games that Froebel bequeaths to the children as food for mental and spiritual power, more than for the acquisition of a certain number of facts. The administrative ability of the kindergarten in this phase of the work becomes a potent factor in the development of the moral and intelligent nature of the child, in so far as she herself realizes the importance of its psychological bearing.

The games of the kindergarten are grounded on the social feeling of which sympathy is the highest form. Love rises out of this sympathy, and what began in purely a natural instinct of sympathy—merely on a physical side, in bodily movement in co-ordinative activity—reaches out to an ethical sympathy which is the source of all moral groups or communities. For instance, the family life, depicted in the favorite games of bird and animal life, as well as the more subtile life of the plants and flowers, made up of distinct personalities, yet with a common good and common purpose underlying each group, symbolize a need that is felt in every member of those large communities of institutional life, such as society, church and state, which are historically and philosophically the expansion and continuation of the family.

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In the stories of the kindergarten, the child's imagination is illumined and his desires strengthened by the presentation of images for the mind to dwell upon, which in turn excite the wish to make them real in his own life, and impel him to produce corresponding realities in his own activities. Socrates said: "Beauty in the inward soul makes the outward and the inner man one;" again: "The deeds attained by great souls become the ideals towards which lesser souls strive," and may draw the sympathies in the direction of inspiration at least for higher and heroic living. By these means, the child learns to know what are the types of character which elevate the race, and lift the standard of ideals to a measure at least of earnest endeavor on the part of the human soul. This may be termed one of the indirect phases of kindergarten training, as imagination is grounded in feeling and grows, not by the conscious following of methods or by formal study, but by unconscious steps. This activity of the mind is higher than memory, because not only are images recalled but new combinations are made of these images; or the mind creates them altogether, and invests what is common and familiar with a new light of truth and beauty, so that the world produces its master-minds of creative power in a Raphael, a Phidias or a Dante. The little embryo artist in the kindergarten repeats the process on his own plane, and Froebel's watchword is "Create! Create!"

In the "talks" and "conversations" with the children, Froebel would develop that greatest of all powers of expression—language, without which there could not have been any advance in the intellectual life of man. Dr. Harris says: "To know words and their meanings is an activity of divine significance. It denotes the formation of universals in the mind—the ascent above the 'here' and 'now' of the senses, and above the representation of mere images, to the activity which grasps together the general conception of objects, and thus reaches beyond what is transient and variable."

We see the importance of the point in method that requires the telling of what has been done, or of putting into words the action of the mind and hand in all the exercises of the day, besides the opportunity afforded in the "morning talks" of the kindergarten. If language is "the criterion of immortal individuality," how important a factor it becomes in education, and the right use of it cannot be commenced too early. In the conversations the mother holds with her child in the "Mother Play-Book," Froebel epitomizes the philosophy of all talks with young children in the home and kindergarten, and formulates the principles which should govern the use of "talks" with little folks.

The kindergarten, dealing as it does, or should do, with that period of the child's life between infancy and childhood, which is,

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by its very nature, a wide gulf extending from the mother's knee to school life, solves the problem for all time of the best means for developing the moral feeling which is to link itself to intelligent thought. Being an extension of home influence, it becomes a factor in the growth of the childish sense of duty that finds an atmosphere consistently and uniformly impelling it to action. It is a great thing for the child to be in an environment of permanent and unalterable law that spurs him on to action, till he himself becomes that law by internalizing it.

The kindergarten vitalizes and reflects this law in a living personality, capable of guiding the little ones and enlisting their sympathies in one whom they come to regard as the embodiment of truth, love and right action.

O'er wayward children wouldst thou hold firm rule,
And sun thee in the light of happy faces,
Love, Hope and Patience, these must be thy graces,
And in thine own heart let them first keep school.

The training of the moral faculty includes the habitual exercise of the sympathies, together with the intellectual powers that stimulate the child's mind and soul to activity, through work, play and example, in the different phases of the kindergarten system. This community of love with law should "pour on him soft influences, sunny hues, fair forms and breathing sweets in melodies of words and winds and waters, till he relent, and can no more be a jarring and a dissonant thing amid this general dance and minstrelsy."

DISCUSSION.

MR. HENRY BLAKE of Springfield, Mass. — Anything which helps in the development of character tends to morality, religion, holiness. In general, we cannot hope to reach the soul and move it to right action without first quickening the intellect. Therefore, we who stand for the kindergarten and work in the kindergarten cannot place it on too high a plane or claim too much for it. We do not assert that it will prove a panacea for all the ills that flesh is heir to, but we do assert that it is a very potent force in the development of character. It accomplishes this development, first, by taking the child out of himself, which is a very important matter for him, whether he live on Nobility Hill or in Slumville. And when the kindergarten has borrowed the child by taking him out of himself, it pays the debt by throwing him back on himself, by cultivating his self-resources. In a word, it helps to eliminate selfishness on the one hand and augments self-reliance on the other.

While, as Mrs. Newcomb's paper suggests, abstract and didactic teaching on morals is absent from the kindergarten, the children do get very positive ideas of the loving Father, of his wonderful works, and of their duty to each other.

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In the kindergarten we always need to remember that passage of scripture which Froebel heard during his first day at school and which he acknowledged to be the key-note of his life. "Seek ye first the kingdom of God and all these things shall be added unto you." New crises demand new weapons with which to meet them. We need the kindergarten in this country to-day more than ever before. Of course, we cannot expect that an exposition on the seventh gift will quell the mobs that are now menacing Chicago and the whole land. But, so far as the future is concerned, if we can have the opportunity of making the kindergarten universal, we feel safe in guaranteeing that such riots as these will be unknown to the coming generations.

WHAT CAN THE KINDERGARTEN DO FOR HISTORY AND LITERATURE IN THE HIGHER GRADES?

BY MISS SARA E. WILTSE, BOSTON, MASS.

A little child three years of age looked out upon one of our most beautiful snow storms last winter and said to me: "See what a beautiful world God is making for us to-day!" In order to lay the foundations for future interest in history and literature, the child must be trained to just that attitude of thought concerning the present time. No one, let us hope, looks to the teaching of dates and rhetoric in the kindergarten, but there may be, and there should be, cultivated that unvarying trend of feeling toward life in all that touches the child heart which shall make his thought spring as a fountain to its highest level in some such perception of the processes of God's activities in the world as that child felt when he exclaimed: "See what a beautiful world God is making for us to-day!"

Children too often approach the study of history with minds entirely paralyzed concerning its connection with the present time. Heroes lived; great events took place; 1492 and 1776 are dates to be set in memory like 9x2 and 7x6. Kindergartners are often called unpractical idealists. No attempt will be made to enumerate all the names we have been called, but sentimentalists and worshipers of a "gift and occupation" fetich make us wince most—not indeed from a sense of guilt, but from that sickness of heart caused by a misunderstanding shared alike by a small number of our superiors and our inferiors.

The topic of this paper will cause a little thrill of surprise in some minds, if not an open exclamation of doubt as to whether the kindergartner's province extends so far beyond straws and papers, blocks and tablets. We hate above all things to seem to claim too much of ourselves, or to masquerade as Jack Horner; but since the question embodied in the subject of this paper was assigned to me

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for answer, I must, for the hour, stand for the whole body of kindergartners as a teacher of history and literature. I will even venture to change the wording of the subject from "What can the kindergarten do?" to "What is it doing in these directions?"

The kindergarten has the same legal holidays as the public school, with one great day added, that of Froebel's birthday. First in the calendar of the school year comes Thanksgiving Day. Long before the day arrives the kindergarten becomes primitive New England. The story of the festival is not only told, but often dramatized, and not content with past and present—allow me to speak with local pride—our representative idealist, Miss Pingres, has added to the literature of Thanksgiving a story which keeps alive the best expression of a thankful heart; so that I doubt if a Boston grammar school child, having had kindergarten training, will ever come to the study of the early American struggle with the elements with his heart quite dead to the deepest meaning of this our national holiday.

Of the Christmas festival it is quite needless to speak.

Coming to the February holiday all the kindergarten thought is centered about Washington. Here let us pause long enough to massacre (figuratively, of course) that blasé abomination among educators, who is moved to scornful smiles when we tell the ever new and delightful story of the hatchet and the cherry tree. Ignoring his scoffs, we will continue to introduce the father of his country to the children as the lovable little boy, with heart aflame with truth and virtue, at which their own heavenly fire is rekindled. We do not have the boy like a bit of statuary grasping the scroll, which bears the memorable words "I cannot tell a lie," for the children to put away like a mummy with their clay modeled hatchets and stick laid cherry trees. Far from it. The child grows before their eyes. They have entered into his life from its center, and brave deeds and heroic manhood must become its circumference. They make flags and fold paper boats and soldiers' hats. That painted ring which you see in every kindergarten is the Delaware river in February, and the little boats laden with heroes cross and recross it day after day. Unwarranted suggestion of bloodshed and battle do you say? No! to the little child these are naught, for the deeper meaning has him in its grasp and his prophetic heart beats—feeling, though not consciously knowing, that out of humanity's great throng God is now and evermore calling upon his heroes to stand forth.

For the sake of the relation between birthday festivities we will pass to the kindergarten celebration of Froebel's natal day. Here we have our great opportunity for unifying our elements. Does anyone in this room know the scorching sense of unpopularity and bitter loneliness of the child that feels itself a foreigner in speech and dress —in thought? Can you coax the little child who has mastered the

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"good morning" of the majority to say "guten tag" to you even in a whisper? I had a reticent little pupil struggling with English who would not speak a word of German to me even from his father's knee. The native tongue was seldom untied in my kindergarten. Once, indeed, when a new arrival from Switzerland swallowed his needle instead of stringing straws with it, there arose a cry of "Stuck nadel! Stuck nadel!" from every German infant in the room, except the one upon whom I was performing a surgical operation which could not be delayed for a lesson in language. But so great was my delight with this sudden speech that I contemplated encouraging such episodes.

But the birthday of our German hero gives us the great opportunity. Now we may bring our foreign flags and twine them with the stars and stripes about our kindergarten father. Now we may coax our timid child from foreign shores to sing some national air, and now we may weld the countries and times so that when the children tell the story of the day to older brothers and sisters, they shall feel the brotherhood of mankind, and the movement in history by which God is making for us and with us a beautiful world.

Is literature forgotten? It is a hundredfold simpler in its appeal to children than history. In fact we must present history by the literary method, making of it a poem or a story. The kindergarten, like the world, is not yet made; it is in process of growth. What shall the literature of the kindergarten be? My own convictions are too strong for any weak feeling upon this subject. As to historical stories we are agreed. But there is a realm of child nature which, because it so seldom needs cultivation, is too often deserted without an effort at training. There are children, however, with so little imagination that it takes great care and patience to stimulate them into average mental activity. In the same kindergarten with these are bundles of quivering, floating—yes, even flying—ideality and imagination, which, unless turned into some deep channel with high banks, or set some boundary of mountain peak or blue sky, will defeat the very deepest purposes of the Giver of our best intellectual possession—our imaginative faculty.

The material for mental food is not lacking. Heaven be praised! it cannot be exhausted, for if every book and page of myth, fairylore and fable were burned to-day, out of the hearts of the children the phœnix would rise to mourn.

It is at this stage of the child's development that we must foster his feelings with reverent care. Do not ignore the sense of mystery; do not assume to understand the whole creation and attempt to make the child think it is not worth puzzling over. Has he not within himself that gift of transformation whereby he may pass through keyholes, touch the stars or walk at will beneath the deep

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seas? Dr. Hale tells a pretty story of his two-year-old child offering to move the piano—a very common instance of the superiority of mind and will over the tiny body in which it is housed; but would you dare to thrust upon the child your conviction or fear that the soul would be forever hampered by the machinery of the body?

The main obstacle in the way of the teacher of literature in the higher grades is in the crippled imagination of the pupils and in the dry heart of the teachers. We are falling into short-hand methods, and if dry rot has not touched literature itself it has attacked some teachers and is being communicated to the children. Let us go back to the life-giving myths, though some of us will need to bathe seventy times in that Jordan before we will be fit to touch the hand of a little child.

We are, however, divided in opinion about the selection of myths, and we disagree upon the method of presenting them. As we must resort to the literary method of teaching history, so must we use the historical method in teaching literature. We should not only say "Once upon a time," but "Once upon a time people believed," or "Some people still believe." We should also take care not to use in kindergarten what properly belongs in the primary and grammar schools.

There is enough mythology connected with the sun, moon, stars, and kindred subjects, which is not run into the later and grosser mold of the murderous wolf, or devouring sea monster, or any other tragic form, for an entire course in nature myths which should cover the kindergarten period.

I have been making some searching inquiries into the minds of grammar school children of late, and when I find one who has no more poetic notion of the starry heavens than that afforded by a piece of blue calico with white polka dots, I feel that, in one instance, at least, kindergartner, primary and grammar school teachers have alike missed an opportunity for the highest good that can be conferred upon the child. Let us rebel against routine, if routine is to blame; against our own apathy, if that is responsible; but let us not impute it to the child. We build our blocks over her head in kindergarten, befuddle her brain with our books in school, rob her of her birthright.

Our other girl's mind must be outlined in one of its phases. She is fourteen years old, and when asked what she believed about thunder, asked with charming frankness if she should tell what she really thought or what her teacher told her? She still believes, as in earliest childhood, that it is the moving of sky furniture.

We may continue our pouring of verified facts upon these immature minds with frequent results of that kind. Would it not be better to give them time to assimilate instruction, letting them roam the world of myths and fables until myth and fable shall have done

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their appointed work? Many will object to the historical method, but we must face our dangers.

Science, with its inexorable laws, its fascinating presentation of eternal truths, has almost throttled our legends and for a time benumbed our poetic instincts. There are great literary works rightly called roots. To these we must go with the child. Miss Harrison has shown us how we may give the very pith of Dante's great poem to the children; Miss Burt brings Plato and other great philosophers back from the icy heights to which they have been banished by unsympathetic and would-be miserly souls. It is a shame to reserve Homer and the "Odyssey" entirely for later reading. Tell the children some of these classic stories, and see how eagerly they take them, notwithstanding the disordered mental stomach which is already rejecting the namby-pamby stuff served up under the head of juvenile literature.

Stories from "Hiawatha" are absorbed and assimilated in some kindergartens, and it is from these that the higher grades will be supplied with pupils whose demands will exceed the supply of any teacher who depends merely upon notes and abstracts.

There are many teachers and parents who refuse to tell a story that is not as they suppose absolutely true. They say—and with great force—"I was told that Santa Claus filled my stockings at Christmas, that fairies tended the flowers and Jack Frost drew the pictures on the window panes. When these were revealed to me as untruths, my whole soul was thrown into a tumult of doubts and fears about other things which I had been told were true. What about the great primal laws of right and wrong? Were they, also, fables? My mother told me about Santa Claus with a manner as truthful as that with which she taught me that lying was an offense to God."

We are not unacquainted with these doubts which beset boys and girls, and even men and women, at critical periods in their development. Do we want them to approach history and literature in this spirit of doubt? How may we prevent it? I believe by the historical method. The child will enjoy his story none the less because it is something once believed. We need not trouble ourselves to hammer this into his head any more than we do about hammering the moral into his heart. Such noise of the workman's tools are an insult to the child, no less than to the Being to whom we dedicate our temples. We must respect the proportions if we would not rouse indignant or stubborn opposition on the part of the child.

To review briefly: In history, we would foster hero worship, patriotism and international fraternity. In literature, we would go to classical sources, giving the child stories which were developed and cherished by the race in its childhood; not, however, making the fatal mistake of treating him as if he had no advantage over the

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ancient Greek, but recognizing his position in the nineteenth century as in advance of the greatest among these.

From the ancient poets, philosophers and myth-makers we may select enough which is of imperishable value to furnish the kindergarten pupil with a substratum of living interest in literature, which will abide with him even when he has passed beyond the gates of the university, giving him an unvitiated taste in manhood, so that he will return again and again to the purest fountains, having come to understand, what in childhood he but dimly felt, that in all expression of ourselves, whether in history or in literature, we are working together with God in making this a beautiful world.

DISCUSSION.

WILLIAM E. SHELDON of Boston, editor of the "American Teacher," spoke briefly, by invitation.—I congratulate the department that such a meeting, with such able papers setting forth so sound a philosophy, is possible in the present epoch of education,—a combination which would have been impossible a few years ago. A philosophy like this sets every fiber of my being on fire. In view of the present opportunities for doing good along the line of childhood's literature, who shall dare to present a depraved thought to the mind of a child? And yet it needs great wisdom, exceeding grace, and intimate knowledge of the child's soul to know how to administer these things. We must first have the sound philosophy, and, second, we must so live as to personally apply that philosophy. Each kindergartner must say to herself: "I live to train the children of America along the line of spiritual development."

ESSENTIAL PRINCIPLES OF THE KINDERGARTEN SYSTEM.

BY MISS ANGELINE BROOKS.

Nearly seventy years ago there was published in Germany a book entitled "The Education of Man," of which, until about ten years ago, there was no English translation. This book, written by Friedrich Froebel, contained statements of general educational principles which, about fifteen years after the publication of the work, took definite form in the kindergarten system.

The first chapter, entitled "Groundwork of the Whole," opens with expressions "grand and solemn as a confession of faith." These are the words: "In all things there lives and reigns an eternal law. * * * This all-controlling law is necessarily based on an all-per-

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vading, energetic, living, self-conscious, and, hence, eternal unity. * * * This unity is God. All things come from the divine unity, from God, and have their origin in the divine unity, in God alone. God is the sole source of all things. In all things there lives and reigns the divine unity, God."

The book abounds in practical suggestions regarding the application of this law here traced to its source. In one place Froebel says: "Never forget this: it is not by teaching and imparting a mere variety and multitude of facts that a school becomes a school, in the true sense; but only by emphasizing the living unity that is in all things. He says: "The aim of instruction is to give the pupil an insight into the unity of all things; how they live, move and have their being in God, for the purpose of applying this insight to practical life and work." Again, he defines the schoolmaster as one who is in a position to demonstrate the unity of things.

Froebel declared that he had, in the kindergarten, given to the world a system of education, and that it was the application of the law thus announced which made his system a system; and, therefore, in looking for the essential principles of the kindergarten we have only to consider what is involved in such application.

The first thought is that of the relation of all things to the Divine Being, the center of the universe. Without this thought all other thoughts are necessarily disconnected and unrelated. It was to be expected that a scheme of education worthy of this new age would be based upon this centralizing idea. Nothing grander is possible. Nothing less than this would meet the demands of our times. Above everything else and including every other thought is that of man's relation to God. All other educational ends find their place and true meaning when considered with reference to this central idea. Seen in the light of this thought, this material earth becomes a schoolroom of preparation for the immortal life that is to follow.

It will be seen that Froebel at once lifts education to the highest plane. He says he sees in every child a possible angel, and he, therefore, ignores class distinctions and mere temporary expediences, and utterly repudiates the dwarfing system that fits the human being merely to earn a living within some given calling or profession. He declares that each human being is a distinct thought of the divine mind, and that he has an inherent right to conditions that will insure his highest possible development—a development whose ultimate realization will be union with the Divine One. Froebel's own words are: "The object and end of all education is the union of the individual soul with God," and the value of his system will never be realized until this thought, expressed and reiterated in all his writings, becomes central in all educational work. Creeds and dogmas

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are not involved in his grand educational system. He was too great a man to limit and prescribe in the narrow ways of the theologians.

Froebel was a Christian evolutionist. He saw that God works on every plane, whether of mind or of matter, in orderly unfoldings, that which is first in purpose being always the last in fulfillment. He saw in the works of God everything progressing by regular steps toward an ever fuller and more complete expression of the divine mind, until, in the ascent, man appears, the crowning work of creation, "but little lower than God," as the new version has it. With such grand conceptions of the possibilities of each human being, he necessarily rejected the old ideas of education as consisting in mere instruction, and based all his methods on the idea of development. He said: "I separate instruction from development very sharply, and it is a discrimination of the greatest importance. The instructed mind may be compared to a river which flows round the cliffs and impediments, narrows and widens according to necessity, crooks and bends, and skillfully and smoothly creeps to the ocean. Such a stream, hedged in by cliffs and impeded by rocks, is not adapted to commerce; it loses its idea, its aim—for the aim of the living flood is to be the means of culture. The developed man is like a stream whose powerful rush demolishes the rocks, levels the hills, pulses like a great vein through the earth, drawing thousands of cities to its brink, and tracing out the highway of commerce and culture."

From within outward is the law of all growth, and the kindergartner rejects the idea of mere external limitations and instructions, and seeks to produce those inner conditions from which the healthy fruitage of a good life will follow in orderly sequence. Too much stress cannot be laid upon this idea of development, for, with the most correct theory, we are all in danger of remaining in bondage to the time-honored methods of instruction. In insisting upon obedience to the law of development, Froebel is following the central thought stated at the outset as the groundwork of the whole. The Creator works like himself on every plane. "First the blade, then the ear, after that the full corn in the ear," is the law of the divine order whether in the realm of spirit or of matter.

Froebel constantly uses the expression "mirror of nature," and always insists upon the idea that the natural world is the embodiment of spiritual truth in material form. These are his words: "All natural phenomena are the signs of spiritual truth to which they give expression: thus they may be called symbols." Again he says: "It is quite a different thing whether we look upon concrete things and facts as merely material,—the things and facts serving this and that outward purpose,—or contemplate them as the outward forms of spiritual contents, as the intermedia of higher truths and higher knowledge."

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The symbolism of material things must be recognized by educators before the true meaning and use of the study of nature can be apprehended.

About twenty years after the publication of "The Education of Man," Froebel produced that remarkable book, "The Mother-Play and Nursery Songs," and declared, that whoever should understand it would understand what he was aiming at. Two thoughts furnish the key to the book, each of which involves the idea of unity, or relation. These thoughts are, the importance of infancy—the germ-stage of existence—and the symbolism of all material things. This book is intended for the use of mothers as a guide in the training of the very youngest children. Froebel constantly uses the term "life-chain," and declares that the first link of that chain—babyhood—should be made strong enough to bear the strain of after life, emphasizing the idea that each human being is, at any period of his life, the product of all his past. Evidently the new education will not have its fullest development until all who have relations with children, during and following their earliest infancy, practically apply Froebel's principles. Kindergartners know only too well that the characters of little children are already well established before they enter the organized kindergarten, tendencies and habits of thought and feeling being already largely formed.

Recognizing thus the unity of the individual life, let us turn to the second of the thoughts referred to as furnishing the key to "The Mother-Play and Nursery Songs," a thought which I have already enlarged upon, namely, the symbolism of material things and the symbolism of human relationships. For the mother, there is prefixed to each of the plays contained in this book a motto, which embraces the central thought of the play as Froebel conceived it. In nearly every case the use of material things as symbols of spiritual truths is emphasized.

Froebel said: "If we wish to foreshadow fundamental truths to infant minds, we must present them in symbolic forms, and also devise some means for enabling the child to give them symbolic expression," and, ultimating this thought, he has given us the "Kindergarten Gifts and Occupations" as types or symbols of the entire material universe. These are embodied in three forms, namely, the sphere, the cube and the cylinder, spoken of technically as the "second gift." In his use of the word "gift," in this connection, Froebel is making an application of the law which we are considering. He recognizes reverently that the whole world is a school-room equipped by the Great Teacher with loving gifts of objects suited to aid in the development of the human race—the pupils in the school of life. The gratuitous furnishings of the great school-room of the world, he epitomizes in the three forms just referred to, and calls them "kindergarten gifts." The object of these gifts is to furnish

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the child the key to the manifoldness of things. They are all based upon geometry, as the material universe is based upon geometry, and in their development they epitomize the industries and activities of human life, thus relating each kindergarten child to the race of which he is a unit.

Involved in this idea of the unity of the race is the social idea, the duty of the recognition of which is one of the essential principles of the kindergarten, and included in the idea of social training is the education of the heart which Froebel always places before the training of the intellect. To train the child to love the right is an inexpressibly greater work than to train him merely to know the right. As one has said: "If I know the right I may do it, or I may not do it; but if I love the right I must do it."

All the theories we have been considering are reduced to practice by means of the activity of play in the songs, the games, and the industries of the kindergarten, the prescription of the details of which, in forms adapted to the very youngest children, being the highest proof of Froebel's genius.

In conclusion, the essential principles of the kindergarten, as here presented, may be thus summarized: These principles are all based upon the application of Froebel's educational law. Obedience to this law involves the religious idea—the recognition of the Divine Being as the center of the spiritual universe—and this thought, brought down to the plane of material things, requires us to keep the sun at the center as the starting point for all true natural science.

Nature is regarded as a mirror in which spiritual truths are reflected, and the law of development, or evolution, which is universal in the lower kingdoms, is accepted as the law of the growth of mind.

All material things are symbols of spiritual truths, and the gifts and occupations are selected symbols—a key to the manifoldness of things, which in their use epitomize the industries and activities of the world.

Human life is a continuous whole from earliest infancy onward, and the first period of it—the germ-stage—is a period of vital importance.

Humanity is an organism, and the individual develops as the race has developed. The members of the body of humanity are vitally related to one another, and social education is necessarily involved.

The human being is a unit, the head, heart and hand are given each their due consideration.

The activity necessary for the carrying out of these theories is that of play—the natural activity of childhood and the heaven-ordained means for its development.

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Froebel's motto, "Come, let us live with our children," furnishes the one thought essential for all who would be true kindergartners. A possible translation of the sentiment of this motto, and one which indicates the spirit of Froebel, the apostle of childhood, is, "Come, let us live, children."

DISCUSSION.

[REPORTED BY MISS MAY MURRAY.]

MR. A. W. RANKIN, Superintendent of Schools, West Superior, Wis., said that Froebel's system of education is difficult of introduction in public schools for various reasons; one of them being that teachers who are candidates for such places are not always fitted for their position. There is also a difficulty in the matter of religious teaching. We need to be reverent to carry out the kindergarten principles. Take that of unity, for instance. To teach the idea of God to a little child is a delicate matter, and there is great need of development in this direction on the part of kindergartners, because the problem of training the child in accordance with the principles of the system is a difficult one. Teachers should endeavor to secure such legislation as will enable the State to take charge of the child's education at four years of age, rather than at six, which is the age prescribed by law in many of the States, as from three to five is a distinct period of the child's life to which the kindergarten, with its occupations and materials, is especially adapted. It is a mistake that the average teacher, in trying to give instruction in the principles of geometry and other branches, is too much inclined to the scientific method which she learned through her secondary education, rather than to the symbolic methods which are chiefly used in the kindergarten system. Teachers rely too much upon the gifts, and to a certain extent they are abused in kindergartens, as, in introducing the kindergarten material, the symbolic character is not always properly recognized. While the theory is right, the material is not always assimilated—a fact which makes all vague to the child. He said he would like to see what a kindergartner would do without the gifts, and what would happen if she should undertake to teach the child out of doors and in the woods with all the materials which are ordinarily so carefully provided thrown one side.

In the social relation the teacher should consider the need of communities in connection with her work. She has a great opportunity to enlist general interest in that work by organizing mothers' classes, and in various ways arousing their enthusiasm for the welfare of the children. Thus, by interesting the community in the child life, and the child life in the community, a very important part of her mission is accomplished.

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IDEAL RELATION OF KINDERGARTEN TO PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

BY MISS LUCY WHEELOCK, BOSTON.

[ABSTRACT FURNISHED BY THE AUTHOR.]

The law of all growth was proclaimed many years ago by the Great Teacher, who first illustrated natural methods of teaching. "First the blade, then the ear, then the full corn in the ear," is nature's method of development. For the plant there is no abrupt transition from one stage to another. The same process of receiving, assimilating and giving is continued from the blade to the full corn in the ear. The same forces are at work. The principle of life is constant and continuous. The perfection of the fruit is conditioned by the perfection of the plant at any stage.

The law of growth for mind is no other than that of the natural world. Activity and continuity are necessities for the full expression of life anywhere.

The ideal relation of the kindergarten to the primary school is only possible when the guardian of each looks upon her particular stage of school life as a part of a continuous process, and plans her course from the standpoint of universal principles of development. Mutual knowledge is necessary. The primary teacher must recognize the essential principles of the kindergarten, and, on the other hand, the kindergartner should understand the demands to be made upon the child when he reaches the next stage of his school growth.

Visits among relatives and family festivals serve to strengthen the feeling of relationship and the spirit of unity. Perhaps the greater knowledge and sympathy that such friendly intercourse brings might help to establish the ideal relation between the kindergarten and the school. The celebration of festal days by games and songs, in which the kindergarten and primary children unite, would certainly strengthen the bond of peace. The primary teacher who bases her work upon the universal principles of growth, as illustrated in the child garden, is certainly no stranger there.

Self-activity, as the law of all life, is to govern physical, intellectual and moral development. The kindergarten games, which allow of perfect freedom of movement and of joyous expression of the inner life through the outward activity, furnish a hint to the primary school of the best method of physical training for the little child.

Set gymnastics tend to repression, to monotony and barrenness —and do not pertain to the child at the stage when constant movement is a necessity and the power of motor control may not be gained without too severe a nervous tension. As regards intellectual de-

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velopment, the child must still be considered from the standpoint of his activity. To know the world is his first necessity. He takes possession of the world through his eyes and ears and hands. He has other faculties than memory. He has imagination and a desire to compare and to reason in simple fashion. He is still in the primary school at the stage when Froebel would name him "*ein auge*" (an eye), so keen are the perceptive powers.

"The mind is to grow, not like a vegetable, fed by a kind of etymological compost, but like spirit, by mysterious contact of spirit." So says the sage Leufelsdrockh. To behold, to listen, to wonder, to transform, this is the need of the growing mind. No memory drill, no imposition of facts, no "busy work," can supply these needs. Guidance, material, spirit, are demanded to lead the full, inflowing life outward from "blade to the ear."

The same principle of self-activity holds in moral training. This child is to become a moral freedman, not a slave to his own and others' caprices. He is to be led to impose his own *must* upon himself. Literature and history furnish ideals which are to be used to lure the child towards his higher self. The school-room, like the kindergarten, must give occasion for the daily practice of the virtues which are to be acquired like other arts, by their exercise. Hence, there must be due freedom and a development of the power of self-control.

When there is a wise recognition of this principle of life in both kindergarten and school, then there can be no break and no lack of harmony between them.

Life unifies everywhere. Disintegration begins only when the life principle is gone. "And life you've granted you develops within." Education is an unfolding. From within out, is the purpose of this unfolding. The primary school continues the culture of the kindergarten, and both look to the complete revelation of the full corn in the ear.

DISCUSSION.

[Reported by Rev. F. A. Hinkley.]

At the close of Miss Wheelock's address, Mr. Wm. E. Sheldon of Massachusetts said: The ideal relation between the kindergarten and the primary school requires for its realization the ideal kindergartner and the ideal primary teacher. There are some in both ranks who are not ideal, because they have not had proper training. A true kindergartner puts good training into active exercise. I want to emphasize the importance of self-examination by every one proposing to become a kindergartner. I want to say, also, that special training is as necessary for the primary teacher as for the kindergartner. Those who lack such training ought never to be allowed to set foot in a school-room. If the whole atmosphere of the

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kindergarten and the primary school could be properly created and maintained, we should have true men and women in this country in the future.

SUPT. R. C. GREGORY, Trenton, N. J., described his experience in attempting to apply kindergarten principles in his school. He thought partial introduction of kindergarten work proved a failure, and he had found that abstract psychology was not popular with the teachers. They were more ready to accept principles in their applied form. He gave a very interesting account of how he interested a company of teachers in Froebel's "Education of Man," and how through that he worked up to the idea that the program for the day should take into account the individual as well as the mass. As the outcome of it all, he said, he had a class of young ladies who believe in the psychology of the kindergarten with all their hearts. His teachers gave up thirty Saturday forenoons to the study of the kindergarten. It was his judgment that grammar as well as primary school teachers are interested in finding the significance of the kindergarten philosophy.

REV. FREDERICK A HINCKLEY of Northampton, Mass., said: The three words most needed in the industrial world, all along the line in the educational world, and concerning the way of bridging the chasm from the kindergarten to the primary school are these: Unify, conciliate, co-operate.

No thoughtful student can help observing the break between the kindergarten and the primary school. The time has fully come when a determined effort should be made to secure such harmony between the two as will make them homogeneous parts of one orderly system, based upon child study and sensitive to the child's needs. How are we, then, to harmonize—unify—the two systems? The first step is to cultivate the spirit of conciliation and co-operation between kindergartners and primary school teachers, between kindergarten authorities and public school authorities. A kindergartner who assumes she can learn nothing from the primary school and a primary school teacher who assumes she can learn nothing from the kindergartner, are in an unpromising mood to begin the harmonization needing to be done. The live primary teacher of to-day has her eyes and her ears open. She has felt the broadening influence of Froebel's thought. The live kindergartner of to-day knows that it is quite possible to sacrifice the kindergarten spirit to the letter; and that Froebel did not say the last word. As a school committee-man, compelled to look both ways, I am not only sure the kindergartner can tell the primary teacher something; I am equally sure I know primary teachers who can tell kindergartners something.

I think it not infrequently assumed that there is nothing to arbitrate, and so long as that is the spirit—if it ever is the spirit—so long it will be impossible for meetings of kindergartners and teachers on a mutual basis of truth-seeking and serving. I want, most of all things, to see those who represent these two branches of effort with little children, studying intelligently together each other's work, learning thus wherein that which precedes needs to be conformed to that which follows; and wherein that which follows needs to be conformed to that which precedes. Were I arranging the program for this great association of teachers, I would provide, if I could, for an occasional joint meeting of adjacent departments to consider their relations with each other. We want right here, do we not, to have this section and the elementary school section in a common meeting for the contemplation of this problem from the two points of view.

The instrument of technical education in this country is, and must be, the public school system. Ultimately the kindergarten must everywhere become an integral part of that system. That system already exists. The better work of the future is to come, not through substituting some other system, but through the constant uplifting of what we have toward the best ideals. I would say to all concerned: Don't be too critical of each other. Study each other's ideals, and you will have taken the first step toward that unification of aim, method, spirit, which is one of the great and grave demands of the hour.

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DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 12, 1894.

The department was called to order by the Secretary at 3 P. M. in the First Presbyterian church.

The President, Mrs. Rebecca D. Rickoff, New York City, being absent in California, and the Vice President, Supt. Aaron Gove, Denver, Colo., being in Europe, the Secretary, Supt. F. Treudley, Youngstown, Ohio, took the chair, and Supt. James McGinniss, Owensborough, Ky., was elected temporary Secretary.

It was moved that a committee be named by the Chair to nominate officers for the ensuing year.

On motion, Mrs. Mary H. Hunt, representing the work of Scientific Instruction in Temperance of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, was invited to address the department with regard to her work. She said that, in the light of recent events, it was more clearly seen than ever before that law and order and temperance must go hand in hand. I come to ask you to set a good example to anarchists—that of obedience to law. She referred to a map of the United States, showing that scientific instruction in temperance was compulsory in some measure by law in every State but five. These laws are on the statute books; it remains for the teachers to execute them. She pleaded for a recognition by the National Association of this work.

Superintendent Warfield, Covington, Ky., moved that this department suggest that one hour be given for a paper on this subject and discussion thereon at the next annual meeting. Supt. William A. Mowry moved to amend by suggesting an additional session for the consideration of this subject. The motion as amended was carried.

Supt. Charles E. Gaton, Yonkers, N. Y., read a paper on "School Boards and Superintendents."

Superintendent Gaton's paper was discussed by William G. Bruce of Milwaukee.

The Chair announced as a nominating committee Mr. C. W. Cole, Albany, N. Y., Miss Dutton of Cleveland, and Mr. Fisher of Massachusetts, to report Friday afternoon.

Supt. Edward G. Ward, Brooklyn, New York, read a paper on "A Few Changes in Elementary School Instruction." Discussion was opened by Supt. W. C. Warfield, Covington, Ky.

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kindergarten and the primary school should be properly correlated and harmonized. We should have some idea of what is done in this respect in the future.

Supt. R. C. Gregory, Trenton, N. J., described the experience of attempting to apply kindergarten principles in the school. He thought partial success of kindergarten work in the school was to be had, and he had found that almost every child was to be profited with the kindergarten. They were more ready to accept instruction than others. He gave a brief description of how he introduced a kindergarten in the lower grades of Trenton, and of the difficulties that he encountered in the idea that the principles of the kindergarten should also be applied in the primary as well as the kindergarten. As the outcome of it all, he said he had a class of young boys who learned to the best of the kindergarten plan of doing things. His teachers gave up their Saturday's pleasure to the study of the kindergarten. It was his judgment that principles as well as practice should be introduced in order the satisfactory results of the kindergarten plan should

Dr. Richard G. Boone, of New York City, said: The time was this morning in the discussion when it was time to draw the line between the kindergarten and the primary school. The time has come when a distinction of this kind must be made. It seems to me that the kindergarten is a place where children are taught to play with other children. It is a place where children are taught to play with other children. It is a place where children are taught to play with other children. It

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SECOND SESSION.—FRIDAY, JULY 13, 1894.

The department met at 3 P. M., with Superintendent Treudley in the chair.

The report of the Nominating Committee was presented and read. The following were nominated and elected as officers for 1895:

President—Supt. F. Treudley, Youngstown, Ohio.

Vice President—Miss N. Cropsey, Indianapolis, Ind.

Secretary—Supt. W. C. Warfield, Covington, Ky.

Miss Emma C. Davis, Superintendent of Primary Instruction, Cleveland, Ohio, read a paper on "The Ideal Primary School Curriculum."

Discussion was led by Miss Lydia A. Kirby, Philadelphia, Pa.

Acting President Supt. F. Treudley, in closing the sessions of this department, quoted the following lines as the watchword of the department for the coming year:

Let knowledge grow from more to more,
But more of reverence in us dwell,
That mind and heart, according well,
May make one music as before,
But vaster.

Adjourned.

JAMES MCGINNISS,
Secretary pro tem.

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SCHOOL BOARDS.

BY CHARLES E. GATON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, YONKERS, N. Y.

The administration of the affairs of public or common schools has, from the earliest history of this country, been entrusted to school trustees or boards of education. They have been the executive officers chosen in different places by almost every conceivable method, and varying in numbers to-day, even in cities, from one to forty-five. The mode of selection of these officers has been described as simply chaotic, and the problem, "How should a board of education be chosen?" is still unsolved.

The opinion of all good citizens is, that the cause of public education should be free from religious and sectarian alliances, as well as from the corrupt influences which blacken the records of all great political parties, wherein offices are bestowed as rewards for party services, and without regard to personal fitness or intellectual qualifications.

Almost every board of education in this country is selected by one of the following methods: election by the ballots of qualified voters; appointment by mayors, or other officers charged by statute with that specific duty. Under the former, candidates are elected on a general ticket by all qualified voters—the method almost universally in practice in country and union school districts—or they are elected by wards.

To avoid the dangers incident to a partisan board, schemes have been devised for the election of non-partisan boards, that is, an equal division of membership between the two dominant political parties. Thus the political idea is introduced at the very inception of the board, and, in some notorious cases, the most bitter and uncompromising partisanship has resulted. The non-partisan board of a large city has been known to remain unorganized for six months, while a fight for spoils was going on between the two partisan factions of which it was composed. In other cities, of which Kansas City may perhaps afford a favorable illustration, this plan is reported to work exceedingly well.

Whether the board is supposed to be non-partisan or otherwise, I am convinced that an election on a general ticket is preferable to that from wards or districts. If a school trustee is elected from a single ward there is great danger that the ward boss will dictate the nomination and influence the election. It is not so easy to carry a whole city for a thoroughly bad man, or set of men, at a special election of school officers.

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School boards that are appointed are almost invariably satisfactory. When the responsibility of selecting local officials to administer public trusts is lodged with one man, he must be both bad and bold if he fails to make good selections. In cities where elective boards have been changed to appointive, I believe the result has always been an improvement in the personal character of the incumbents. Most fortunately the common schools have always been dear to the people, and although the methods of selecting their administrative officers may be crude and unsettled, these officers have been among the best men of their communities. The school trustee in the little country district among the hills of New England, or on the Western prairie, is chosen because he is respected and trusted by his neighbors.

The members of school boards in cities and union school districts are of the best professional and business men available. There is no other class of public officials approaching them in moral and intellectual worth. I do not cite a single illustration to support these facts. They are peculiarly within our knowledge as teachers, and are known as well by the whole country.

Of course, there are exceptions to these general statements, but in a period when malfeasance in office is too frequent in large cities, the school boards, with very rare exceptions, are unsuspected and unsullied. They render arduous services gratuitously, and, as a rule, labor earnestly to promote the interests of the schools under their control. They are, moreover, steadfast friends of their teachers, and frequently overestimate their worth and the quality of their schools. Hence, it follows, as the board may lead public opinion, that each of many localities is confident that it has the best schools in the world. When they fail to secure good results, the fault is usually not theirs, but ours. Few of them have special knowledge of school work or school methods, but this is not so serious a defect if they possess executive ability and integrity, for then they will know their duties and limitations, and will intrust to others matters that are purely professional.

The question of the number of members the ideal board should contain is quite unanswered. It is a fortunate circumstance that most communities, as well as most teachers, enjoy a complacent satisfaction with their school boards; and whether a board consists of one member, or three, six, nine or forty-five members, its constituency is likely to believe that is the exact number best suited to effective action.

It seems to me that the dangers of incapacity and demagogy, of trading and trickery, which are urged as incident to large boards, apply to boards, however small, with equal force; and, further, that in small boards there is more danger of such elements securing con-

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trolling influence. A large board, of twelve members for instance, will almost certainly contain members of irreproachable character and high qualifications, who will be likely to control and guide the body in the right direction.

Our hopes always lie with these members, whether the board be large or small, who, with pure, disinterested motives, with no axes to grind and no personal debts to pay, are zealous for the welfare of the schools alone, and who will guard them from political and sectarian influence. If the board of a large city be small, it is likely to be overworked and to fail to sustain its interest. In a large board the work may be divided among committees so that each man will be assigned agreeable duties, and the working of all will be harmonious, and not burdensome; for we must remember that we are speaking of busy, practical men, who are giving wholly gratuitous service.

The successful working of the board, whether large or small, will depend largely on the president, who makes the committees and, in one way and another, shapes its policy. Here, again, our experience corroborates the assertion, that throughout the country the best equipped man in the board is usually its president.

I do not believe there is a State in the Union where the enforcement of the statutes will secure and maintain efficient schools without strong local interest and effort. With existing social and political conditions our schools can flourish only in the sunshine of popular approval. Hence, each individual of a large board is another root cast in the soil of public favor, to nourish the tree and to stay it from overthrow by hostile gales.

The efficiency of a board is increased by the permanency of its membership. The Civil Service Reform Association, under the leadership of that pure-minded, able and eloquent citizen, the late George William Curtis, labored for years to establish the principle, that continuance in office should be based on meritorious service. The usefulness of a member of a school board may be pretty accurately gauged by the period of his experience. Time is necessary for any new man to become familiar with the workings of a legislative body. A school board combines the three recognized functions, legislative, executive and judicial, and is called upon to act in three capacities.

In its legislative capacity, it considers the question of appropriations, new buildings or improvements, rules for the government of schools, and those of kindred nature. In many States broad powers are given school boards in this capacity. By the general law of New York, their decision on the amount of money to be raised by local taxation for teachers' wages is final, and cannot be modified or reduced by any authority whatever. In many places they have equal

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authority to appropriate money for new buildings and improvements; but the latter is more usually lodged with the voters of districts and the mayor and aldermen of cities.

In its executive capacity, either as a body or through committees, it transacts all ordinary business. Judicially, it hears and determines questions concerning its administrative officers, and teachers in their special work and in their relation to the public.

The board of education ought to appoint teachers, and I do not believe the appointing power can safely be lodged elsewhere; but its appointing power should be strictly limited to names brought before it and recommended by administrative officers chosen for the purpose. In union school districts the board will, of course, select a principal, and he should be held responsible for the success of his school. But how can he be considered responsible if he has no voice in selecting a corps of teachers? He should be allowed and required to bring forward names and to recommend appointments for every subordinate position.

In cities, equally large powers should be lodged with superintendents. Teaching is a profession, and the men and women at the head of affairs should have professional knowledge, qualifying them to pass judgment on the fitness of their subordinates for their special work. Teachers were formerly licensed almost exclusively by local authority. The tendency now is toward examinations and licenses by the State, and so to exclude incompetency which was given position by favor.

The nomination of teachers by superintendents and principals of cities and villages leads in the same direction. A school board is no more qualified to select teachers than I am to appoint a candidate to teach Presbyterian theology in the place of Dr. Smith or Dr. Briggs. Yet, I say, that teachers should be appointed by the board. It should pass final judgment on the cases brought before it, and should bear the responsibility.

Beyond the utter lack of professional fitness to discriminate between competence and incompetence, lies the fact, that, if teachers are selected by the board, favoritism, political and personal influence, and even trading one appointment for another, will be certain to enter. I assume that the superintendent or other professional officer who nominates teachers will stand like a rock in the path of the incompetent, who are always pressing forward to enter.

Every one who is turned back becomes in a measure his enemy, and sooner or later may accomplish his overthrow; but, if appointments are made by the board on his nominations, his position is much less perilous. He should also be protected by rules strictly defining the minimum qualifications of candidates whom he may recommend. Permit me to read from a rule in force in my own city: "No person

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shall be employed as a teacher in any of the public schools who is not a normal school graduate, or, if not, has not had experience in teaching equivalent to a normal school education. Whenever a teacher is wanted to fill a vacancy in any of the schools, the superintendent shall examine as to the qualifications of candidates for the position, and report in writing the results of his examination to the committee on teachers. The committee, if satisfied that any candidate, favorably reported on by the superintendent, is qualified, may employ such person."

The superintendent is thus protected against the great number of unqualified applicants, because he says: "If you have not graduated from a normal school, or some other institution giving professional training, or have not had some years of successful experience, the rules by which I am bound will not permit me to present your name for appointment." Furthermore, there is no way for a candidate to come before the committee except by his recommendation.

If a board is composed of business and professional men of high class, they will readily adopt the view, that the members of a teaching force should be chosen by some one with special fitness for choice. Only the stupid or vicious members, filled with complacent conceit, or looking for loaves and fishes, will take the contrary view.

The employes of the board are entitled to full support. They occupy positions before the public, and are peculiarly liable to criticism and reproach. Oddly enough, everybody knows how to teach school, and is prepared to give us advice. No community but has its superannuated teachers, who know how much better things were taught when they were in the field! No community without its educational cranks, with impossible reforms and impracticable theories to urge upon us! If we are not worthy of our positions we should be displaced; if we are worthy of them, we should receive, amid all the criticisms of methods of discipline and instruction, steady and consistent support from the board of education.

Boards of education ought to lengthen the terms of employment of their teachers. Why should a superintendent of schools be elected for a year or for two years? He ought to be elected, either at the pleasure of the board or for a long term. It has been found consistent with the best theories of government to choose judges for long terms of office. I cannot enter upon a discussion of the theories and doctrines which underlie the selection of the judiciary, and simply say that the reasons which point to the advisability of long terms for judges, apply with equal force to the election of school superintendents and principals. In practice, superintendents elected at the pleasure of the board, unless unfit for their positions, hold office for long periods, as the question of their election is not periodically brought forward by a rule or law.

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To put an efficient superintendent on trial once in two years, to place him where he must meet the schemes of intriguers for his position, to make him or his friends fight for his place when perhaps the strongest argument against him is, that he is too inflexible in dealing with incompetent teachers, too exacting, too honest, too good, is a disgrace to the powers that determine the period of his election.

There are a few cities where the following statement does not apply; but teachers are appointed annually almost universally. Why should this be so? Every corps of teachers contains many members of long experience and approved worth, and yet once each year they are worried and excited by the question of reappointment. I do not believe there is any other class of professional workers—outside of the Methodist Church—who are subjected to the same indignity. A large proportion of the teachers should hold their positions by permanent engagement, subject, of course, to removal for cause. Teachers possessed of high intellectual and scholastic attainments should be eligible for appointment to this select body after some years of meritorious service. Its honors would be distinctive, and there would arise the highest emulation to gain its ranks.

Fixed salaries for grades ought to be abolished. A brilliant teacher in a primary grade should be paid as high a salary there as she would receive for the same quality of work elsewhere, and fine work anywhere should be suitably recognized. In a word, salaries should be based on merit, and the humdrum teacher, who never reads anything and never goes anywhere, ought not to receive the same salary as the progressive, earnest worker, who is alive to the best educational movements and thoughts of the day.

The board should not only leave the selection of teachers to professional discrimination, but there are also many other subjects which are better for a large measure of letting alone.

The board, as a rule, has no competency to adopt text-books, prepare a course of study, direct the organization of schools, dictate methods of instruction, plan new schoolhouses or remodel old ones. These are all matters demanding expert knowledge and experience, and should be passed on by the board only on the advice and recommendation of the superintendent. The board should have such confidential relations with him that it should know his innermost thoughts on all matters relating to the welfare of the schools, and be prepared to advise concerning his measures, as well as to support them. In planning school buildings with their special requirements of space, light, heating, ventilation, and general sanitation and convenience, the average architect is no more competent than the board.

The superintendent should possess the necessary knowledge and should be allowed to use it. Commissioner Harris says: "The construction of school buildings requires at every step the advice of an

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expert in educational methods." I am not speaking of the few cities which have distinct departments of buildings, but of the great number of city and village districts where the board must pass on every case of building improvement.

The board should be its own financial agent and should regulate its expenditures. It ought not to expect anybody else to incur that responsibility. If properly constituted, it will exercise judicious economy, realizing, however, that its first and highest duty is to make its schools the best possible, with the means under its control. There is an occasional board willing to forego all else if it can publish an annual report showing that it is conducting a singularly cheap system of schools.

It may be thought that the suggestions of this paper lead towards diminishing the powers of the board. I have sought only to define what seems to be the duties and limitations, which, if strictly recognized, would augment its influence.

In one respect at least the board occupies higher ground than we. It is in closer touch with the people and is better fitted to judge how educational results meet the wants of our complex modern society. Hence, it follows that the inadequacy of old methods has been made apparent by those who are not of our profession. Although, perhaps, so much may not be said of the æsthetic, artistic and moral phases, some of the most vital reforms in the practical curriculum, which ought to be prepared for citizenship, have been inaugurated by boards of education.

Taken all in all, the board is the teacher's best friend, and fills a most honorable position in the great onward movement of educational thought and action.

DISCUSSION.

WM. G. BRUCE, Milwaukee.—Time and usage have established certain relations between the school board and superintendent which are commonly accepted. The one has certain definite functions in the management of the business routine of a school system as a legislative body, while to the other the ordinary professional duties are accorded. The common duties involved cover those which are more strictly of a business and professional character. Their co-relation is but light, hence subject to little or no friction. Where, however, the business and professional ends enter into closer relations, as they must in all well regulated school systems, the questions as to prerogatives of both, the influence of one over the other, the concerted action of both to accomplish the best possible results for the whole, must be clearly defined and well understood. The difficulties which manifest themselves from time to time arise largely from a misconception of the respective powers and limitations, and as to their relation to one another; in other words, how and to what extent the one dovetails into the other.

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The superintendent concedes to the school board the right and duty to purchase school sites, to erect schoolhouses, provide supplies and fix salaries. On the other hand, the board concedes, as a matter of course, to the superintendent the immediate supervision of teachers, the arrangement of the courses of study, etc. These functions are recognized by each. Consequently, no clashes arise here. Observation teaches that contentions arise out of actions which are not purely in the nature of business nor of a strictly professional character. For instance, the appointment of teachers, the adoption of text-books, the introduction of new departures, etc.

The school board, if representative of a community, should and must have certain powers which touch upon the professional portion of a school system. The radical division of the two is impracticable, when it is remembered that the community has a voice in the professional part as well. This voice can only speak through the board of education. The eradication of the strictly representative character of a board of education, giving thereby the superintendent more independent and arbitrary powers, would be unwise and a step towards paternalism. The average American citizen wants to be in touch with the public school, which is his pride, and he therefore abhors all tendency towards paternalism and centralization of power and authority.

Miniature school boards, therefore, such as have come into vogue within recent years, or select and exclusive "upper ten" school boards, cannot be considered representative of their respective communities, aiming, as they do, at a radical separation of the business and professional, the practical and theoretical portions of a school system.

Extreme notions do prevail in many portions of the country as to the relation of a superintendent to the school board, in which the former is considered a mere employe and the latter the employer. The one schemes and devises, and the other is ordered to obey. This, in all probability, has been the cause for inaugurating the other extreme. I will be frank at this time in admitting that the school boards themselves have been guilty of gross abuses, which have incurred the displeasure of a community and which have in certain cities, by way of reform, clothed the superintendent with arbitrary powers.

In the adoption of text-books the questions invariably arise: Should the superintendent recommend and the board adopt? If the superintendent's recommendation means an adoption, why should the board of education have any further authority in the matter? If, however, the board of education has the power to determine the text-books, should the superintendent's attitude be simply an advisory one?

Here the question of judgment as between the school board and the superintendent is brought into play. The one holds that he owes a responsibility to the school system, the other to the public. The one renders a professional opinion, the other decides the whole question, guided by that opinion together with the financial problem which is involved. It seems to me that the text-book committee or school board should have the final voice in determining the adoption of any book. A professional opinion of the superintendent and teachers on any book should be received with due consideration, yet the discretionary powers of a committee and board must remain intact. Wherein, then, does a radical separation of the business and professional parts of a school system prove practical or wise?

On the subject of the appointment of teachers, it seems to me that the attitude of the superintendent towards the school board must be practically the same. He should nominate and the board should appoint.

The question of new departures leaves wide room for differences between the superintendent and the school board. The conservative or inactive superintendent

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expects all new departures to originate with the board and merely to be submitted to him for his approval or disapproval. He looks upon the school board as a legislative body which confers upon him a veto power. When a school board, however, has placed a superintendent at the head of its schools for the purpose of managing the educational portion of its system, it follows, also, that all educational progress must find an aggressive champion in the superintendent; that all new departures must originate with the superintendent subject to the confirmation of the board.

It follows, too, that the board is not merely the financial end of a school system; that its province covers more than the erection of schoolhouses and the payment of salaries; that the superintendency implies more than the mere management of teachers and the direction of the strictly educational work; that the business and professional parts are closely interwoven; that a due appreciation of the prerogatives and duties of the one towards the other, guided by the principles of common ethics, must establish the true relations between school boards and superintendents.

The superintendent must be recognized by the board as an educational expert. He should stand in the same relations to his board on educational matters as does the city attorney to the city council in matters of law. He should render his opinion fearlessly and honestly. He should not waver in his decision or aim to court popular favor in the board. Injudicious advice meets its rebuke in the end. Intrigue always ends in disaster.

The board must recognize in the superintendent an educational leader, whose opinion on all matters professional should be given due consideration. The board exacts of him certain duties, therefore it must also endow him with discretionary powers commensurate with those duties. The board must recognize at all times the important and extremely difficult position in which the progressive superintendent is placed.

The central idea of all effort on the part of school boards and superintendents should be the educational interests of the child. To that end should the school board consist of a sensible, practical and conscientious body of men; the superintendent to be an active, progressive and high minded man, who comprehends his mission and who realizes that upon him rests the most exacting of duties and the greatest of responsibilities. With these conditions a progressive and truly successful school system is assured.

A FEW CHANGES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL INSTRUCTION.

BY EDWARD G. WARD, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

Our fathers believed, and taught as they believed, that the "three R's" must forever constitute the essential part of a bread-winning education; and beyond such an education most of them saw little to be desired for the masses.

They did, as a measure of liberality, admit to this worshipful company the "two G's" and a little of history, and so, in the days when the older members of this Association were children, the courses of

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study of the common schools included little, if anything, more than reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, grammar and history.

Since that day, however, a great awakening has taken place. The conviction has become general that the mere scramble for bread is the most ignoble of occupations. Everyone has come to understand that while the bread-winning part of an education must be taken care of first, because successful bread-winning is essential to everything else, it falls far short of accomplishing the ultimate purpose of education, the harmonious development of those germs of character that the Creator has implanted in every human being.

Now, it has been believed for several generations, but generally believed by only the present one, that various branches of study affect the development of various faculties; one exercising, and so strengthening the perceptions; another cultivating the imagination; another exciting the emotions and making them potent for good; another developing the reasoning powers, and so on; all, in so far as they present difficulties to overcome or call for self-conquest, cultivating the will and accustoming it to operate in proper directions.

With the true idea of education before them, and the fact in mind that I have just stated, teachers and boards of education have then gradually added to their courses of study branches that have seemed desirable, until now many of the courses have become so turgid as to be quite impracticable. As an example of what I allude to, let me enumerate the requirements of a certain city course, for the last half of the child's second year in school:

Reading, regular and supplementary; spelling, including the writing of sentences from dictation; learning the use of certain capitals and punctuation marks; exercises in the use of pronouns; exercises in the use of difficult verb forms; description of objects, oral and written; descriptions of pictures, oral and written; reproductions of stories, oral and written; mental arithmetic; written arithmetic; human-body lessons, *i. e.*, lessons in hygiene; lessons on animals; lessons on plants; nature lessons, *i. e.*, lessons on some of the forms of land and water with a little about the sun, moon and stars; penmanship, including writing in copy books; form study and drawing, including molding and the cutting out of paper forms; physical culture; and finally music.

In each of these a definite ground is prescribed, and in each the class is expected at the end of the term of twenty weeks to exhibit a fair degree of proficiency. Is it any wonder that several of these studies are perverted from their true purpose, and that many of the teachers, in their mad haste to get the work of the term accomplished, resort to mere cram and to every sort of mechanical short cut? I trow not, and I am sure that just so long as we attempt to force upon the little ones twice as much as they can digest, just so

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long will their minds be dazed rather than enlightened, and their faculties numbed rather than strengthened.

The great change, then, in courses of study has been the multiplication of subjects—a change most wise in its design, most unwise in the lengths to which it has been carried; the design having thereby been almost, if not utterly, defeated.

The remedy, of course, lies chiefly in a reduction of the number of branches taught; but just what to strike out is an exceedingly difficult matter to decide; for a review of the whole field fails to show a single subject that does not, or, rather, ought not, to answer a useful purpose and fill a place that belongs to itself and itself alone. I am inclined to think, on the whole, that expediency would be best served in this matter by the exclusion as regular branches of study of botany, zoology and mineralogy, and the retention of but a few of the leading facts of natural philosophy, and of only so much of physiology as is indispensable in the teaching of hygiene. I would also strike from all courses of study the provision requiring writing in copy books, and insert in its place one providing that penmanship should be taught only in connection with other subjects. I would confine the study of technical grammar to, at most, the last two years of the course; and, while I would extend arithmetical analysis as far as possible, I would shear arithmetic of all useless and obsolete tables and the commercial parts of it of all rules not commonly employed in actual business.

I select the sciences for exclusion, not because I fail to appreciate their worth, but because I cannot ignore the fact that not more than one-half the children that enter our public schools remain long enough to finish the fourth year's work, and that less than one-half of the remainder succeed in completing the grammar course. To the great mass of our pupils, therefore, the study of the sciences means at least a partial exclusion of something immediately available to them in their preparation for the great work of getting a livelihood—a preparation that, in the very nature of the case, must take precedence of everything else.

I select penmanship for extinction as a separate branch, because I know it can be as well taught in connection with other things as separately, and because at least half the time now devoted to the copying of meaningless, or, at all events, useless sentences, can thus be saved and applied to some better purpose. I select technical grammar for restriction to the last two years, because I am satisfied that all of it that is necessary in a common school course can be taught in those years, that little of it worth having can be taught earlier, and that half the time it now takes in the lower grades would serve a much better purpose if devoted to practical language lessons, while the other half might be applied to something else.

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I need give no reason, I think, for the course I advocate in arithmetic.

And now,having thus briefly considered that part of my subject that deals with elementary instruction as a whole, I shall proceed to the consideration of a few changes in the teaching of individual branches; beginning with reading, as being beyond all question the most important.

Most of those present this afternoon doubtless learned to read, as I did, by the alphabetic or a-b-c method. Under this method, the first step was to teach the letters of the alphabet from a to z inclusive. Next followed simple exercises in spelling, such as "b-a, ba, b-e, be," etc. When the little ones had acquired a certain proficiency in the recognition of these meaningless combinations, they were introduced to the book, where they stumbled along, spelling out the words one at a time, and rarely, in the earlier stages of the work, getting the slightest glimpse of a thought. The mechanical effort required for the mastery of each successive word completely obliterated the impression made by the preceding one, and the child reached the end of the sentence with nothing in mind but the last word. It was not until they had read in this way many hundred times, and had learned, by dint of going over them again and again, to know the commoner words as wholes, that the children really began to read in the sense of getting thought from the printed page. And, even then, they read slowly and imperfectly, for before reaching that point they had formed a habit of reading mechanically, and we all know how difficult a thing it is to overcome a well-formed habit.

It was, perhaps, a quarter of a century ago that some genius, perceiving that the great stumbling block in acquiring the art of reading was the separation of ideas by the intervention of mechanical work, conceived the plan of teaching words as wholes, so that the mind of the child, meeting with no intervening obstacle, might pass smoothly from idea to idea, and readily grasp the thought.

Thus was invented the famous word method—a method which, in its legitimate application to the first work in reading, has done wonders for the little ones, but which, unhappily, not having been confined to such application, has, in the later stages of the work, largely, if not wholly, undone the benefits it conferred in the earlier; with the net result, that, to-day, the reading at the end of the third year of school life is little, if any, better than it was twenty-five or thirty years ago.

The old method, if it was clumsy and mechanical, at all events provided the child with a key by which, unassisted, he could get at new words himself. In requiring him to use this key, it also called upon him to work out to a large extent his own salvation, and so, practiced him in conquering difficulties and made him independent.

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The word method does nothing of the kind. It keeps the child in absolute dependence upon some one else to tell him the new words, his own effort being confined to memorizing them, and the reading exercises in no way tending to develop in him a spirit of self-reliance. When, after the first term or two, new words come along, as they must, at the rate of ten or fifteen to the lesson, his memory fails to keep pace with the demands made upon it, and his reading lessons are filled with obstacles to thought-getting in the shape of unlearned or half-learned words, quite as formidable as those that existed when the old method was used. The legitimate function of the word method, as the sole means of teaching reading, ceases at the end of the second or third month. If I were compelled to choose between it and the a-b-c method to do the whole work, I think I should choose the latter.

No one will dispute, I think, that the acquirement of the art of reading constitutes at least half of any education; for, after all that may be done for him by others, the main work of educating any human being must be performed by himself, and reading so multiplies one's powers for the acquisition of both knowledge and culture that to overrate its value would be impossible. No one, either, will deny the great desirability of such a method of teaching this art as will make an intelligent reader of the child within two years of his first admission to school. Nothing else so matures a child's mind as reading. Some one, I do not know who, but he must have been a philosopher, has said: "A man is as old as he feels, and a woman, as old as she looks." To this I may add, in not too grammatical phrase, but without fear of contradiction, a child is as old as he reads. Universal experience, I think, will bear me out in the assertion, that a child of eight that reads well is, for all school work, more than the equal of a child of ten that does not. If, then, we would shorten by a year or two the time that children are obliged to spend in the elementary schools, we must above all secure early proficiency in reading; and since it is evident that this cannot be obtained through the use of either the alphabetic or the word method, something better must be employed.

To my mind, it is perfectly clear that the new method must be a combination of the word and phonetic methods, with a different order of procedure in the presentation of the latter from any that has hitherto been generally employed.

Such a combined method is now in use in nearly all the schools of Brooklyn, in many of which most marvelous results have been obtained. In the schools in which the new method has been mastered, the time formerly devoted to the acquirement of a reading vocabulary of 200 words now gives the children one of more than 2,000, while

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their reading is more spirited and in every other respect better than formerly.

The following is as full a description of this method, which we call the "Rational Method," as may properly be included in a paper of this length:

The Rational Method is a peculiar combination of the word and phonetic methods. It utilizes each for that part of the work to which it is especially adapted. The word method is used, first, as principal, because of its value in developing a habit of reading thoughtfully, and afterward as auxiliary, to remedy the shortcomings of the phonetic method and increase the stock of word phonograms. The phonetic method, which is introduced by easy stages during the ascendency of the word method, finally becomes itself the principal means of growth and progress. It imparts power while it supplies the key which the word method is inadequate to give.

The aims of the Rational Method are:

1. To make the child not only independent in his reading, but generally self-reliant.

2. To enable him to read a vastly greater amount than heretofore in a given time, and thus acquire, not only a fuller vocabulary, but greater maturity of mind.

3. To put him into possession, during the first year or year and a half of school life, of a complete key to the language, so that, no matter how soon thereafter his schooling may cease, his ability to read will be assured.

The following are the leading features of the phonetic part of the work:

1. The presentation of the sounds and their symbols (phonograms) in a rational order; that is, an order in which the easier precede the harder. The easiest sounds to use in phonetic reading are those that may be indefinitely prolonged, and the blending of which in words may therefore be most readily shown as well as perceived. These sounds, the Rational Method deals with first.

2. The teaching of an initial stock of phonograms before any phonetic reading is done. This makes provision whereby, when such reading has once been commenced, it may be carried on continuously and with sufficient wealth and variety of material.

3. The training of the ear in the perception of phonetic blends before phonetic reading is begun. This is accomplished by the teacher pronouncing words sound by sound, and the children trying to determine, in each case, the word thus pronounced.

4. An extensive and systematic use of word-phonograms and other compound phonograms. The difficulty the child experiences in determining a new word is, in general, directly proportional to the number of parts he has to recognize in it. By the use, then, of com-

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pound phonograms. which, being taught as wholes, are no harder to recognize than simple ones, hundreds of long and hard words are practically transformed into short and easy ones. Thus the word "lightning," which the child learning by this method reads, "l-ight-n-ing," he finds no more difficult that the short word "left," in which also, he has to recognize and put together four separate sounds.

5. A careful grading of the phonetic words introduced. The first phonetic words presented contain but two phonograms each, the next but three, and so on.

6. The gradual introduction of phonetic words into the sentence reading. At first, but one such word is used to a sentence. This prevents the phonetic work from offering any serious impediment to the thought-getting. As the child's perception of the blend becomes quicker and clearer, the proportion of phonetic words is constantly increased. Finally, when this perception has become automatic, or nearly so, the reading is made almost wholly phonetic.

7. Separate daily drills in the recognition of the individual phonograms and the reading of single phonetic words. The purpose of these is to cultivate expertness. No other part of the word exceeds them in importance; for, without them, the average child would never acquire sufficient facility in sound or word recognition to make successful phonetic reading a possibility.

During the last ten years another change in the teaching of reading, almost as radical as the introduction of the word method, has been rapidly coming about. I refer to the correlation of this subject with other branches of study. The correlation of arithmetic with business forms on the one hand, and with drawing and geometry on the other; of geography with astronomy on the one hand, and with history and civil government on the other; of physics with chemistry, and of both with the other sciences, in all the cases that have come to my notice seems to have taken proper direction and produced happy results. But the correlation of reading with other subjects has, in my poor judgment, gone quite astray.

Here the attempt has been mainly to correlate with the sciences of botany and zoology; and from small beginnings, in which bits of botanical and zoological information were deftly interwoven with other matter, we have at last come to a point where children of tender years are put into readers (or supplementary readers) wholly botanical or zoological.

These books, to children of a larger growth, seem full of interest. They are, in general, well written, and the matter they contain is of undisputed value. But with little children they have proved a failure; for, while failing to create a taste for science, or to any appreciable degree to strengthen observation, they have had a bad effect upon the reading itself, in diminishing its power to interest. The reason

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is not far to seek. It lies in a fact that many educators seem to have overlooked: that young children cannot read for information. Their capacity for attentive work in reading ceases with its power to amuse them, and the sooner this fact is generally recognized the better for the children.

The stray bits of scientific information that they formerly absorbed with other matter, aroused their curiosity and whetted their appetites, and so cultivated a taste for scientific study capable of giving them a great impetus when the time for such study should come. But the steady scientific diet that has of late been forced upon them has resulted in surfeit and nausea long before the time for digestion has arrived. That there are exceptions to what I have stated, I am well aware; but the exceptions are enough to prove the rule and no more.

With what, then, would I correlate reading? Why, so far as stray and interesting bits of information interwoven with other matter go, with everything that has the slightest human interest or value; but, in particular, with one study that I do not find in any school curriculum.

Now, this brings me to another oversight made by educators generally that is even more strange than the one already mentioned—a clear oversight of the fact that every child, both before he enters school, and for many years afterwards, is a most intense student (and not the less for his study being unconscious) of human nature. The actions and motives of his own kind, their pains and their pleasures, their struggles and their triumphs, have a hold upon the child's imagination not paralleled—nay, not even approached—by anything else.

Woe betide those poor infants who, out of school, have (as too many of our little ones have) only depraved or brutal specimens of their kind to study and to follow as exemplars. Woe betide them, I say, unless we can do something in the schools to counteract the evil influences that surround them and the evil tendencies they inherit.

I would, then, correlate reading mainly with this unconscious study of human nature, and thus make it the main instrument for imparting ethical culture; and since this particular culture is of all kinds the most valuable, and since the power of any impression to endure depends not more upon its vividness than upon the number of times it is repeated, I would have at least half the material for every reading book, from the lowest to the highest, selected with reference to its usefulness in creating a love of whatever is noble and elevating and a hatred of whatever is mean and debasing. There is no dearth of material. Literature and history abound with stories of the kind that make youthful hearts beat high for honor and for

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truth, and these stories it is that should form the staple of our little ones' reading.

Thus would a double purpose be attained: the stories drawing the child irresistibly to his reading, and the reading constantly stimulating the growth of his nobler faculties.

Penmanship next claims my attention, less as a separate branch of study than in its use as an auxiliary to other studies. I know not how it may be in the rural districts, but in city schools where classes are unreasonably large, and where, therefore, it is extremely difficult to keep such an oversight of individual pupils as to secure the proper performance of their tasks, the employment of written exercises and written recitations has now reached such proportions as to constitute at once one of the most marked changes and one of the greatest abuses in elementary instruction.

During the last four or five years teachers and school officers have been appealed to, again and again, to adopt vertical writing in the schools as a remedy for many physical ills that exist to an alarming extent among the children of the present generation, but were comparatively unknown among those of the last. Among these ills are shortsightedness, astigmatism, spinal curvatures and distorted shoulders. All of these, the advocates of the vertical writing attribute in great degree to the oblique writing at present in use, and to the position which they assume it obliges children to take at their desks; and they add, as a clincher to their arguments, that the vertical writing is clearer, more compact and more rapid.

Let us briefly consider these claims:

First, as to the position. I do not admit that the oblique writing has anything to do with the right and left positions so strenuously (and so righteously) objected to. On the contrary, where children take such positions, they do so either as the result of training based on false theories, or because, through a niggardly economy of space, their desks are made so narrow that it is possible to get their books far enough from their eyes only by pushing them away sidewise. A practical accountant who takes a side position at his desk, though he does write obliquely, is as hard to find as a needle in a haystack.

Second, as to the astigmatism. This it is claimed is due to the different directions in which in oblique writing the eyes have to look at the same letter. There seems to me to be no more in this argument than in the other, for in vertical as well as in oblique writing, the angle of vision for either eye must always be different from that of the other. Even where the letter is in the middle of a line and directly before the eyes, the two lines of vision form a sharp angle at the paper; and inclination of the writer to keep adjusting his paper, so that the work may be at all times directly before his eyes, corrects this difficulty quite as much in the one kind of writing as in the other.

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As regards the other three claims, that the vertical writing is at once more legible, more compact and more rapid than the other; while I cannot admit the last, I freely and willingly concede the other two, the truth of which, if it has not made me an advocate of this writing, has, at least, prevented me from being numbered with its opponents.

If, then, it may be asked, I am not opposed to the introduction of the vertical writing, why have I taken pains to dispute some of the leading arguments in its favor. Because, I believe, that these arguments have taken such strong hold upon the minds of teachers and others concerned with elementary education, that there is danger of the new writing being relied upon exclusively to correct the physical ailments attributed, and, as I believe, improperly attributed to the present style of writing.

The remedy needed is a much more sweeping one, being nothing less than the cutting down of the written work that children are obliged to do to perhaps one-fourth of the present quantity. The children of former generations wrote the same oblique hand that is taught to-day; yet they suffered to no marked degree from either eye troubles or uneven shoulders or spinal curvature. These ailments, then, that we all so greatly deplore among the children of to-day, are not, in my opinion, justly to be attributed in any great degree to the style of writing employed, but rather to the great and unreasonable amount required. It would not be difficult, if time permitted, to show some directions in which this amount might be curtailed without detriment, and in some cases with absolute benefit to the work; but as I have already reached the limit assigned to me, I refrain from trespassing further upon your patience.

DISCUSSION.

W. C. WARFIELD, Superintendent of Schools, Covington, Ky.—In the changes that have been made in elementary instruction in the last few years the wise changes predominate. Some years ago the city schools of this country were afflicted with an over-plus of system. In time a wise reaction took place, and at the present time the educators of the country are devoting a great deal of thought to the improving of the elementary and secondary school instruction.

The freeing of the schools from the mechanical methods prevalent in their organization is now taking place. In my opinion nothing in the past has interfered as much with the possession of an ideal system of instruction in the elementary schools as the regular grinding out of pupils, once a year only, from one grade to the next higher. I consider yearly promotions too infrequent to allow of good instruction in the elementary school. The tendency at the present time seems to be to promote pupils at such times as they may seem fitted for promotion. That this

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change is for the better, we do not doubt. It will enable the primary and grammar school teachers to avail themselves of methods that would otherwise be impossible. A new light illuminates their pathway. A new impetus is given to the work.

The inclination of a few years ago was to educate the head only. The child was to be taught reading, arithmetic, geography, etc., regardless of the execution of his hand or the emotions of his heart. But we now realize that the child must be taught to do, as well as to think.

In fact, the head, hand and heart, must each receive attention from the careful teacher, in order to reach that ultimate aim—the preparation of the boy to be a man, the girl to be a woman.

That boy who appears before us must be taught his mathematics, his history, etc. He must be taught to think; but his hand may receive attention with great profit. Perhaps it may have in it the skill of a Raphael, a Carot, or an Angelo.

Then, too, the boy's body may be developed into a fine physique. Those shoulders may be drawn away from such close pressure upon that delicate chest and consumption prevented.

That ethics should be taught in every school in the land, of whatsoever grade, is manifest. This needs no argument.

If I were asked the question: "What change in method of instruction in the elementary school do you consider the wisest?" I would certainly answer in favor of the revolution, for such it really is, in the method of teaching geography. How well do we remember when pupils were compelled to study a set of map questions, and commit to memory a descriptive lesson in geography. But we have cast ourselves free from that, and now we find some of the best teachers making the study of geography the means of teaching the elementary sciences. Pupils are taught the fauna and flora of a country as well as the location of it. The map is an object before the pupils, made to take on almost real life. It is made to appear as a picture of the country it represents. The child is led to imagine himself in Japan. He is led objectively and inductively to know Japan. He realizes that it is a real country, peopled with human beings.

An unwise change in elementary school instruction is the present prevailing idea that children should be taught the elements of anatomy and physiology. The children should be taught hygiene. But why teach them anatomy and physiology? What does it avail? What good does it accomplish? Is it good mental training for the pupils? Manifestly not. Is it of practical use to them? No such claims are made. Most important of all, is it right to compel children of immature minds to study a subject which only those of mature comprehension will fully understand?

When teachers will cease drilling children in the endeavor to teach them the number of bones in the body, and the names of all the muscles therein, we will feel that a change for the better has taken place.

But let them go on in the good work of teaching the children of the land how to care for their bodies. Nothing is more important than the physical welfare of the child, except the very soul itself.

SUPT. W. M. STRAUSS of Parkersburgh, W. Va., took exception to the statement in the original paper, that writing should be taught exclusively in connection with language work. His experience certainly taught him that writing can only be taught by special instruction, and best by a special instructor. He heartily seconded the statement of the paper in what was said on supplementary reading.

PRINCIPAL A. G. MERWIN of Brooklyn felt that better work was done now under the plan suggested by the paper than by the old plan of a carefully taught fixed method of teaching writing. He heartily commended what was said on read-

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ing in the original paper. A trial of this plan, against his former views and judgment, showed him that the best work he had ever seen was done by it. The intensity of interest evinced by the pupils convinced him that this was the natural method. It gives the pupil the power to know words at sight, slowly at first, almost instantly and intuitively in the end.

SUPT. W. I. TWITCHELL, Hartford, Conn., said that we must distinguish between phonetics and reading. Phonetics is not reading; it only leads to reading. Reading is thought getting; the other may be word getting only. In the primary grade, we should learn to read, but soon we must teach them to read to learn. It should be along definite lines. He favored information readers.

MISS ALICE A. DOUGLAS, Brooklyn, N. Y., heartily commended what was said as to doing away with copy-books. Why should pupils learn one style of writing for the copy-books and another for every-day work?

MISS BETTY A. DUTTON, Cleveland, Ohio, strongly urged information reading, especially along the line of botany.

PRINCIPAL F. K. PERKINS, Brooklyn, N. Y., gave it as his experience, that, when he saw the work done with information readers on botany and zoology, he tried to get rid of this sort of book as soon as possible.

MISS MARY A. FLEMING, Buffalo, N. Y., was surprised that any one should want to teach little children botany or zoology out of books, when the book of nature was open to them. Such lessons should be from the flowers and familiar life and never from books.

MR. EDWARD D. FARRELL of New York stated that Superintendent Ward had, in his opinion, read the original paper of the session. He could testify that he had converted his corps of principals to his (Mr. Ward's) system of teaching reading.

MR. WARD closed the discussion. He said that the pupils learned from 120 to 150 words; they did not learn the others, they put them together, and read them. They began sentence work the very first day and the very first hour. He stated that the one needed reform in writing was to do away with the idea of teaching pupils to draw the copies, and substitute movement exercises. He had seen boys leave his school with an execrable handwriting, then go to a business college and become in a few months excellent writers, and the secret was the movement exercises. He said that if teachers are not able to teach writing properly, they should become able. The trouble is they are anxious for results too soon.

THE IDEAL PRIMARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

BY MISS EMMA C. DAVIS, SUPERINTENDENT OF PRIMARY INSTRUCTION, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

The child, the teacher, the environment, the course of study, the methods; all these are comprehended in the school. It is their degree of excellence and their relative significance which constitute the ideal school. And as the ideal curriculum is most practicable and best operated in the ideal school I shall touch briefly on some of

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the principal constituents of the ideal school, more especially upon the ideal teacher.

As I make such prominent use of the word ideal, I hasten to forestall any misconception of my application of the word, by stating at once that by it I do not mean some vague Utopian dream of how things might be, but I do mean the best that may be, the best within the farthest stretch of our horizon of to-day; best that is practicable and possible, that we may strive for and grow to, and, reaching, grow beyond. And in depicting the ideal school with its course of study I shall keep my portrayal within the confines of possibilities under existing circumstances. For even a near approach to the truly ideal school may not be attained until statesmen shall have acquired wisdom to legislate into existence, as nearly as possible, the ideal circumstances; not until educators and school officials shall have realized the wisdom of requiring for the younger children the best equipped and most skilful teachers, and not until the teacher herself, recognizing the importance of her mission, and regarding it as a vocation, and not merely an avocation, shall fit herself both by professional training and by continual self-culture for her high calling.

But taking the circumstances as we find them to day, the crowded city school, the teacher of limited professional equipment and training, we may, nevertheless, reach up toward and strive to attain to an ideal even within our present limitations.

Let us for a moment consider the pivotal point upon which all this, our work, revolves—that germ of nations yet to be, the child.

THE CHILD.

What a race history is comprehended in that one word! What hours might not be given to him, as we know him—the eager, restless, inquisitive, unique little unit of society, with his dual nature—on the one side tempting him to wrong doing, and on the other wooing him to virtue; this mind, body and soul in the awakening stage of life!

"As we know him!" What do we really know of him, we, personally? What time have we not willingly given to the study of psychology, what hours and hours to the conning of pedagogical works of all kinds, but how much to study of the child?

I am sure no thoughtful person can look on at the experiments that are now being made in the child study, without being impressed with the conviction that we yet know amazingly little about child-nature and its operations, to say nothing of the individual child. The time is coming when this new science will be formulated and of greatest help to the teacher in every department of her work; but then, as now, each teacher will need to study each child in her school,

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for, "though all children are alike in certain external and internal essentials of being," yet each is a unique, sole, individual divine manifestation, and so long as the human race shall exist, each will require special adaptation of means and method to his peculiar mind and nature. And this will the ideal teacher do.

THE IDEAL TEACHER.

How shall I portray her! I can give an impressionist sketch only, and your imagination—or, haply, your experience—must fill in the details. She is, in the first place, mistress of herself. All her faculties are well in hand. The command "Know thyself" has been well and wisely heeded. She has made it her business to be fully equipped by professional training and self-culture for her work. She keeps *au courant* with all human events, and abreast of all educational progress. A broad sympathy brings her in touch with all humanity; she knows and loves every individual member of her school, and the little warped soul, whose sad destiny seems foreshadowed in his looks, claims her closest study and her tenderest care. She knows her pupils morally, mentally and physically. She knows their every limitation, all their possibilities, and fits occasion to the man." She studies them, she knows them, not only theoretically and typically, but practically, as they present themselves to her day by day. Threat and fear enter not into her means of control; nor bribe nor coercion. She never degrades the child's self-respect. She always appeals to the highest motive. Her decisions are rendered with purest justice. And they are as keen to appreciate justice as to resent injustice. Her theory of discipline is to let the children experience the logic of events, the following of effect from cause, and thus are they taught and strengthened by experience. And is not that the discipline of life? By such judicious training in moral activity she helps them to master themselves, to gain "the freedom of self-control;" and they are ready to yield her voluntary obedience, the fruit of reason and of love. The pervasive influence of her own character is everywhere felt, and creates that spiritual atmosphere of good will and peace and love which alone can make an ideal school.

She is familiar not only with her own small section of the course of study, but with the whole of it. The outline of each day's work is carefully planned and the various topics skillfully co-ordinated with each other.

Each lesson is clearly conceived and has a logical plan of development, and she presents it with alertness and vivacity, that the reflex action of her mind and manner upon her pupils may stimulate them to an alert and vivid mental attitude. The methods are of the best. They bring the child into direct contact with the thing studied.

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They change with changing conditions. We have all passed the stage of regarding any one immutable method as the method beyond which "art dares not and cannot go." We have come to hold the view that that method is best which is all-sided and elastic enough to fit itself to the varying conditions, to the special class, and to the particular individual. But most important of all, and embracing all, is that phase of it which discovers each in all and all in each, which is the correlative of the "unity in diversity" of the child nature, and which, recognizing this great fundamental truth, co-ordinates all branches to the one end of an all-sided growth and harmonious development.

Along with the great question "How?" comes the twin question "What?" What are the instrumentalities by which this all-around training is to be accomplished? Reading, spelling and arithmetic? Yes; cordially, yes, and as thoroughly taught as ever—but these and more, much more, besides; and by the "more" I do firmly trust and gladly hope to make our children live in the light of a happy wisdom that shall make them feel that life is worth living.

How much do we, here to-day, know of the great life of the world which enfolds us? What do we know of even the most ordinary avocations through which come to us many of our indispensable comforts? What do we know of the nature world that lies close around us? We unfortunates, city born and bred, with much book-learning and many years devoted to enriching our minds, what can we boast of the lore of Whittier's barefoot boy?

When vacation comes, and with glad expectation we hie us to the woods and fields and seashore, we find ourselves in a strange land of daily miracle, of loveliness and harmony. But, alas! the beautiful secrets of nature are locked against us, "for, having eyes we see not; and ears, yet we hear not."

To this lack of early training in right ways of looking out upon nature and our fellow man, are largely due our many limitations. We blunder blindly along and,

> Daily with souls that cringe and plot
> We Sinais climb and know it not.

Let us, then, be moved to do for the coming generation what we can to lead out every faculty of soul and mind and spirit to a right understanding and true appreciation of the beauty and use of this God-given life.

THE CURRICULUM.

We find, therefore, that it is the course of study upon which even the ideal teacher will need to depend largely as her means to bring about this all-sided, harmonious development of the child.

Within the memory of most of us, the course of study, particularly in the lower grades, has undergone a great change. We stand

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on greater heights and see with clearer vision. In the old days and ways we set up for ourselves with zeal and honest intent an ideal, too—a very golden calf of an ideal, it is true, but still our ideal of what the child ought to learn; and we went to work with zest and earnestness to teach it to him, to drill it into him, and we did it.

But as for co-ordinating the studies, or relating what the children were learning in school to the interests of their every-day life and avocations, it was, except by the sages, unthought of; and to have held, that there are other and higher aims for education than the acquiring of learning, would have been deemed fanatical. But

> New occasions teach new duties,
> Time makes ancient good uncouth;
> They must upward still and onward
> Who would keep abreast of truth.

And the great difference between the then and the now lies, chiefly, in our point of view, as to true aim of education. Upon this hinges the whole change from the old to what we call the "new education," though, as Preyer says, "the path has been lying open for a hundred years, but has been little trodden, and, therefore, is practically a new path." But yet the educational idea has not been at a standstill. It has felt strongly the influence of this marvelous age.—an age in which the sciences and mechanic arts have made giant strides; which has witnessed victories of progress in political and social fields.

While educational progress has not been, perhaps, so notable as these others, yet there has been a steady advance. Now this past century of slow and almost hidden growth is beginning to ripen into fruitage. The last ten years have witnessed a rapid development of the educational idea, and we are on the threshold of a new era; the new education is destined to be universal. Not only are the best educational journals full of it, but all the principal normal schools—those of general scope—have taken up the subject. Men from every profession are giving it serious consideration, and from all points of view. We find statesmen, physicians, lawyers, artists, actors, as well as schoolmen, writing in the current magazines upon the various educational topics.

Now, the aim of this new education, as even its opponents are fain to admit, is to base the work of the child upon his own experiences, to lead him to gather data for thought from his personal observation, and to inspire him to interpret these experiences and observations independently and originally, to relate them with each other and with all previously gained knowledge, and to apply them to the interests and acts of his daily life.

In order to facilitate the operation of this plan of training and accomplish its aims, it becomes the duty of the teacher or school

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officers to provide such an arrangement of conditions and instrumentalities as shall give the child opportunity for this self-revelation through self-activity, provoke and promote observation, and, at the same time, stimulate and guide thought.

It is Froebel, above all others, to whom we owe the inspiration of this new education. We all know the history of his life-work, and how, following the lead of Nature, he founded upon her laws that philosophical system of education, so true to nature and so practical that the sages have been humbly glad to go to the kindergarten to learn wisdom; and so from him have we learned, that, in order to educate the child along the lines the Great Creator has laid down in his being, we must discover the true correspondence of the world without to the soul within; we must place the child in right relations to the world—the real world of facts and events—and in the natural conditions for spiritual and mental, as well as physical, growth. In order to clearly perceive what are these true relations and these natural conditions, we look about us, and we see that the child in his usual state of freedom is encompassed by the myriad actualities and activities of life and nature, about which his active young senses are gathering in continually, though in a hap-hazard way, items of information; vague notions, mainly, for his untrained mind can assimilate but little of the food thus presented through the senses.

When he enters school it becomes the duty of the teacher not to take him from this natural plane and put him on the artificial plane of purely formal studies, as we were wont to do, but, taking cognizance of them as natural factors in his education, present these everyday facts in such guise and orderly array and sequence that the child's mind may rightly and clearly apprehend them, may correlate them and give expression to them as definite knowledge.

How may this be done? We will consider the "how" presently, but let us first consider "what" these items of information are. We find them to be ideas, more or less exact, of color, sound, quality, form, dimension, size—relative and absolute—number, quantity, direction, distance, location, time, space, measurement.

Ideas of snow and ice, wind and storm, heat and cold, clouds and sunshine, day and night, and the seasons; of sun and moon, and sometimes stars. Ideas of places, of streets, or roads and lanes, hill and valley, river and brook, and sometimes ocean or lake.

Ideas of stones and rocks and sand or clay, of coal or wood or iron, of gold and silver and tin. Ideas of trees, leaves and grass, and perhaps grains, of flowers, fruit, vegetables. Ideas of the various domestic animals, of birds and insects. Ideas of their own little anatomies. Ideas of trades and occupations, of buying and selling; of foods and clothing; of houses and buildings; of vehicles; ideas

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of family relations, home duties, etc. In fact, ideas of all that life teaches in her daily object lessons.

If we should classify these under their technical names, we should assemble what would seem a formidable array of subjects for young minds to grapple with. For, besides the reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, music and drawing, usually found in the primary school curriculum, we should have sociology and moral science, history and civil government, geography, including physics and chemistry, mineralogy and astronomy, botany and zoology, physiology and hygiene and geometry; and with all this a broad field of literature. A formidable array, truly, and one at which our "forbears" might gasp in dismay.

But, after all, what are these but the things with which the children are brought into daily familiar contact—the instrumentalities which nature has placed before us for the training of these living, growing minds and souls!

Let us see whether this "Nature's course of study," which we claim to be essential to a full, harmonious and all-sided education, is practicable and may be put into the schools.

To facilitate the classification and the putting into operation of these nature studies—using the word "nature" in its broadest sense—they may be classed under the general heading "language lessons," for which, in most schools, twenty-five or thirty minutes daily is usually set off in the program; each subject under this general heading to take its proportional number of lessons in the year's assignment; and each subject to come in at its appropriate season.

We will commence, if you please, with those lessons which have their beginnings in the first days of the first year of the primary school. The teacher in the ideal school will devote her earliest conversational lessons to those subjects that lie nearest to the interests of the children.

She will talk to them about their names and ages, ask about birthdays, get them to tell her of brothers and sisters, of the baby, of the grandmother, of companions and playmates. These little confidences will lead on to the subject of kindness and consideration for brothers and sisters, for neighbors and friends; care of the weak, respect due the aged, love for and obedience to parents, etc. From the home, by natural transition, comes the school. Little forms of politeness applicable to the school, and to the home as well, are taught and practiced daily; courtesy and unselfishness on the playground and in the street; recognition of and regard for the rights of others, respect for and obedience to authority; all such points as these are made topics of definite lessons on morals and manners, which broaden out with the advancing grade of the pupil, and form the basis and standard of that ethical teaching which is an essential element of all instruction and training.

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These conversational lessons serve a manifold purpose. They link the home and the school and they train the children in speaking before others—in public, as it were—an especially helpful element for the little strangers of the first year. But, most of all, they inculcate those ideas which are the germs of what we may call moral science, the duty of man to man, of man to his higher self.

Conversations, while beginning with the birthdays of the children, lead on by natural transition to the various anniversaries of the year, bringing us to the threshold of history. These lessons on the anniversaries of the nation and of the Christian world, begin naturally with that of Thanksgiving Day. Its purposes and origin are told by the teacher in effective story, adapted to the advancement of the pupil and accompanied by an appropriate poem to be learned by them. In the same way, as they occur, are treated the events of Christmas, Washington's Birthday and Memorial Day. Each becomes the center of historical associations, and each has its appropriate literature, poem or extract, which touches the heart or fires the patriotism.

These oral history lessons, in story and poem, lead on in ever widening circles through the four primary grades, and, beginning with the local history of city or township, touch upon the principal events and personages of American history.

Along with the course in history, and co-ordinated, also, with that of conduct and morals, may be carried a line of topics for oral language lessons, which constitute the beginning of the study of civil government. These may begin with the name of the teacher and the principal of the building, etc., leading up to the names of the school officials, and what they do to carry on the schools. Then comes the city government, with its various departments and officers, and their several functions. This opens the way to the considerations of the main facts of the State and National government; and a four years' course will have laid a very fair foundation for the intelligent study of civil government.

As soon as the children reach the stage where, in experience and imagination, they can be carried in thought beyond their immediate environment, geography should be closely related with the history.

This oral geography, however, should have its beginning in the first conversation with the children about the home and school. Here they first formulate and make definite their ideas of location, position, distance, etc. Here, also, are formulated their ideas in descriptive geography, of the aspect of the surface of the earth as they see it about them—ideas of streets, roads, lanes, hill and valley, brook and river, etc.

In the second and third years are begun exercises in observations, of the changes of day and night, the rising and setting of the

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sun, the horizon, the points of the compass, and such like topics, which constitute the elements of mathematical and astronomical geography.

The study of political geography has also its beginnings here, in the study of the local geography of the city or township. By means of a skillfully arranged series of stories about this wonderful ball on which we live, by well directed observations, by use of sand maps and the globe, the general physical aspect of the earth and its grand divisions is learned, and the child is made ready for the more formal study of the subject in the text-book. In the realm of geography, and co-ordinated with it, in even the primary grades, comes properly those elements of physics and chemistry of which the child sees examples almost daily.

The freezing of water and other liquids into solids, the melting of snow, the formation of steam and vapor, the origin of rain and snow and hail; the action of the sun's heat upon water, the refraction of light by the prism, the rainbow, water seeking its level, combustion, and many others of the ordinary chemical and physical phenomena, can and should be taught by observation and by demonstration in simple experiments.

Under the title of physiology and hygiene should be given from the very first a series of lessons, graded to the advancement of the pupils, upon the human body as a whole and as to its parts (external only, in the beginning), in which special attention is called to the beauty, the wonderfulness, the usefulness of each and all.

Lessons on the organs of sense, with the uses of the senses taught objectively and trained by special exercises; lessons on the skin, with special directions for cleanliness and cautions against the ills that come to us by this road; lessons on sitting, standing and walking properly, and on the acquiring of correct habits, should be correlated with and form the conscious basis of their daily physical culture exercises.

Lessons should be given on food and drink, with special reference to the what, when and why which govern the regulation of diet, and consequent health and growth; also, lessons on breathing, and on pure and impure air, and the necessity for proper ventilation. It is these every day facts which relate to proper living which we should dwell upon in the lower grades, giving the pupils a proper respect for this earthly temple, and leaving the science to the higher grades.

And let me interpose just here, that this physical training should be made as much an essential part of the curriculum as the mental training and the moral training. Its educational value is co-ordinate with its hygienic value, and its application to the education of the child should be made from a scientific basis.

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We cannot but be profoundly impressed by this week's "study of child nature" symposium; with the intimate connection between motor ability and thought-action in young children, and for the necessity of a right understanding of this interdependence for the true order and right method of development, not only physically, but mentally.

In botany the children can also begin at once on entering school in the fall with simple object lessons upon the bright autumn leaves, so easily attainable by even the tiniest child. Their interest, first attracted by their beauty of coloring, is easily drawn to their form and structure.

The pressing and fixing of the leaves in various designs on blank paper for school-room decorations also gives opportunity for the "social work," the cultivation of an *esprit de corps*—a community of interest—so much to be desired.

The lessons on leaves may be followed in the winter season by lessons on fruit, nuts, and some of the vegetable roots, and these correlated with the hygiene of food. In the earliest spring comes the study of the awakening leaf bud, and then the window gardens may be made ready and the peas and beans and morning glories and other seeds, planted by the children, who will watch with intensest interest to see the little green points come peeping up from under the mold.

And here, let me repeat, and I cannot too strongly emphasize this point, that in every case the child must be the observer, the experimenter; not the teacher. It is the child who must search and discover for himself and tell. We set from nature not only our objects of study, but our methods of study.

A four years' progressive course of such observation work, rightly directed, and wisely supplemented by oral lessons and by written and illustrated records, in which the plant is studied as a whole—as to the relation of part to part and as to the development and function of each part—cannot but result in power and knowledge.

These natural history lessons include, also, of course, zoology; that is, lessons on the domestic animals and fowls which have long had a place as object lessons, and, in addition, study commonly known birds, insects, such as the earth-worm, the ant, the caterpillar, with its wonderful transitional life, teaching the beautiful lesson of hope; the industrious bee, with its social habits.

These are, or should be, studied from life. There is scarcely a school-room to which a cat, or a caterpillar, for instance, cannot be brought. Every lesson should be accompanied by an appropriate story, told or read to the children. Stories which teach some lesson of love and care for and protection of dumb animals—for all living

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things. Stories that will touch the sympathy and arouse a feeling of responsibility towards all of God's creatures.

In every one of these subjects, under the general heading of language lessons, the oral and the written reproductions, are made the basis of language training; for in this way, and in none other better, the pupils learn to use language fluently and accurately, and in the written work all such matters as capitalization, punctuation, etc., are practiced and learned more readily and understandingly, and with far less expenditure of time and effort than in the old way of giving rules and special exercises; in fact, it is "learning by doing."

All these that I have outlined are in addition to reading, arithmetic, penmanship, music and literature, which, as has been seen, has everywhere a place in the choice selections of prose and verse which accompany and supplement every branch. And, also, the manual training course, which, though constituting a method rather than a plan, an instrumentality rather than a distinct department, I will nevertheless briefly consider separately, as, in the present status of education, it must, for several reasons, be treated as a separate branch. Says a thoughtful writer, speaking in behalf of the manual training expression: "The human mind is creative as well as acquisitive, and a scheme of education which develops the acquisition side only is fatally one-sided and partial." Another says: "The complete mental act begins in experience, is established in thought and bears fruit in action." Assuming then, that the creative activity should be called in to perform its share of the work of developing thought, the manual expression should, wherever and whenever possible, lend its aid. How may this be done? I can have time to illustrate but by a single instance.

Suppose that—in the second year, perhaps—the teacher, in her nature work, is giving a lesson on fish, and has for her object a minnow. After the oral object lesson, and before the written reproduction takes place, suppose she gives the children clay and has them model the fish under consideration. Can you not imagine how active and acute must be the observation; how much truer an image, both as to a whole and as to detail, is formed in the mind of the child; and how much richer and more exact will be this written expression of his idea?

But besides these co-ordinate uses of the manual method, there are certain subjects in which the manual expression should have the most prominent part. Among the most evident of these are those subjects based upon form.

The manual constructive method is the true method for the foundation study of geometry in all its divisions, and it has been thus demonstrated that it can be studied at a much earlier period than has

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been formerly thought possible; in fact, it should begin with the first weeks of the child's school life.

It would be of little avail to outline a course of study in this department, and for obvious reasons. Though there is none I am more deeply interested in, I fear my enthusiasm would carry me too far and too deeply into a discussion of it. So I will stay only to say, that there are certain kindergarten occupations which, if rightly applied, form the best basis for the carrying on of this line of work, for the application of this method.

DISCUSSION.

MISS LYDIA A. KIRBY. Philadelphia, Pa.—The essentials of an ideal curriculum are: First, it must develop all the powers or faculties of the child in their natural order and according to their relative importance; second, it must be flexible enough to adjust itself to the growth of the child, and broad enough to embrace the wide difference in the environment of the pupils and teachers for whose use it is made.

The curriculum for elementary schools must be sufficiently attractive to win the child by its own inherent interest, so that it need not be imposed upon him by authority. In brief, it must fit the child.

It is these tests that we would apply to the paper before us. The writer claims that the ideal curriculum she outlines is according to nature's method; that it is practicable and possible. Its first step links the school with the home, the next attaches it to the world around him, and the last extends his mental horizon to the world that is beyond his physical grasp. The body and the soul are not forgotten.

I need scarcely stop to enlarge upon the value of the first of these steps. The sudden transition from the familiar faces of the home circle to the strange population of the school, from his loved pets and toys to the more forbidding appliances of learning, has been stripped of its terrors for the timid child, because educators have studied this part of the situation more thoroughly than any other, and a radical reform in the work of the first days of school life has already been made. Teachers all feel the necessity of making the child feel "at home" in the school-room.

The writer of the paper under discussion, taking advantage of the situation, wisely builds upon it the first steps in sociology with the duties and responsibilities pertaining thereto. These ethical teachings are to be definite in matter and in purpose in the mind of the teacher, as carefully planned as a lesson in geography or arithmetic, linked in matter to that which has preceded. As in arithmetic or history the first steps should lead by no devious route to the end of the pathway, so in morals and manners the end or aim should be direct and definite. This character building, of which we talk so much when we are at leisure, and of which we do so little when we stand amid the press of the manifold duties of the school-room, must take definite space and place, or it will either be dropped altogether or done spasmodically. As well try to teach history, grammar or arithmetic at any informal opportunity that shall present itself as teach morals in that way. Do not mistake

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my meaning. Children detest sermonizing. I sympathize with the culprit who said to his mother. "If you are going to whip me, do it; but don't talk about it and whip, too."

A skillful use of the material presented in such full measure in the paper you have heard, will enable the teacher to inculcate and emphasize the cardinal virtues of childhood, without giving the child the idea that he is being preached to or lectured. Politeness, unselfishness, regard for the rights of others, love for the creatures of the earth and for the earth itself, shall, in the future, grow from these small beginnings. Think of four years of such teaching falling upon the starved soul of the little one, coming from a home without a mother or from one in which poverty or ignorance has driven the softer graces of love! Teachers, you can make Eden and Paradise possible to the adult age of this child through the Jerusalem of such a school!

When character-building shall receive the time and attention which its value demands, the public will change its estimate of the teacher's work and advance her compensation. The world is, in the long run, shrewd enough and business-like enough to know a good thing when it really gets it.

The language lesson, oral and written, dealing with the incidents in the daily life of the school and the home, are already in the schools. With little trouble, you can lead the child to the deeds done by those whom he has not seen, and thus history has its beginning. Childhood is as capable of building ideals as more advanced age. Many a boy of four or five has already determined that he will be "a man just like papa!" Give these little ones the deeds of earth's best and noblest, and having done your best, leave the rest to God, not asking that each shall be a Horatius or a Cincinnatus, but content that each shall be a better son, brother or citizen for your teaching.

I have said "the second step attaches the school to the world around the child." There is a greater significance in this than you may at first accord it. The young child loves the world. Its every day facts, that have no novelty for us, have an irresistible attraction for him. Next to doing things himself, he loves to see others do them. How many times has the patient teacher, who has been urging punctuality upon the little ones, seen all her work nullified, for the time, by the men who were hoisting a stone upon the wall of a building or laying a railroad track!

Children generally view with delight the actions of the worm, the spider, the bee, etc., until ignorance puts enmity between the child and nature by a frequently reiterated command from the mother or nurse to "Put down that nasty thing! It will hurt you!" It is here that cruelty to animals begins.

The inanimate in nature is so novel, so wonderful, the child's curiosity is so keen at this stage, that no one can question the propriety of beginning the study of nature in the primary grades.

On the other hand, the child's will-power, his moral power, his self-control, are weak. His co-operation with you must be bought, not commanded. You must win him to work as nature does and with her tools. In proportion as you bring attractive elements of the outside world into the school-room will truant-playing and absence diminish. The list of studies named in the paper sounds formidable. It bristles with "ologies" and "isms." The wayfaring man and the fool shall err therein. The unprofessional, and even some of the professional, teachers shall vote it impossible. It will be a failure in the hands of those who have not studied the child and who do not love him.

It has been said by a great educator that the young child can learn a little of a great many things, but not a great deal of anything. This is, I take it, what is proposed in the paper before us. Its author, after classifying the child's acquired knowledge under the various heads of sociology, moral science, chemistry, botany, astronomy, etc., remarks: "What are all these but the things with which the chil-

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dren are brought into daily familiar contact?" This is the key to the understanding of the work: not all or even much of these as sciences; not formulated knowledge; not the classification and the nomenclature adopted by each, but so much as the child can receive through his senses, first, and through his imagination, building upon his sense perception, afterwards.

In this work, "the little child shall lead them" (the instructors). So far as he can be induced to walk with us we will go and no farther. Let us study him if we would not blunder here. I have seen a class of little ones as listless and inattentive while watching an experiment for producing salt by evaporation as I have ever seen them while being forced to learn a definition in arithmetic. They had, at six years of age, neither the practice nor the attention required by the length of time which it took to complete the experiment.

I would be quite satisfied in botany to have him examine only the trees or plants that grow near him. I would restrict his zoology to the animals seen in his home or on the street, in the first year, and after that, by toys, pictures, the zoological garden and the aid of his imagination he might, in the third and fourth years, be led to think the animals of the torrid and frozen zone.

In hygiene, the paper wisely requires more. These nature studies are not to be pursued independently. They are to be related to each other and to those studies which are acknowledged by all to be indispensable. Each is to facilitate the acquiring of the other. In this manner time may be made for teaching what appears to be so much more than has been ordinarily required of the pupil in the first four years of school life.

Relate the work of the school to the world about him, and, as he looks at the flowers, the water, or the rocks, they will present to his mind the truths you have taught.

These new studies are not to take the place of the old or even to curtail overmuch their ancient privileges; for, like all old residents, they claim precedence in importance over newcomers, and the latter must prove their right to be by many a well contested battle ere they are admitted into the company of the ancients.

There be some of us who contend that these studies for which we plead, rightly taught as language lessons, will yield all the mental discipline that has been claimed for mathematics, formal parsing, etc., with much other good that these never could and never can give. The study of moods and tenses never gave wings to the imagination; the study of the facts of number, quantity and their co-relatives never led the heart or the soul of the boy or girl to walk with nature nor led it up to nature's God.

The old idea in education was to train the child to gain a living; the new education aims to train him to live.

The anxious, conscientious teacher sitting here says, perhaps: "I am willing to do this work, but how can I get time for it all?" I have spoken of the relating of these studies to each other, by which time is saved, but there is another way in which it may be gained. How many hours of time are wasted in our primary grades because the children's tasks are not interesting? How many hours are wasted in useless repetitions by pupils on slate or paper, repetitions which, the mental stimulus being absent, produce no lasting impression and which have to be made again and again.

The child learns what he wants to learn in half the time that he learns that which you compel him to learn. He spends hours in dreary writing of words or tables that the teacher fondly thinks will impress the truth upon the mind, but, as Dr. White says, "Undirected repetition produces stupidity." Here is a fine chance for getting more time for other things.

I have said the new aim of education is to teach the child to live; to enjoy to the full the patrimony that was prepared for him from the days that the morning

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stars sang together. He is embryo man—possible angel. Look at him on no small scale. Will you open his eyes that he may see the wonders of his heritage? Will you train his ears to hear the melody of the whispering breeze or the grand harmony of the ocean waters, thus working with the angels? Is it not worth while? What will it do for us? This is working with the child, for the child will help us.

MISS HARRIET L. KEELER of Cleveland warmly commended the paper and discussion. This ideal school is destined soon to become the real school. Nay, in some places in our country it is the real school. It is the need of the age. What do we see to-day but the blind forces of human nature rising up against law and order? The child must be so taught as to assure the safety of society. The Goth and Vandal of our hearts is to be met in the coming struggle.

MR. J. F. SMITH, Grinnell, Iowa, said that the heart of every teacher is saddened by the sight of thousands of children, going out into the world from our grammar schools, unprepared for the work of life. We must so arrange our work, and so do our work, as to bring into the mind of the child what there is in knowledge for them, and we shall have them push their way into higher schools. They must have at least some conception of what is in it for them. He himself dated all his love for study and teaching from the time when he discovered that in arithmetic was something more than the fact that six plus five was eleven. The same principle applies elsewhere. When an idea is once grasped it is held in his mind ever after. If a pupil saw, for instance, how the table of long measure came to be as it is, it would be indelibly impressed upon his memory. Take geometry, make it thoroughly concrete, and teach arithmetic through geometry.

DR. EDWARD BROOKS of Philadelphia said that he cordially coincided with the idea of the two ladies who spoke first. The problems of elementary education lie at the foundation of all education. Primary teachers attempt the solution of one of the most important questions in all education when they discuss the course of study of elementary schools. Two elements enter into this question: First, the child himself; second, the great world about him, that correlates with the potentialities of the child. The child mind is not different from the mature mind, whatever may have been said by some of the greatest leaders of educational thought during this present meeting of the National Association to the contrary. Truly, the child is father to the man. Any other notion is misleading. Child psychology is not different from adult psychology. He mentioned a child in his own home, a grandchild two and one-half years old, that has already in its infantile mind the elements of physics, of botany, and especially of zoology, mineralogy, and, in a childish way, of psychology.

What are children interested in? What attracts and develops the energies of the child first? Turn to the great world of knowledge; it came from the human mind. It is a world of mind. The world of matter is also to be used in the education of the child. Between these two worlds there stands the spiritual world: feeling, intelligence, thought, the will, are to be formed and informed. What a task is this! Some claim that alone the material world is to be taught to the child. He thought differently. Not geography, not natural history, not literature alone, is to be the basis of elementary education. Not any one, but all of these, and more, should be its basis. It is heterodox to base the education of a child upon the material world. Rather base it upon the spiritual world, and all the others. Lift the child from materialism to spirituality. Mr. Emerson says that the scientist puts insects into a bottle, but let him beware lest he put himself into the bottle; and let us beware lest we put the children into a bottle and label them.

SUPT. WILLIAM N. BARRINGER, Newark, N. J., said that he feared that the best men of to-day thought that our redemption is to lie in a course of study. He

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favored a good course of study; but the highest school, that which spends its time in making men and women of its pupils is best described by Garfield's oft-quoted saying, "that the truest and best university is a log with Mark Hopkins at one end for a teacher, and a student at the other end." Do not expect to evolve everything from the mechanical arrangements of the school.

He does not teach arithmetic for the sake of developing arithmetic or any other subject to develop it; but he teaches all subjects for the great purpose of developing the child. The rest is incidental. We must train our teachers to be what they want the children to become. Nothing can touch character but character. We shall lift our schools through the coming, well-prepared teachers. He felt that it was not yet time to teach children merely how to live. They must be taught to make a living, not simply get one, for our feet still rest on mother earth.

MISS SCOFIELD of South Carolina spoke feelingly of the needs of the children of the colored people of the South. She said that there must be, in order to reach the child and properly benefit him, some interest felt and manifested in the home of the child and its surroundings there, on the part of the teacher.

MRS. MARY H. HUNT said that one time, owing to a delay of two hours from a derailed train, she looked about her and saw a little schoolhouse on the hill. She entered and listened awhile to the intelligent young teacher. She seemed to know something of a new order of things, and I asked her what she was doing in the way of teaching the newly introduced scientific instruction in temperance. She answered by timidly giving a lesson on the subject for my benefit. It was a helpless way, her way of handling the subject, and she seemed to feel it. Mrs. Hunt said that she herself then showed in that school-room how to teach it; she took hold of the subject, and developed a method of bringing out the truth adapted to the development of the child. She said that the moral education of the children must be done, if ever done, in the elementary school.

DR. RICKOFF of New York said, that, with regard to the question at issue, "What may our children know?" he felt that the little child, however poorly taught, is a philosopher at heart. The germ is there; it should be cultivated, if he is to grow to the full stature of manhood.

MISS DUTTON of Cleveland, Ohio, bore her testimony to the abiding power of this kind of teaching. In a certain school there was one ideal teacher in the first primary grade, and she (Miss Dutton) could select afterwards in the seventh and eighth grades the former pupils of this teacher. They were so well prepared and so richly prepared. They even then drew, in their language work, from what they got in the first year. She one day asked all the pupils of the eighth grade to tell in writing their impressions of their first year at school. Many of them, unconsciously, testified to the power of her teaching. One of the brightest boys said: "That was the best year I ever saw." That one year had influenced them more than all the others.

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DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 1894.

The department met in the Methodist church, Wednesday afternoon at 3 o'clock, Dr. Amelia Earle Trant, Acting President, in the chair. and W. H. Bartholomew at the Secretary's desk.

Rev. Dr. Allen, minister of the Methodist church, spoke words of hearty welcome.

Dr. Trant gave an admirable inaugural address.

Prof. Charles P. Lynch, Principal of the High School, Cleveland, Ohio, read a paper on the topic, "Is It True that the Most Defective Part of the Education in This Country is That of the Secondary School?"

The following discussed this paper: J. T. Buchanan, Kansas City, Mo.; E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, Ohio; Charles C. Ramsay, Fall River, Mass.; W. H. Smiley, Denver, Colo.

Messrs. Harris and Smith being absent, the reading of their papers was postponed to a future meeting.

"How May a Professional Spirit be Acquired by the Teachers of the Secondary Schools of America?" was the topic treated in admirable and attractive manner by Miss Ida B. Haslop, Pueblo, Colo.

This paper was discussed by J. Remsen Bishop, Cincinnati, Ohio; J. T. Buchanan, Kansas City, Mo.; L. C. Hull, Lawrenceville, N. J.; C. C. Ramsay, Fall River, Mass.

Mr. W. Wilberforce Smith, New Jersey, read a paper on the topic, "Should Latin be a Required Study?" and the same was discussed by Ray Greene Huling, Cambridge, Mass.; J. Fred Smith of Grinnell, Iowa; and H. P. Emerson of Buffalo, N. Y.

The following Committee on Nominations was appointed by the President: E. L. Harris, Cleveland, Ohio; Lawrence C. Hull of Lawrenceville, N. J.; J. T. Buchanan, Kansas City, Mo.; Miss Bull of New York; Miss Ida B. Haslop, Pueblo, Colo.

SECOND SESSION.—THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 12, 1894.

The President called the meeting to order at 3 o'clock.

A letter was received from Principal W. T. White of Knoxville, Tenn., in which he stated that in consequence of the railroad strike he was unable to be present.

Dr. Trant referred in fitting and feeling terms to the decease of President Crombie before introducing Dr. Huling, who read a paper on the life and services of President Crombie.

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"Discipline as the Result of Self-Government" was ably presented in a paper read by A. V. Storm, and the same was discussed by W. H. Smiley, Denver, Colo.; F. S. Fosdick of Buffalo, N. Y.; J. T. Buchanan of Kansas City, Mo.; E. O. Hovey of Newark, N. J.; E. L. Harris of Cleveland, Ohio; and Mr. Stork of Montgomery, Ala.

A paper on "The Relation and the Possibilities of High School Training in Regard to Public Speaking" was read by Frank Sheldon Fosdick, Buffalo, N. Y.

"High Schools and Academies—Their Place in the State Educational System, and the Proper Course of Study for Them" was not read; but in accordance with established rule, it was reserved for publication.

A paper was presented by Miss Eoline Clark of Fremont, Neb., entitled "The Training of High School Teachers: (a) Is the Term of Service in the Grammar School Advisable? (b) Is There a Need of Specialists?"

The paper was discussed by Miss Ida B. Haslop of Pueblo, Colo.; Chas. C. Ramsay, Fall River, Mass.; E. O. Hovey of Newark, N. J.; Henry F. Purdy, Brewster, N. Y.; C. P. Lynch of Cleveland, Ohio; and Dr. Trant of Buffalo, N. Y.

"The Future of the American High School, and How it May Advance Patriotism" was treated by J. Remsen Bishop of Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio.

The report of the Committee on Nominations was presented by the Chairman and unanimously adopted.

Your Committee on Nominations would respectfully report the following officers for the Department of Secondary Education of the National Educational Association for the ensuing year:

President—W. H. Smiley of Colorado.
Vice President—Miss H. L. Keeler of Ohio.
Secretary—Mr. C. H. Thurber of New York.

EDWARD L. HARRIS,
HARRIET E. BULL,
IDA B. HASLOP,
J. T. BUCHANAN,
L. C. HULL,
Committee.

Mr. Sites of Washington, D. C., moved that a vote of thanks be extended to the Acting President and the other officers for their excellent work in the preparation and carrying out of the program of this department. This motion unanimously prevailed.

The department then, upon motion, adjourned to meet one year from this date.

W. H. BARTHOLOMEW,
Secretary.

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IS IT TRUE THAT THE MOST DEFECTIVE PART OF EDUCATION IN THIS COUNTRY IS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS?

BY CHARLES P. LYNCH, HIGH SCHOOL, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

It is needless to review the history of the movement which culminated in the publication of what School Commissioner Harris pronounces "the most important educational document ever published in this country." In his letter of transmittal Commissioner Harris says: "It has been agreed on all hands that the most defective part of the education in this country is that of secondary schools."

Our oldest institutions of learning are those of higher education. The Boston Latin School, established in 1635, Harvard the year after, and Yale in 1700, are the pioneers of a long line of colleges. From the establishment of Harvard till 1818 the only public schools were the so-called grammar schools, in reality schools of mixed grades, with a comprehensive course of elementary and secondary instruction, often fitting for college, but to which children were not admitted unless they "had learned in some other school or in some other way to read the English language." The "other way" was the private school or the home, the only means of primary instruction for many years, and it is only in recent years that the primary schools have been recognized as a part of the free public school system.

Of still later development—the latest, and, therefore, the youngest—is that of the high school. The academy is an older institution, but it was not a free school, and the modern high school, free to all, is the youngest child in the educational household. The college, then, has a history of two and a half centuries, the grammar schools of less than one, the primary of a little over one-half, while the free high school has not much more than a quarter of a century. If, as thus indicated, the secondary schools are of less than a half century's growth, it is not to be wondered at if they are the most defective. This charge cannot be sustained against many of the great secondary schools in the large cities. However, viewing the whole range of secondary education in comparison with the departments immediately above and below it, Dr. Harris is not alone in the conviction that the one latest in the line of development—the secondary—is as yet the most defective.

In speaking of the defects in secondary education, they may be regarded as, first, absolute, and, second, relative—absolute, as these defects are found within the secondary schools themselves; relative, as considered in their relation to the college. Of the absolute defects the most prominent are perhaps (1) inferiority of teaching ability, and

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(2) inferiority in equipment. The inferiority of teaching ability in secondary schools may be partially accounted for by the fact that the subjects themselves are much more difficult both for instructors to teach and for pupils to learn, for the transition from grammar school to high school is so sudden that it requires a long time for pupils to adjust themselves to it. This work so new to the high school pupil requires a high order of instruction.

The great need in secondary school work is the higher educational qualification of its teachers. True, a large proportion of them are graduates from college, and many of them have a normal training; but a larger proportion are not masters of the situation, and are conscious that they are not. It is true that the conditions under which teachers labor in America are peculiar when compared with those of England, Germany or France, where teaching more nearly approaches a profession than with us, and if remedies are secured to relieve the situation it must be by the teachers themselves. The mills of the legislators grind slowly, and action from this source is not likely to bring immediate relief. The relief must come from our own resources.

No one questions the truth that vastly more is required from teachers than a mere knowledge of the work to be covered in teaching, and yet here is one of the grave defects in secondary school work. While there are many, there are not enough high school teachers who are at the same time hard students—teachers who show such mastery of the subjects taught as to be an inspiration to pupils to read, think and work outside the narrow groove of text-book study. Professor Hinsdale asks, in a paper read at Toronto in 1891: "Which is better: much scholarship and little method, or little scholarship and much method? The answer to this question cannot for a moment be held in doubt. Both theory and experience declare for scholarship." Following the general scholarship of this comprehensive character, there must be provided a more general professional training of teachers.

Many States have established institutions for the training of teachers, but their work is so elementary in its character that finished scholarship has avoided them. Their courses of study are below the rank of secondary schools, and the character of training is principally for primary departments. As a result, our primary schools are furnished with better teaching ability than any other.

It is not to be expected that the normal schools can offer sufficient training for the 400,000 teachers, or, indeed, any great proportion of them; but they can furnish training for a large proportion of the lower grades, and the colleges should offer courses in pedagogics to all graduates who contemplate entering the teaching profession. Clark, Johns Hopkins, Harvard, Cornell, Ann Arbor, and other universities, are providing courses in pedagogics, which, if generally pursued,

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would, in a few years, together with other agencies, greatly elevate the rank of professional work. Summer schools are doing helpful work, but it is generally too diffusive to be fully adequate to what is needed. The need for conference among teachers on their special subjects, it is hoped, will be followed ere long by some wisely arranged system of conferences such as shall bring together those who are engaged in the same line of work, and the Secondary Department of the National Educational Association could accomplish much by taking steps toward inaugurating such conferences, and thus raising the standard of professional work in secondary schools. There is need of professional work and professional spirit among secondary school teachers. I will venture to say, that there is more professional spirit among lower grade teachers than among those of the higher. The greatest stress has been put upon elementary work in later years, more educational journals are published especially for primary teachers, who attend more associations and institutes, and, in short, are more enthusiastic and alive to the dignity of their work, than any other body of teachers.

The aggressive, growing teacher cannot fail to see that a standard requiring a college training, not for a few, but for all teachers, and this followed by continuous and well directed study as educational qualification—a college training for all, I repeat, as educational qualification—a thorough course in pedagogics, or its nearest equivalent, as professional qualification, will be a great advance toward removing the serious defects in secondary school work.

The defect of inferiority, or utter lack, of apparatus is a difficult one to remedy, and yet it is especially noticeable in secondary grades. It is a defect which can only be remedied by school committees, incited by enlightened public opinion. Every school should have the use of a lantern and lantern slides so varied as to meet the needs of all its departments. The classical department should have its Greek and Roman views, showing the places of interest referred to in the course of their reading—the Forum, Colosseum, Pantheon, Parthenon, Appian Way and others—at least fifty classical views which will constitute a permanent and valuable addition to any high school equipment. A collection of French and German views, especially interesting to students of modern languages, are obtainable at moderate expense, and there is no need of choice ones from which to choose for use in the study of literature—portrait views, views of celebrated writers' homes, views of lakes, mountains and scenery, prominent in literature, varied and beautiful in character. Classical wall maps, dictionaries, atlases, models, casts, coins, charts, chemical, physical and biological apparatus—as many as possible made or secured by pupils—will be found in the future in the school that would do the best work in all lines. Let the rooms be adorned with constellations,

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Greek roots, Latin stems, and such other designs as are helpful and instructive in character.

One of the most useful, and, at the same time, most æsthetic, helps in the school-room is the presence of appropriate photographs —the Capitolium, the Forum, the Tiber, the palace of the Cæsars, Homer, Cicero, Cæsar, Faraday—each as far as possible appropriately selected with reference to the work taught, will do much toward making dead things animate with life and beauty.

"The way to resume is to resume," and the way to get school equipment is to begin. Pupils will grow enthusiastic, and parents will patronize the efforts made by their children in this laudable work and each class upon entering the high school may be brought to regard it a privilege to add its contribution to the growing supply.

Just at this time our attention is being directed to the defects in secondary schools in relation to the colleges. The educational system of Germany may be likened to a structure consisting of three apartments, each with its own foundation and having no connection with one another. Those who enter the "Volks" school do so without thought of going any further in their education, since this apartment introduces them at once into the ranks of unskilled labor. The "Burger" school and the "Gymnasium" illustrate again the inarticulate system of German education.

Our educational system may be likened to a structure of three stories, on the same foundation—the primary, secondary and the college. We are looking toward the development both downward and upward, making the kindergarten below and the university above a part of our free educational system.

The American system, then, is one in which there is opportunity to pass from one department up to the next, and the fruition of every educator's hopes will be to see the articulation among these departments so close that the embarrassments to all shall be eliminated.

In iron ore there is not a trace of fiber. The prime object in the long process of the manufacture of steel is that the ore shall be so treated that it may come out with unbroken fiber. The "consummation devoutly to be wished" among educators is, that there may be developed, first of all, an educational fiber, and that it may be unbroken in its course from the beginning of the kindergarten through the university.

The colleges for years have been adding new subjects to their requirements for admission, more rapidly than the improvements in the methods of teaching and improvements of courses in secondary schools, resulting in the wider separation of these departments of learning, a smaller percentage of high school graduates entering college, and more entering the technical schools and such other institutions as require less for admission. There is no objection to the

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colleges broadening their requirements for admission by a greater range of electives; but there is room for objection to their lengthening them by absolute requirements out of proportion to what secondary schools can reasonably be expected to meet.

President Eliot says: "The secondary schools, taken as a whole, do not exist for the purpose of preparing boys and girls for college. Their main function is to prepare for the duties of life that small proportion of all the children in the country—a proportion small in number, but very important to the welfare of the nation—who show themselves able to profit by an education prolonged to the eighteenth year, and whose parents are able to support them while they remain so long at school."

This statement is of more than usual significance, coming, as it does, from such a representative of higher education. While it is their main function to prepare for the duties of life this small and important proportion of the children of the country, it is evidently their function to do as much for those who do not go to college as for those who do, and to so equip all that nothing may stand in the way of their passing on to college, if, though late, it is found possible.

It was, doubtless, a surprise to many that there was such perfect unanimity among the Committee of Ten and in the sub-committees in agreeing that "every subject which is taught in a secondary school shall be taught in the same way and to the same extent to every pupil so long as he pursues it, no matter what the probable destination of the pupil may be, or at what point his education is to cease." This surely is a wider conception of the function and scope of education in these days, and it is a source of satisfaction that the conservative East joins the aggressive West in this advance movement. And it appears as if there may be brought about a co-ordination of colleges and public high schools, so that an educational fiber constructed from kindergarten to university may be a practicable possibility throughout the Union.

If the same work is to be taught in the same way to those who go to college and to those who do not, there can be no sacrifice of good results in uniformity of high school programs. But if the subjects are not uniform, the colleges may so broaden their requirements for admission that the question shall not be so much what subjects, as how and with what results were these subjects pursued. We are learning that there is something in the reading of Cæsar, for example, besides translating the four books of the Gallic War. It is a sad comment on the instruction of pupils, who, after completing four books, would be utterly at sea if asked to read a passage from the fifth at sight, and would be utterly unable to read easy Latin without the unnecessary additional step of putting it into spoken English. The requirements should be, not that two books, or four, or six, must

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be read, but that there has been acquired an ability to read Cæsar, any or all of it, or any other Latin of equal difficulty. This principle of quality work rather than quantity work should be the ruling one in estimating the fitness of the pupil to admission to higher grades of work, and it holds good in all branches of instruction.

The chief defect in the high school program is the weakness of the non-classical in comparison with the classical program. This is perhaps true to a greater extent in Eastern than in Western schools. The linguistic element is especially strong in New England schools, while the science work receives a larger share of attention in the West. It would appear that those who take the classical course are to be provided with an intellectual menu superior to that of the non-classical, and arrangements are made for the classical pupil because he is going to college. He reads more Latin, takes Greek, has some special work in English and mathematics. It is not to be implied that he should have less, but that the others should have more; that the non-classical programs should be enriched and be made in their way the peer of the classical. Enriching the course of study, to "quantity" teachers, means heaping on burdens too great to be borne. There is but one refuge, and that is "quality" teaching—"that teaching which makes the soul the focus of light in which all the rays are blended."

There will not be unreserved support on the part of those connected with secondary schools in carrying out the wisely laid plans of this document so far-reaching in educational value, but the leaven will continue to exert its influence till it has leavened the whole lump, and friends of education will see that the interests of all are identical and their aims are one.

The work, however, is not to be monopolized by secondary school teachers. The colleges must make many concessions before there can be anything like close articulation between these two departments of education.

The elementary and secondary schools are free public institutions, carried on and supported by the State. The colleges, with the exception of the State universities, are private institutions carried on independent of the State. The question properly arises: How far shall the private institutions of learning dictate to the public institutions what shall be taught in the latter for admission to the former? For example, one college requires Virgil's "Bucolics" for admission; another, "Ovid;" one, a prescribed amount of special work in English; another, two languages besides English, one of which must be German. It is impossible for there to be close relations between the high schools and colleges while these varied requirements are demanded.

If the plans of the Committee of Ten are carried out, the colleges cannot fail to see that they must adjust themselves to the new order

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of things, and the standard of secondary schools will be raised; those who can may pass on readily to college and to university, and the whole educational system will be greatly fortified at the weak points, and the observer of the future, as he scans the free school system from kindergarten to university, will not be able to discern that one department is weaker than another, but the slight defects of any one will be lost in the symmetry of the whole.

The masses, taxpayers and all, are friends of free elementary education. This can scarcely be said in reference to free secondary education. However, the free high school, though the latest arrival, has come to stay and is rapidly winning over those who heretofore have been its bitterest antagonists, and before the first century of free high school education shall have passed, larger appropriations will be made for carrying on this department of education. Better instruction and increased facilities will be demanded. The truth will be recognized that the needs of colleges, secondary and elementary schools are identical and the wisdom of the thought along educational lines in our times will be seen in the advanced ground which the secondary schools will occupy in the coming years.

While as yet the most defective part of the education in this country is undoubtedly that of secondary schools, the same need that inaugurated them will also foster them; for the forces emanating from the secondary schools must be the power to uplift the elementary schools, and the people will see how needful to the greatest perfection of the elementary schools is the perpetuation and higher development of the secondary.

Let the secondary schools continue to be the people's college, and let more and still better qualified and devoted men and women of noble mold of mind and heart attract the multitude of young people to these courts of learning. Let the throngs who are now passing therefrom to life's active duties or to college halls be but the pioneers of the coming host.

DISCUSSION.

E. W. Coy, Principal High School, Cincinnati, Ohio.—I have been sometimes amused and sometimes surprised, and, I must confess, sometimes a little annoyed, at the iteration and reiteration of the statement that the secondary schools of the country are, of all parts of all our educational system, the most defective. I was especially surprised that our worthy Commissioner of Education should catch up this unfounded assertion and repeat it in his introduction to the report of the Committee of Ten. Now, when we speak of the American high school, I submit that everybody understands pretty nearly what is meant. The high schools, in general, begin at about the same point and attempt about the same line of work.

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I do not mean to say that all do the work equally well. By no means. There are defects enough in the high schools of the country. I would freely grant that they are deficient in all of the respects mentioned in the paper. But you may multiply all of those deficiencies by two, or even by four, and still the assertion, so many times repeated, would not be true. I have said that the term "high school" has a pretty definite meaning; but who in this audience will undertake to say what is meant by the term "college" in this country? It includes a class of institutions ranging all the way from a second rate grammar school to a university. Surely, if there is chaos anywhere in our educational system, it is in the field of so-called higher education. I don't know but it would be well to let the impression go out that the high schools are the ones that need reforming most of all, for if this is believed we may hope that something will be done to improve the condition of those schools. But in the interest of truth it should be known that this statement in regard to the secondary schools of the country is utterly unfounded.

SHALL LATIN BE A REQUIRED STUDY?

BY W. WILBERFORCE SMITH, ENGLEWOOD SCHOOL FOR BOYS, NEW JERSEY.

The schools that are called secondary have a noble ancestry, stretching back into the dusk of the middle ages. On one side of them have risen technical schools and modern universities, busied with specialized studies and research; on the other side have risen primary schools, systematizing the instruction of childhood. But the schools which have been longest fostered and watched with chief solicitude are those employing the years of transition from childhood to maturity. Then the physical, mental and moral character is rapidly taking permanent form. The whole work of education—to discipline, to inform and to inspire—is then in requisition. The school receives the pupil so immature that earlier impressions may be obliterated; it sends him forth so matured that what he is he will continue. Its course of studies should be solid and symmetrical, not planned to satisfy a purely utilitarian demand, but to fulfill a moral purpose. If its work is well done, it is the making of a man; if ill done, the evil is irreparable.

The prominence of the classics in these schools to-day is perhaps more largely due to tradition and popular deference to the views of men whose business is scholarship than to clear and strong popular conviction of the usefulness of classical study.

Latin in our schools is a survival from the days when it was the exclusive language of the schools, as it was, also, of law, theology and all science. But times have changed. This general use of Latin has given way to use of English. Meantime, new studies have sprung up, of fascinating interest and enthusiastically taught. They

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seem to have obvious and direct relation to the business of modern life, while reflection discovers in them much moral significance and spiritual power.

The typical man of to-day, earnest, intelligent and practical, remembers his school Latin as a laborious task. He realizes complacently a certain respectability allowed by the world to those who have learned some Latin. He can recite some paradigms and rules, guess the meaning of an occasional quotation, is an amateur at etymological definitions, and retains some knowledge of the history and mythology of Rome. He attaches value to all this, and yet he questions whether his children, who do not seem of a scholastic turn, will not gain more from equal time and effort upon other subjects. He readily concedes that Latin is an excellent thing for persons of certain aptitudes and for those who can, in university courses, prolong their excursions in classic fields. He thinks the general necessity for Latin has ceased; that its place is among electives, not among required studies; that other subjects give equivalent discipline and knowledge that will not fall so completely into disuse.

Now, be it remembered, the judgment of this typical citizen is ultimately to decide whether Latin shall be a required study, and he is not to be convinced by theoretical considerations alone. He cares chiefly for results.

In contending for Latin as a required study, we admit that some old time arguments for Latin are not valid and that some long-used methods of teaching it are unprofitable; but the capabilities of the language are not exhausted, and teachers grow wiser. The venerable tongue has adaptability to the modern school, and has certain values which no substitute possesses and which are so great as to make the study of Latin indispensable to the best form of culture. We believe, also, Latin can be so taught that its benefits will be distinctly recognized in the after lives of its students, and its place in the school insured, not by decree of professional scholars, but by the testimony of the intelligent public to its manifest power to broaden and enrich intellectual life.

How Latin should be taught and how English should be taught (for this paper has the interests of English in view) are admirably set forth in the conference reports to the Committee of Ten. From their exposition of the right purposes, means and methods, as a standpoint, the present argument proceeds.

It comprises three closely related propositions. First, study of language and literature must enter largely into any course which issues in broad and true culture. Second, English is, to us, the specific language of paramount importance. It cannot be well studied without the use of another language. Latin is by far the best companion study, and together they form a sufficiently complete ap-

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paratus and field for the study of language. Third, Latin, independently of its relation to English, deserves study, because of its beauty, its literature and its historic associations.

Superficial utilitarianism says: "I care for things; not words. Language furnishes wrappings for things." The scholar knows that words are things; that language, like an atmosphere, envelops, sustains and puts its pressure upon, our intellectual life. Language furnishes the matrices in which fluent thought and feeling are cast before they have form and firmness for use. It is a condition determining the range and manner of our thought. Indefiniteness, weakness, coarseness, are outward manifestations of qualities which reach downward into character. Culture of speech resolves very directly into mental and moral discipline. The ultimate cause of feeble and vicious language, as of poverty, is ignorance and indolence, chargeable to the individual or his antecedents and associates. No educator can think lightly of language. It puts at our command the world's accumulated knowledge. It brings the past into our presence. Without it social order would perish. It is the currency of all intellectual commerce.

Language studied merely as a natural phenomenon is of the utmost interest and importance. Man intending to write his thoughts has unconsciously written himself into it. As the expert discovers in one's handwriting traits of character and habits of life, so the student has deciphered in language history that lies back of all chronicles and laws of thought that reveal the nature of the human mind.

Of all languages English is the most important to us. We rejoice that we are heirs to comfortable conditions of life made possible by generations of invention and mechanical labor; we boast of an inheritance of peace and liberty won by many struggles in senate and on battlefield. Likewise, we inherit a language developed by the genius and thought of many generations to wonderful compass, beauty and power; a language fascinating in its history and immeasurably rich in its literature. Indifference to this is incompatible with true culture.

That the faulty English of the graduates of our colleges and schools is nowadays publicly and freely condemned, is a welcome sign. It bids the schools revise their methods and enlarge their provisions for English. These must be the more ample, because English, more than any other study, suffers from the mischievous influence of bad practice and example surrounding the pupil out of school.

But English cannot be well studied without use of another language. The pupil's very familiarity with the forms of speech in which he is accustomed to think, defeats his efforts to make these

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forms an object of study. The vigor of English idioms and the general excellence of its manner of expression is best measured by comparison with corresponding parts of another language.

Latin is the best companion study for English; first, because of its historical relation, whereby it becomes interpreter of much in English vocabulary and syntax, which otherwise lies unobserved or meaningless. Pupils begin Latin at about the age when their vocabulary is extending beyond the Anglo-Saxon words of home life into the great borderland occupied by Latin derivatives. They are of an age to begin serious study of the great English writers. These men were bred upon the classics, and, as Latin has shaped their thought and expression, it is a key to the interpretation.

Latin is the best companion study for English, secondly, because these languages are so unlike and exhibit such contrast. Contrasts are suggestive; they make things conspicuous. The two ancestors of our English were, fortunately, very unlike. The Anglo-Saxon, rude, vigorous, living by word of mouth, meager, sufficient only to the simple necessities of a twilight civilization and a people who thought of little but fighting and feasting; the Latin, elaborate, formal, accurate, a book language, with a vast literature of highly developed philosophy, poetry and law.

Difference in the order and mode of studying the two languages arises from the fact that English is the pupil's mother tongue and Latin is a subsequent acquisition. Practical and easy use of English being already acquired, the pupil is not interested in English technical grammar, because he sees no use in it. It does not help him read or speak, and he appreciates no other purpose in grammar. He is not yet prepared for scientific and historic study of it. But Latin grammar commends itself to juvenile common sense as manifestly necessary and directly helpful in dealing with the Latin language. Vocabulary and paradigm and rule unlock the Latin sentence and exhibit its contents.

The careful, necessary and continuous attention to the form and function of each word thus secured is a wholesome corrective of the careless mental habit responsible for most faults in English speech. It tends to counteract the effect of usage familiar to the pupil in his English, wherein reading is skimmed over and conversation ill pronounced.

Progress in Latin study, unlike that in English, is from etymological details, through syntax and rhetoric to study of the literature. In English, attention is first drawn to the subject-matter, the characters and incidents of what is read; an elementary study of literature; next, to conspicuous figures of speech and general rhetorical qualities; and, lastly, to details of formal grammar. Meantime, the pupil has acquired from his Latin notions of the logical scheme

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and classifications underlying all languages, and has therein efficient apparatus for study of the remnants of an influential system and the irregularities of idiom assembled in the name of English gram mar. The parts of speech, the nature and use of case, tense and mood, the relations of subject and predicate, of clause and phrase, and other such matters, once learned, equip one for methodical study of any language. These laws and forms, which find expression in all languages, are best taught by a highly inflected language. In such, a noun looks like a noun and a verb like a verb, and for differences of use there appear corresponding differences in form. Inflection in a language is like the use of uniforms in an army, enabling one to tell by a man's appearance where he belongs and what his duty is.

That college boys rely upon their knowledge of Latin grammar, even in English examinations, is not due merely to their having studied Latin more than English. It is rather because their English grammar has left indefinite impressions upon their minds and no comfortable confidence or experience of utility in the rules it sought to establish. So the clearer conceptions of grammatical principles, which Latin has given them, furnish the code by which they are guided even in English.

Latin is the best companion study because, further, of its wide difference from English in forms of expression, in order of words and in sentence structure. To translate thought from one language to a cognate modern language, where only substitution of words is required, as in a formula, is no such vigorous exercise as to grasp an idea embodied in the idiomatic forms of an ancient language and reincorporate it in English words and idioms. This discipline tends to emancipate one from bondage to words, and gives the best practice in English composition. Our most original ideas arise in form of most familiar words and then are uttered in most familiar words. But an idea which first appears in utterly un-English form compels a ransacking of our vocabulary.

The contrasts to English which Latin presents reach deeper than forms of expression. The views of life and the sentiments, as well as the themes and events it brings to the pupil's notice, are different from such as are common in his experience, and the contrast awakens reflection. The visitor in cities of his own land sees and hears for the most part but repetition of what is already familiar. If he goes abroad, the street scenes, the language, the architecture, the dress, manners, occupations, all are novel and interesting. If he be, at the same time, among a people highly advanced in the arts of life, all that he sees provokes comparison with things at home. He gains a new perspective and truer view, and his judgment escapes from its provincialism. Now, study of Latin carries the pupil to a

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foreign land and to a distant age; withal, to a people of high civilization and unequaled attainments in the very practical business of war, of engineering and of law. Though not among them bodily, he gains by close and long continued study acquaintance not less instructive. Only in maps and pictures does he see their features, their dress, utensils, arms and dwellings, but he reads the *ipsissima verba* of the books and speeches and laws which taught and stirred and governed the Romans. This original material of history is saturated with Roman feeling and genius. Typical men—Cæsar, the warrior and ruler; Cicero, the orator and philosopher; Virgil, the nation's laureate—tell him what Rome was. This effect cannot be gotten from translations. We remain strangers to a people of our own day if we do not learn their speech. Nor can the same mental reaction and stimulus be had by search in contemporary fields. Only when a cloud has drifted away from the region of like electrical condition to a region differently charged will the lightning awake within it.

To the argument for Latin because of its relations to English, let there be added consideration of its claims on its own merits—its intrinsic beauty and strength, its great literature and its historic associations.

When Latin is wisely taught, even the average pupil will have something of the linguist's joy in knowing so capable a servant of the human soul and in recognizing the excellence which made Latin reign so long. The cultured mind delights in mere knowledge of a thing so admirable, as it delights in knowledge of the heavenly bodies which it has no thought of utilizing.

Latin literature is a compendium of what has been rewritten a thousand times. If life be short and school days brief, and yet the literary treasures of the world and a literary sense be worth the having, there is no other way to wealth both so swift and so sure as by classical study. Greek may not be the privilege of all; but Latin, of the period when Rome had absorbed the philosophy and art of the East, when she held the world of learning subject, as she did the world of politics, must be the portion of all upon whom the secondary school shall set its seal.

Let not Latin be called a dead language. It survived the nation that spoke it and told their wonderful story to after ages. It reigned for centuries, the international language of Europe, the sacred language of the church throughout Christendom, the language of all worthy the name of law and enlightened government in all the world. It preserves for us the learning of the ancients and nursed the infancy of modern science. Now, indeed, its individuality is a thing of history, but its usefulness continues. If we trace our intellectual, moral and constitutional history, we soon find ourselves in the domains of the Latin and on a road that leads to Rome.

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This paper is written in no scholastic nor antiquarian spirit. The secondary school has no other just purpose than usefulness to the present age, an age of busy activity, of swift advances, of serious difficulties, and with little time for indulgence of mere tastes, however admirable. But it is an age full of the haste that makes waste, of restlessness and discontent which mark essential failures in life, of credulity prone to foolish novelties in religion, morals and politics, that may bring awful consequences. The most practical, the most useful education for to-day is that which leads to wisest thinking, that gives poise, wide knowledge, wide sympathy and moderation; that enables one to rise above the rush and dust of business and material pursuits to larger views of life; an education that has carried thought and interests beyond the horizon of the mere present, that gives beliefs and judgments having deeper foundation than the novel and newspaper, and gives a courage not subject to winds of popular passion.

HOW MAY A PROFESSIONAL SPIRIT BE ACQUIRED BY THE SECONDARY TEACHERS OF AMERICA?

BY MISS IDA B. HASLOP, PRINCIPAL OF HIGH SCHOOL, PUEBLO, COLO.

Just as soon as the requirements of the teacher's vocation are raised higher, so that those only who have received a course of training along scholastic and pedagogic lines may enter the ranks of the teacher, just so soon will the gate to the sacred inclosure of the three "learned professions" be opened freely to this fourth aspirant for professional honors.

But immediately the questions arise: How can we raise the standard of our vocation? How compel teachers to qualify themselves professionally for a vocation which neither requires such training nor pays any higher price when it is thrown in? How much more honor and money are given the worthy than the unworthy pedagogue? How many really professional teachers are in the field to-day? How many are there who would refuse more lucrative openings in other lines of work? How many of you have entered this profession with the express purpose of making it your life work?

If you inquire of your pupils what business is to engage their energies in later life, how many will there be—of the boys—who will choose the profession of teaching? I say "of the boys," for, although many of the girls expect to teach, they also expect that their professional career will be brief. The school-room is only a way-station,

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a sort of "stop-twenty minutes-for-refreshments" place, on the road to matrimony for a great procession of girls.

Do not think I blame them. Oh, never! I simply state as a fact that one of the things that prevents our vocation from becoming a profession is the number of women engaged in it who are unwilling to take a professional training, because they are constantly expecting to be otherwise engaged sooner or later. I believe, however, that the proportion of ladies among secondary teachers, who have entered upon the work equipped by both academical and professional training, is as great as that of the men. The lady high school teacher is much more likely to be a permanent factor than her sister teacher of the grammar or primary grade.

If I were to ask you what you consider the noblest work in which a man can engage, you would probably reply, that in which he can do the most good for mankind. On vote, I believe the work of the teacher would stand first, and yet, is this a profession which you desire your son to follow? I think not. Why is this? What is lacking?

Largely, to my mind, it is a matter of dollars and cents. When the profession of teaching pays as well as do the other professions, there will be more strong men attracted to it—when special proficiency receives special pecuniary compensation.

There is a work to be done with the people in regard to this. They must be taught that they cannot have their work properly done, unless they are willing to pay such salaries as will secure teachers who will make teaching their vocation, and who will have prepared themselves for their work by ample pedagogical and scholastic training. We must teach the people that they cannot get a good thing unless they pay for it, and then we must see that we fill the requirements of a "good thing." We must be so thoroughly imbued with a love of the profession that we cannot make a living at anything else, and we must co-operate to raise the standard of the profession so that we can make a living at it.

Again, the lack of permanency acts greatly in preventing teaching from taking rank as a profession. This is caused, not only by the presence of so many transitory ladies, but by the more deplorable fact that the great majority of the men who enter upon the work simply do so in order to better qualify themselves for other professions.

Then the tenure of office does much to exclude from the work those who would be an honor to the guild. A man must feel indeed called of God, must have a necessity laid upon him, if he undertakes as his life work a profession which has so little honor or emolument and so much uncertainty connected with it. No matter how carefully he may have prepared himself for the work, nor what excellent results may have followed his efforts, he may, because of a change in the

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political complexion of the board of education, or the personal pique of one of its members, be compelled to lose the position which he so ably filled. We need a civil service reform bill especially applicable to boards of education and teachers. Until the time comes when merit and ability will be of as much importance in the eyes of the board of education as the teacher's political opinion, or his personal relation to them, we fear that many will turn to work in which the prospect for earning and receiving suitable returns for their labor are more certain.

Again, there needs to be engendered in the minds of the people a greater respect for our vocation, and this can be accomplished by the elevation of the profession, by making the academic and pedagogical standard so high that to simply state that a man is a secondary teacher would be equivalent to saying that he possesses a liberal education.

Only when the teacher stands head and shoulders above his best pupil does his work become professional. So long as he has need of "keys" and "ponies," so long as he needs the rattan or suspension cards, he has no right to call his work professional from any standpoint.

The academic requirements of the teacher should be raised. The standard all along the line should be advanced. More thorough scholarship, broader experience and better disciplined minds should be required of those who demand certificates to teach in our secondary schools, and, in addition to these, an unmistakable evidence of an aptitude to instruct should be a leading requirement.

If this association could awaken in the minds of the teachers present a real love of the work for its own sake, could bring down upon each one of us this holy spirit of earnest endeavor, what a revival there would be all over the land! Are we sure we want this power? Am I certain that I desire to be possessed of any such energetic spirit, which will pull the weakly novel from my hand and substitute a text-book on pedagogy or a Gibbon's "Decline and Fall;" who will drive me off to an association of teachers, instead of a camping tour; who will send regrets to a card party, and compel me to spend the evening preparing to-morrow's lessons?

I can remember that I use to pray to be a Christian, when down deep in my heart I rather dreaded the coming of the reformatory period, and wondered if I would really enjoy being good. Don't pray for this professional spirit unless you honestly want it. Be as candid as the little fellow in our town, who, at a time of a religious awakening, being asked by a good old lady, "Willie, don't you want to be a Christian?" replied, "Oh, no, ma'am, I'm a Presbyterian." Now, if you are content with being simply a Presbyterian, don't pretend that

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you want to be a Christian, too, for it is as hard to have too much as too little.

But the question may be asked as to how this renovating spirit may be infused into the already fleshless bones of some methods of secondary instruction. How can the teachers, who are so peacefully sleeping that they do not even dream of any change that may have come upon the spirit of education, be awakened? What sort of a nightmare can we persuade the god of the leaden mace to pound into their drowsy brains to rouse them suddenly from their slumbers? If we could send a little sprite named "Position-Lost-on-Account-of-Lack-of-Professional-Spirit," the nightmare might be effectual.

A ten days' prayer meeting in an upper room will only bring tongues of fire to the heads of the devout few, while the great multitude look on and criticise the convenience and utility of the new style of head dress.

Among other things which might be helpful in bringing down the spirit to the many, we would suggest that we need more secondary literature. There are a few periodicals now which are very helpful to high school teachers, but their number is too small, and these few do not receive the enthusiastic support of secondary teachers generally. We do not take advantage of their open columns to discuss the points we most need. New methods, new books, knotty points in mathematics, hidden roots of Greek verbs, the ever fruitful theme of Hamlet's sanity or insanity, psychological investigation of the infant mind (or lack of it), etc., open such wide fields that there is surely a little spot of sandy soil which even we weak women might dig up and irrigate till it would blossom like a dandelion and be as productive.

Truly, I am in earnest on this question of secondary literature. We need another "academy" carried on by the principals of the secondary schools of the United States.

Another suggestion which I would like to make is, that we have organizations of secondary teachers apart from our State organizations, where we may discuss questions helpful to us, though of no great import to superintendents or primary teachers. I wonder if we all have not attended State meetings where not a single topic was discussed which had any specific interest for us? I have come home from many such a meeting feeling decidedly snubbed, professionally and fraternally speaking, and have longed to be a kindergartner so that some phase of my work might receive some attention.

Might we not have department meetings at the annual State association? In the more thickly settled States there might also be something like district meetings, including the secondary teachers of several counties, for which programs could be arranged with papers or round table discussion of problems of special interest to secondary

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teachers. There is a great deal of inspiration in the contact of fellow workmen, and, among those who are real workers, very little of the snobbery, which sometimes causes unpleasantness at conventions of other organizations.

If each one of us, coming as we do, from different sections of the country, could carry home with us an enthusiasm that would not die out before school opens, and use it as a coal to kindle a little fire in each State in the Union, we might have sufficient blaze to warm our own finger tips, and, perhaps, spare a little brand with which to scorch into activity some poor old college professor, who has been hibernating for the last decade, and who, by the way, is partly responsible for our dormant condition.

We are told by critics that the secondary, and even higher education teachers, are not progressive; that we are worshipers of the obsolete; that we refuse to see any beauties except along the good old ways by our fathers trod; that we declare that the guideboards erected by our ancestors must remain, even though we know, down in our inner consciousness, that the roads have changed; and that we even insist that the roads have not changed, and that this mossy, crooked and stony by-path is the broad highway of liberal education. Well, I do not think the critics are wholly right, but just here "in the bosom of the family," as Mr. Micawber would say, I will confess that I think there is a grain of wheat in their two bushels of chaff.

I look with admiration mingled with awe at the indefatigable energy of kindergarten and other primary workers, and wonder what might be accomplished by high school teachers, if educators would turn their attention this way for a few minutes.

A third thing that might be helpful in implanting or cultivating a professional spirit among secondary teachers, if we could ever bring it about, would be the attendance of our teachers upon the various schools of instruction which are carried on during the summer months. Not only schools of methods, but those of academic instruction, are helpful. We would ever insist that the teacher be a student, not only of the branches which he is to teach, but also of some other study, that he may keep his own mind active with work. We find strong specialists in these schools; we learn new methods by making ourselves pupils; we see as with the people's eye the mistakes which we as teachers have been making all the year.

Another point which I mention with some trepidation is that of professional etiquette. There is an unwritten code of ethics which prevails with most teachers; but there are some people who seem to lack that intuitive knowledge of the truly noble and kindly way of treating their fellow workmen, unless it is especially pointed out and specific laws written for individual offenses. Years ago there was a fine old rule laid down by the foremost educator of his own or any

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other age which read something like this: "Whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, do ye even so unto them." It is just as applicable to the nineteenth century teacher as to the Jewish rabbis who heard it as a new truth so many years ago. I hear that my brother teacher will lose his place, as I am going up to his native town I'll tell the people who love him all about it. "Whatsoever ye would." I have heard that Mr. G. is criticised for extravagance. I'll tell this parsimonious judge, who may run for school director next year: "Whatsoever ye would." That position Professor L. holds is a good one; he has spent years in preparation for his work, but he lacks vim. I'll apply for his place, and, as I stand in with the political ring, I'll get it, too. Oh, can you not hear the cry: "Whatsoever ye would!"

The pupils complain of the assistant's work. Let us not listen to the pupil, keep our own eyes open to see and our own voices ready to kindly correct, but let not the children know that we blame any one. Do we go to a new school whose teacher may or may not have done good work. Let us not criticise our predecessor. "Whatsoever ye would." You say: "We are not guilty of these things. Such faults are found only in the vulgar." I would that there were no vulgar members of our profession. I would that all might be willing to say only the good of each other.

Let us have a professional table of the decalogue. It might be something like this:

1. Thou shalt love thy work with all thy mind.
2. Thou shalt not make unto thee a golden image, nor teach wholly for love of money.
3. Honor thy board of education that thy position may be secure in the city where thou dwellest; but honor thyself and thy profession more.
4. Thou shalt not under-bid thy fellow teacher.
5. Thou shalt not tell to others the faults thou seest in another teacher; first cast the beam out of thine own eye.
6. Give thy days to the teaching of others and thy evenings to self-improvement, if thou wouldst grow strong.
7. Thou shalt not steal thy friend's good name, nor the work of his pen and call it thine own.
8. Thou shalt not kill thy fellow teacher's reputation nor be glad of his failure.
9. Thou shalt not bear false witness against a teacher.
10. Do unto others as you would that others should do unto you.

To you and me is given the work of lifting up to a loftier plane the high profession to which we are called. Shall we open our mind to the spirit of truth and progress? Shall we make our fellow teachers, our work and our pupils better, nobler, by our contact with them? To-morrow will tell.

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DISCUSSION.

[REPORTED BY R. G. BOONE.]

J. REMSEN BISHOP, Cincinnati, Ohio.—The lack of professional spirit is due less to the teacher than to the public. A profession was defined as an occupation that requires high mental power and liberal training, and is free, as the trade is not, from the element of bargain and sale. Teaching has these qualities, and is a profession by every sign we know. That it has not been so recognized, is due in part to the fact that teachers have not claimed it. Numerous and earnest and high grade organizations among those engaged in secondary school work will help it on.

MR. J. T. BUCHANAN of Missouri.—Teaching has been recognized among teachers themselves as a profession for forty years. It has not been generally so recognized by the public. The difference between the pay in this and other professions is not great. Teachers are as fair and as successful and business-like as are members of other occupations. Teachers already have too many magazines and do too much reading—not enough thinking.

MR. L. C. HULL of New Jersey.—A more vigorous and general attempt should be made to affiliate the public high schools with higher institutions, and strive to do such work in quantity and quality as will meet the requirements of the related colleges. Teachers so possessed of responsibility will grow of necessity. The success of the system of approved high schools in Michigan was referred to and commended.

MR. C. C. RAMSAY of Fall River, Mass.—Colleges are in many places doing poorer work in teaching than are high schools. Where inefficient work is done in secondary schools it is by those teachers who do not attend and are not present at such meetings as this. I regret that the remarks of the paper could not be felt by the absent ones. Teachers can scarcely make their own work a profession. There is but little demand for such recognition. Each, however, can do his work faithfully, and trust to the worth of the results. Do not be disturbed at low salaries. This is chiefly a question of economics and belongs to economics.

DISCIPLINE AS THE RESULT OF SELF-GOVERNMENT.

BY A. V. STORM, STORM LAKE, IOWA.

When this topic was presented to me I was a little afraid of it. It looked reversible. "Discipline as the result of self-government." "Self-government as the result of discipline." The difficulty in determining which is the cause and which the effect in this is equal to that in the important question of whether great men are the cause of the general advancement of mankind, or the general advancement of mankind the cause of great men—to which a famous French historian devoted so much argument. While I shall not discuss the question there seems to me to be a mutual depend-

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ence. That no good discipline can exist without self-government and that self-government needs a process of good discipline, is as true as that the Sandwich Isles cannot produce a Bacon, nor a Bacon raise the Sandwich Islanders to the level of Queen Elizabeth's Englishmen.

However, reasoning that the only practical discipline is the discipline which is the result of self-government, I concluded to inflict the same paper upon you, but to allow you your choice of titles.

Can he lick all the big boys? Does he keep good order? Is he a good disciplinarian?

In all ages, from the days of the grandfather of the "Hoosier schoolmaster," to the present, and in all lands, some form of this interrogatory has been propounded regarding every applicant for a teacher's position. Thus, "through all the ages one unceasing purpose runs." And this, in our public schools, seems to be to have teachers who are good disciplinarians.

At one time the desirable teacher was one who could do all the sums in Daboll's or Greenleaf's "Arithmetic;" work by the rule of three, single or double, and spell every word in the "Old Blueback" from "b-a, ba; k-e-r, ker; baker." Of course, if he could parse a little and set a few copies it would not be objected to; nor would it if he chewed tobacco, smoked a little, and drank hard cider, if, with all these minor accomplishments, he was a good "licker," for this age of our system gave currency to that profound pedagogical principle "No lickin', no larnin'." He might be rude in manners, coarse in language, careless in person, uncouth in dress and gait, uneducated and uncultured, but if he could "whale" the "feller" that led the "gang" in that "deestrick," he was the successful teacher of the age.

As educational barbarism becomes a little less dense, we enter a transitional state. Some optimist advances the theory that children need not be made to fear in order to be made to obey. The keener sighted teachers adopt the theory. The duller ones adhere to the old. Public opinion is in an unsettled state, as is evidenced by the form which our all important question regarding the teacher's ability takes. It is no longer the narrow, dogmatic, positive question as to his beating power, but it is the broader one of "does he keep good order?"

These two questions are typical of the ages they represent. Each bears plainly the marks of the thought of its time. The first shows that they are fully satisfied that corporal punishment with the rod, or with more severe means, if need be, is the only correct mode of discipline; for they show this in the question, "Can he whip?" No question arose in their minds as to the advisability of such punishment. That was settled. The only question was: "Has he the

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physical power to wield the rod?" Discipline to them meant only bodily pain, and bodily pain flavored with a few facts constituted education.

The question in the next age has changed. Not "can he" but "does he"—not wield the rod—but keep good order. These words tell much. They confess that the public questions the theory, old as Solomon, of the rod and the child. However, the public are no less anxious for results than before, as is shown by their thrusting this question before all others. They feel, and truly, that without good order no school can prosper. But public opinion is growing apace. The faith of the public in the infallibility of the rod is sorely shaken. They no longer affirm that the rod is the only means of discipline, for they are not now seeking one who can and will use it. They are broadening rapidly. They are no longer saying: "We know our school cannot be taught unless he punish the children. We are satisfied that the only effective punishment is beating, and we want our children beaten. Can he do it?" But they are saying: "No school can succeed and be disorderly. We want good order, if we do not have anything else. Does he keep good order?"

In this second stage, they are conceding to the teacher a great deal—the mode of punishment. Yet the development of a people in any important line is necessarily slow. The advocates of progress in all lines must fight continually against the forces that are passive—inert—and against those that are actively clinging to the things of the past. Even when school discipline has reached its second stage, the battle is still a hard one.

Many of the people in this age have seen such beneficial results from milder means that they dare not openly question its efficiency, yet they fondly cling to the memory of those "good old days of yore." Within a twelve-month, I have heard a certain old-time teacher extolled for the wonderful school he taught and the "order" he kept, and as an example of it the narrator told how this person left his school without a teacher while he went down to the creek, a half mile or more away, after some runaway boys, a few of whom he succeeded in catching and "thrashing" back to the schoolhouse! What an exhibition of profound power!

The majority of the people of this age, however, were ready to concede to the teacher the manner of maintaining order. But they still clung to the necessity for good order and to their theories of what constituted good order. No one desires to deprive them of the former, but the latter they have been compelled in many instances to abandon. What is good order to one generation is far from it to another. Some instances of good order in one of our best schools of to-day would have been rank rebellion in some of the schools of our grandfathers' day. But the teachers and the pupils

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are just one generation ahead of a majority of the parents in educational affairs.

While the advancement made so far indicated a great improvement in the conception of what discipline is and how it may be obtained, yet, having made such advancement, the leaders were enabled to see that there was a firmer ground beyond toward which they must press. We believe with our forefathers that no disorderly school can accomplish the best of work, but the egregious blunder of the past in regard to discipline was, in exalting good order to the position of a definite end to be obtained, entirely independent of instruction, and by methods having no connection with it. Discipline meant the power to compel the pupil to perform the teacher's will and to keep quiet. They reasoned thus: No school can do good work unless there be good order. Hence, good order is the prime requisite. Hence, the teacher should turn his attention primarily to having good order, and secondarily to educating the child. We now think that there is somewhere in this ratiocination a fallacy. No man can perform his daily work unless he eat. Hence, the prime requisite is to eat; hence a Gladstone should give the attention of his mighty intellect primarily to eating, and secondarily to matters concerning the welfare of the greatest nation of Europe.

The present age has detected the fallacy, and is rapidly setting itself right. Regarding the candidate for a teacher's position, we no longer ask about his power to wield the rod nor whether he keeps good order; but we have broadened the question when we ask: "Is he a good disciplinarian?" Not "Can he?" as in the first instance, nor "Does he?" as in the second, but "Is he?" Not "Can he use the rod?" nor "Does he keep good order?" but, "Is he a good disciplinarian?"

As we ascend our horizon recedes and our field of vision widens. The three sentences we have used epitomize the rise and growth of the sentiment regarding discipline. In this third stage the sentiment is rid of the objectionable features pointed out in the first and second, viz., the erroneous ideas of the relation existing between discipline and education, and the misconception of what constituted good order.

The present age believes in the harmonious development of the individual. That good order will be a concomitant of the best of work. That government of the people, by the people and for the people, under the judicious direction of the wiser heads selected for that purpose, is as well suited to the school-room as to the State. And the best schools of to-day act upon these beliefs in formulating their modes of discipline.

"There is nothing new under the sun." The laws of the development of human civilization are the same in all ages and climes and

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in all departments of our civilization. The story of the development of the subject of discipline in our schools, is, in miniature, the story of the progress of popular government the world over.

From Squeers to our more advanced American schools of 1894, is from a despotism of the darkest ages to a republic of the nineteenth century. The lines of one are traceable in the other. The same blunted sense of human rights and methods of human development that gave the king power of life and death over his subjects made "Dotheboys Hall" possible in "Darkest England." Not that these conditions were contemporaneous, for they represented only the same stage of development of two lines of civilization. But the plan of development is the same.

As those who governed became more skilled, they felt the responsibility of a right development of those under their charge, and by the treatment which they accorded to the governed showed them their true position. With new rights and privileges came new duties and responsibilities. As the new school of disciplinarians gave to the pupil more privileges, the sense of responsibility and self-control in relation to school affairs began to develop in the pupil.

Allow me to formulate a definition of discipline, which, though it may not meet the approbation of Webster or Worcester will be sufficiently broad to serve as a common ground for all interested in this subject from the standpoint of the teacher. Discipline is that which induces the pupil to do that which he should do and restrains him from doing that which he should not do. This will apply to all the efforts made at school government from the earliest time. It includes three processes, viz., to know what to do, to desire to do it and to have the power to compel the doing of it. In any operation of control, these steps must be taken.

The part which the pupil takes in these successive processes determines the character of the discipline, and distinguishes the discipline of to-day from that of earlier times. There is something broader and deeper in discipline than keeping the pupil quiet so that others can go on with their work. If there is not, then the quietest school is the best school, and to this we are not willing to subscribe; for I have seen schools that were quiet simply because of an atrophied condition of mental tissue.

The proper development of those faculties which will make the pupil capable of self-control, viz., the judgment to discriminate between right and wrong, the desire to do the right and the power to compel himself to do the right, is of infinitely more importance than that a death like stillness should reign in the school-room and every pupil move with military precision.

Recognizing this, the best disciplinarians have sought good discipline through the medium of self-control. Such discipline is far

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more valuable and no less practicable than the discipline wherein the teacher compels obedience to his own will and the pupil exhibits no other characteristic than that of subserviency. In the schools of the earlier times and in the poorer schools of to day, the teacher alone decides what shall be done and immediately compels the pupil to do it. Little time need be spent in pointing out the evils of such a course. The pupil, not having given proper consideration to the points touched upon in the rules which accompany such a course, is very apt to think some of them unjust that are not so. The teacher who formulates such rules is probably one who has so little consideration for the pupil that some of the rules are oppressive. The pupil's judgment of right and wrong is dwarfed because of a lack of exercise. The judgment, like any mental or physical power, needs cultivation to give it strength. Judgment of right and wrong can be developed only by exercise in discriminating between right and wrong, and this, like any other exercise, must be judiciously conducted to be beneficial.

The pupil's moral judgment is also distorted by being given a wrong motive for action. He is not moved to do a certain thing because he should, but because the teacher so commands.

This deification of the power of the teacher is food for the pride of the tyrant, but an irritant to lovers of justice and poison to the highest development of the pupil. "Not my will but thine be done," is good philosophy when used to represent the relation of a finite creature to his infinite Creator; but false and injurious when used to represent the relation of a finite pupil to an equally finite teacher.

Equally good reasons may be urged against false methods of achieving the second step in discipline—the desire to do right. It is not enough that one shall be able to distinguish right from wrong. This is of no avail if he voluntarily choose to do the wrong. He must be so cultivated as to desire to do the right. This second step is perhaps more difficult than the first, but the mode of discipline which ignores this factor can never be the result of self-government, nor can it deserve a place among the methods of the future.

It is the teacher's duty to see that the best motive for doing a thing is aroused in his pupil. The motive one has for doing a thing gives character to the thing done and to the mode of accomplishing it. The Christian religion and the public school, the two greatest uplifting influences of modern times, have kept equal pace in their philosophy of right doing. As doing right for hate of the devil and fear of hell is giving place to doing right for love of God and hope of heaven; so doing right for fear of the schoolmaster's stinging tongue and birch is giving place to doing right for love of right and in obedience to a cultivated conscience.

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There are few pupils but need more cultivation in this second step than in the first. Far too many pupils know what is right, but voluntarily choose to do the wrong. Here is the opportunity for the exercise of the teacher's most valuable power. For, truly, is not he who can so influence one pupil that he will voluntarily choose to do right, rather than wrong, greater than he who pilots a class through cube root or over the "*pons asinorum?*"

But is a pupil capable of self-control when he is able to distinguish between right and wrong, and has a desire to do the right? Not until he has such control of his will as will enable him to do the thing he desires to do. Here, again, must the watchful teacher come to the rescue, and from his knowledge of human nature in general, and this pupil in particular, supply the necessary conditions for the strengthening of the will power to meet the emergency.

The three processes mentioned are necessary to the pupil's obtaining self-control, and the teacher who does his duty by the pupils must secure his discipline through their self-control. It is as much the teacher's duty to cultivate the pupil's moral power of self-control as to cultivate his intellectual power. Are not life's problems the solution of which depends upon the former as important as those whose solution depends on the latter?

One serious charge against the education of to-day is that it runs too much to the head. Using figurative terms that are deeply rooted in our language, our education of the head far surpasses that of the heart. It is upon this that the pessimist bases his theory that while the world is growing wiser it is also growing wickeder. And, however optimistic we may be, a warning protest from any considerable minority must, in a land of free thought and earnest truth search, be listened to.

At our late international exhibition (pardon the triteness) visitors to the transportation building, patent office display or electricity building, could not sufficiently magnify the present age in its progress and achievements. But those who believe the science of electrical engineering to be in its infancy, look for a greater revolution in the mechanic arts in the near future than the past has ever witnessed. So teachers are not wanting who, though they realize the wonderful progress the present age has made in education, believe we are on the eve of a more splendid display of genius in this great field. And though the matter and the methods of its presentation will be greatly improved, the changes they will undergo will be no more marked than those attending the progress in discipline. The schools of to-morrow will not revolutionize methods of discipline, but they will more fully develop the work being done by the best schools of to-day. How is all this to be done?

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What is the elixir that is to give this new life? Ah, if I but knew! If some Brown-Sequard, Koch or Keeley could furnish teachers a "bitactide of discipline" liquid that could be injected into the judgment, conscience and will of the pupil, and make him forever a doer of the right, the discoverer would soon be a multi-millionaire and the trials of "ye pedagogue" would be reduced one-half. But it cannot be. Practical discipline is the result of self-control and is as much the result of cultivation as is any material or immaterial power of the individual, and as such demands time, growth, and the most scientific and careful attention that the most discerning minds can give it from the beginning of consciousness till the end of life; but more particularly during the formative periods of childhood and youth.

The discipline of the future will accomplish this by giving more attention to each pupil as an individual and having less of the government general. The disciplinary needs of each pupil will determine the mode of treatment of that pupil. No longer will our schools exemplify the king who, desiring suits of clothes for his subjects, ordered his tailor to make them all of one size; and though the tailor expostulated that they would not fit, the king said he would make them fit, and being "a man of his word," he did so—by chopping off the arms and legs of his too-long subjects, and stretching out the like members of his too-short ones.

The individual will be disciplined with an eye to his good alone. I do not wish to endanger my reputation as a prophet by prognosticating that it will come, but I am hoping for the time to come when the third reason usally given, viz., "As a warning to others" will no longer be one of the objects of punishment.

The cultivation of the individual and the protection of the rights of his companions will determine the character of the discipline. The pupil will be brought to a better realization of his relations and duties to his fellows and himself, the former requiring the suppression of self in the regulations necessary to the control of a large body of persons, and the latter requiring the cultivation of the strongest individuality in the pupil's independence in movement and methods of study.

Controlling by substituting the judgment, conscience and will of the teacher for those of the pupil will be replaced by controlling the pupil through cultivating in him the power of self-control and wisely directing that.

This cultivating of heart and soul power will not only enable the teacher to conduct his school without serious disorder, but infinitely better than all that, it will furnish the pupil moral sinews for a life of battle.

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It may be urged that I but generalize. True. He who looks beyond the present in either direction loses the particular and sees only the general. The particulars of the future must be left to the young enthusiast and the conditions that confront him from time to time, as he proceeds in the educational field.

And what a field it is! As the most valuable earthly possessions are goodness and wisdom, and as neither reaches its highest development and usefulness without the other, what an inspiration there is in the thought that to us alone is offered the opportunity of directing mankind toward the accomplishment of these ends. The past has had such schools, the present has more, but they have been and are the exception—the future must make them the rule.

MEMORIAL SKETCH OF JOHN S. CROMBIE,

Late President of the Department of Secondary Education.

BY RAY GREENE HULING.

Mr. Huling's Sketch in memory of Dr. Crombie will be found in the Report of the Committee on Necrology of the General Association.

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THE RELATION AND THE POSSIBILITIES OF HIGH SCHOOL TRAINING IN RELATION TO PUBLIC SPEAKING.

BY FRANK SHELDON FOSDICK, HIGH SCHOOL, BUFFALO, N. Y.

The ability to express one's thoughts in good idiomatic English is a gift greatly to be desired. To a certain degree orators, like poets, "are born, not made." There are natural endowments of voice, of physique, of personal magnetism, that are of incalculable value to the public speaker. But history, and also our own observation, have taught us, that the most unpromising subjects, lacking all these natural qualifications, by assiduous effort, well directed, have overcome all obstacles and gained lofty pinnacles of renown and influence. Such being the possibilities, why is it that public speaking is sometimes called "a lost art," or one rapidly becoming so? I find two reasons for this. Macaulay gives us the key to one when he says: "The singular excellence to which eloquence attained at Athens is mainly to be attributed to the influence which it exerted there." The great incentive of true oratory is the controlling power it has. All public speakers are aware of that fact, having learned it by sad and ofttimes most humiliating experience. Now, in the very nature of things, men are to-day more influenced by selfish considerations, by political expediency, by the eloquence of wealth or fame, than by the human voice, phrasing in mellifluous periods grand and lofty thoughts; and the facile pen of the editor, with his large and appreciative audience, has won for itself a more commanding position than ever before; and this, too, at the expense of the influence of public speaking.

But there is another reason for what may be termed the decadence of oratory, more potent than the former. It is, that our boys and girls, not only do not receive adequate instruction in this important subject, but, also, not even a fair amount of encouragement to use what little talent they have; that the little teaching they do receive is exceedingly casual in its nature; that the department of elocution is generally optional or utterly unsystematic, and the instruction given in that department is more than often open to severe criticism on account of its mere mechanical qualities; that, in a very large majority of our secondary schools, atention is given to a select few only, those who can make a creditable appearance at exhibitions or commencement exercises, while the timid, the halt, the awkward, are relegated to the background. Now, this is a somewhat sweeping statement. I see some of you do not approve of it, but it can be substantiated by statistics. Shortly after the subject under discussion

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was assigned to me, I sent letters to some twenty high schools in different parts of the country asking the following questions:

(a) What definite instruction is given to your scholars in public speaking?

(b) What incidental instruction is given?

I received very full and courteous replies from all the principals addressed save one. In a majority—a large majority—the real instruction given was very close to the zero point, or confined to preparation for stated exhibitions or commencement exercises. Such instruction, as you are well aware, is largely in the way of imitation, not to say mimicry. In a small minority of the schools, regular work was attempted, but nothing was intimated that would lead one to believe that systematic encouragement was given all along the lines in the art of expression. Two of the schools gave most satisfactory replies, and if those two cities do not abound in young men and women who have thoughts noble and uplifting and can utter them intelligibly and eloquently, it is not the fault of the secondary schools.

Now, it cannot be denied that the high schools have a duty to perform in this matter of public speaking. Of what practical value to our boys and girls is all their knowledge if it cannot be brought into action; if, when questions of grave import are under discussion, lips that should be eloquent are dumb; if, like the ancient sphinx, those educated in our secondary schools only look wise and say nothing? Now, while I do not make a special plea for compulsory work in elocution, as, with the congested condition of most of our high school curriculums, that would perhaps not be desirable, I do believe that, by a systematic course of what may properly be termed incidental instruction, our scholars can be made more or less proficient in the art of public speaking. Permit me to offer a few suggestions.

SUGGESTION NO. 1.

Rearrange the whole scheme of composition work. It is needed. The average course in that work is lamentably weak and vexatious, and it is creditable to the intelligence of our scholars that they despise it. Can it be wondered at? A subject is assigned for a composition; perchance, a plan to be followed is given; books of reference named, and our boy goes to work at his first composition in the high school. He is somewhat ambitious and as enthusiastic as the average boy; reads a good deal, works hard at this his maiden essay. In due time it is completed, handed to his teacher, and another subject is assigned, plan given, etc. In a week or two his first composition comes back more or less defaced by blue pencil marks denoting errors and the per cent indicating its value in the eyes of the teacher who corrected it. Little or nothing further is said about the essay over which he worked so hard. He is not required to correct the errors

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he made; in fact, in many instances he fails to see any error. If, in a fit of rashness, he utters a protest about some mooted point or calls in question the justice of the teacher's estimate, he is liable to be incontinently "called down," so to speak, by the haughty corrector. Rarely is he called upon to read any portion of his work in public. Never is such a thing considered unless he is a "natural reader." So it goes, month after month, term after term, until he becomes disgusted, and rightly so, with the whole subject. This is not an imaginary picture. I wish it were. In at least three of the prominent high schools in my own State it is the general plan pursued.

Now, such a system needs overhauling from the very foundation. Composition work does not necessarily imply useless, thankless drudgery. It should mean pleasure, enthusiasm. To be effective it must have two distinct ends in view, and everything must be subordinated to these. First, it should give our scholars the ability to write good English; second, it should enable them to express in speech their thoughts in a creditable manner. These two results can be obtained. Begin by selecting a subject for composition that is within the reach of the average boy and girl, avoiding, so far as possible, especially in the first and second years, any technical topic or one solely adapted to the specialist. What boots it, pray, whether "Hamlet had black or yellow hair," was five feet two inches or seven feet sixteen inches tall? To what extent are the convolutions of gray matter increased by a dissertation upon the "comparative bravery of the Japanese and Chinese?" When the compositions are completed and errors noted let the scholar be required to correct all mistakes after consultation with his teacher. In this consultation encourage him to talk, and talk freely, about that sentence or phrase, or why he used that word. The more he hears the sound of his own voice the less embarrassment will he feel when called upon to read or declaim. And then there are great opportunities for good found in this confidential, and, to a certain extent, "free and easy," intercourse of teacher and scholar. When the corrections are satisfactorily made, have the teacher select from each essay a sentence or paragraph especially well written, one upon which the scholar has evidently expended a good deal of thought, and request him to memorize and recite it before the composition class. Let this preliminary work gradually grow into more pretentious efforts before the entire school, alternating choice bits of our English literature to give knowledge of the style of our great writers, with the scholar's original efforts. Require all to take a part in this work, the awkward, the graceful, the feeble-voiced and those of stentorian tones, the boys and the girls; for I see no reason why my girl, who now romps with her brother in all the innocence of childhood, should not have the same

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opportunities of self-improvement that he enjoys. What as a parent I demand for my girl, as a teacher I most freely accord to others.

Is it not plain that, by such a plan, there will be aroused in the mind of each scholar a desire to do his best? That the composition will mean something to him beside a task to be disposed of as hastily as possible and finally consigned to the waste-basket? Such work as has been briefly outlined, systematically and faithfully carried out month after month, cannot fail to produce the result desired—ability to write and talk good English.

SUGGESTION NO. 2.

Encourage freedom of speech in every class. This is a primal necessity, if we accomplish the end we have in view. It is not sufficient that monosyllabic answers be given to questions. Have the scholars stand before their classmates and speak clearly what they have to say. It is a wonderful assistance to clearness of thought, as well as to felicity of expression, to talk while facing your auditors. This was never exemplified any more perfectly than in a class in Buffalo, this last term. It was a poor lot, remnants, reviewers, left-overs from the regents' examination in January, a class that would tax the skill of any instructor. Fortunately, as is sometimes the case, when an emergency calls for a teacher, the teacher was there, and with great tact and ingenuity she applied herself to the discouraging task before her. She believed firmly in the art of expression, and day after day in her regular classes she would call her scholars to the front of the room and have them, while facing their mates, give their own version of some historical scene or describe some battle. The sentences used were often crude; there were the stammering tongue, the blush of timidity and bashfulness, sometimes total failure. The teacher, though often disheartened at her seeming want of success, nevertheless persevered, and her faithful work was amply rewarded by the marked progress made. I visited her room just before the end of the term, and heard those boys and girls talk freely and fluently, debating certain mooted points, ready with full and satisfactory answers whenever questions were asked. I heard them again at the commencement exercises of the school, and instead of a lot of figureheads mimicking the motions of Madame Squealem, the lacrymose intonations of Mademoiselle de Weepalette or the dramatic contortions of Senor Gestique, there was individuality in tone, in speech, in gesture. They had proved the value of the new rule for class work, "Expression, not repression."

But, says one: "That's all very well for history, rhetoric and allied subjects, where there is opportunity for such exercises; but what about algebra? You cannot deal with a mathematical formula as you would with the exploits of a great general or some disputed

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question in economics. The idea is absurd." Well, I grant that the affinity between public speaking, as it is generally understood, and algebra is somewhat microscopic; but I still maintain that our scholars can learn the correct use of words and skill in their employment, even when going through the mazes of a mathematical problem. Is there a subject that calls for any more exactness in language than algebra? I heard a boy not many weeks ago going through a long example in algebra. He was standing at the blackboard, was subject to frequent questioning by teacher and classmates, but was ever ready with his replies, with his reasons for different steps in his demonstration, couched in good English. He had learned from that instructor, not only algebra, but also expression, and I was proud of both boy and his teacher.

I wish I had time to conduct an imaginary and ideal recitation in Latin or Greek, to show what can be done in these classes along the lines indicated, but I see I cannot do it. Suffice it, then, to say that in every class, no matter what its nature, it is the privilege of the teacher, not only to give instruction in the specific subject studied, but also to enter the broader fields of general information and practical knowledge which go to make well-equipped men and women.

I must pass suggestions three, four and five very rapidly for lack of time.

SUGGESTION NO. 3.

Encourage the scholars to form literary societies or reading circles outside of the school. That is, let each teacher be the fountain head of a miniature university extension course. Such societies, well managed, are productive of great good. I am aware that many educators have looked upon them with disfavor, claiming, and often justly so, that the work done was superficial and the results obtained were not at all commensurate with the effort expended; that the social element was made prominent at the expense of literary work. I grant that all these things are liable to occur; still, I believe in them. The same objections were vehemently urged against the Chautauqua movement. How often we heard the words "clap-trap," "nonsense," "mere superficiality," applied to it, and that, too, by prominent members of our own profession. Still, the scheme progressed. Hardly a hamlet was so poverty-stricken or ignorant that it did not boast its Chautauqua circle. They dotted the hillsides, they spread into the valleys, they invaded our cities and towns, and men and women by the thousand look with gratitude to a system which first stimulated their minds and unloosed their tongues. Now, we can in a small degree do the same good work, each in his own school or vicinity. Six years' experience in one of these societies, formed especially for young people, where I have seen its members

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grow and expand in intellectual force and in ability to speak gracefully and often eloquently, has made me a stronger advocate of them as supplemental to our regular school work.

SUGGESTION NO. 4.

Not only encourage, but also insist, upon the formation of a debating society in the school—yes, two or more of them, if the school is large enough to warrant it—which shall be manned and conducted by the scholars themselves. I cannot urge the importance of this too strongly. Not that these societies are to be used as scapegoats upon which ignorant or negligent teachers can place work that they themselves are unwilling or unable to do. They should be supplementary to the efforts we make in our regular class work. Yet we all know that they too often furnish the only instruction—the only occasion for practice in public speaking—that our boys and girls receive. There is a young man of my acquaintance who will probably be graduated from a high school next June. He stands well in his studies, has made a good record in his composition work. He told me less than two weeks ago that never since he has attended his present school had he been either required, asked, or even given an opportunity, to use his voice publicly. He did not say this complainingly by any means, but rather gleefully. And yet I read in the school paper that this same young man, in a recent public debate, by the logical presentation of his points and his eloquence, carried the day for the affirmative side of the question which was being debated. Where did he obtain this skill? Was it natural? Not at all; for only two years ago he was unable to get upon his feet and express gratification at his election to a minor office in his society. Whatever he is able to do now in the way of speaking has been brought about by the debating society, which gave him, not only opportunity, but made it obligatory for him to exercise his talents. And his case is not a rare one. I ask principals of secondary schools here to-day if the incident I have told cannot be duplicated in almost every school in the country? Is it not time that we gave our boys the best that we have at our disposal—full, not partial, equipment—and do not exclude the girls? Contrary to a somewhat prevalent opinion, they not only do not introduce a distracting and frivolous influence into these societies, but they add grace, sparkle, a certain cohesive element which is always lacking when our girls, old and young, are debarred. One of the best debaters in my school last year was a girl, who, on her first attempt at debating, nearly fainted, so great were her trepidation and embarrassment. Form debating societies, then; encourage them by your presence, by advice, by assistance, by example, which, after all, goes further with our scholars than any thing or all things beside.

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SUGGESTION NO. 5.

Continually, in season and out of season, instruct the scholars in the derivation and true meaning of English words. Forget all the other points made, if you will; disregard any or all of the incidental instruction suggested, but on no account neglect this. We may turn and overturn our composition work until we have a perfected system; our class-room instruction may be beyond criticism; literary circles and debating societies, like mushrooms, may lift their heads all over this country; in short, we may have every accessory which would tend to make our scholars fluent speakers, and yet fail miserably if we do not give them a proper comprehension of their mother tongue; if words are to them merely things to be used in a hap-hazard or simply euphonious manner, and not living vehicles of thought. I know of nothing that will so enrich the vocabulary, so improve one's appreciation of the English language, unlock so many stores of information and lay their treasures open to view as word-study properly and systematically pursued. There is no satisfactory—I was almost going to say, decent—public speaking without a just estimate of the value of these "thoughts incarnate," as Max Muller calls them. Open this vast field to the scholar. Instruct him in the use of that most valuable of all books save the sacred writings, the dictionary. Encourage, incite, stimulate him to a careful study of his own language. On every possible occasion trace back to their fountain head some of our common words. Show him how some of our most prosaic terms in their primitive form either blossom in poetry or throw strong side lights on the customs and habits of other days. Tell him that so replete with meaning is our English language that even our surnames point to significant facts in the springtime of our family history. If this is done faithfully, almost unconsciously new forms of eloquence and beauty are added to the scholar's speech. In a comparatively short time his interest is aroused. He begins to read the wonderful history of the English tongue, more fascinating than a romance. He traces the successive steps of its formation from the simple Kelts of Cæsar's day through the Latin dominance, the invasion of Angle, Saxon, Jute and Dane. He follows the Normans in their great sweep of conquest, and then pauses at one of the most peculiar conditions of affairs, as far as linguistic features are concerned, that the world has ever seen, when for over two hundred years Norman and Saxon dwelt side by side, and still their language coalesced not, until the conquered had fairly forced their language upon the victors, and from the marriage of the two tongues the grand English language resulted. He sees it continually incorporating into its vocabulary new words borrowed from almost every dialect under heaven, thus adapting itself to the necessities of science and commerce, to the requirements of new forms of intellectual and physical activity and of modern life

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with its complexities. He delves into its literature, and discovers that the strength, the sweetness, the effectiveness of all great writers and speakers depend as much on the nicety and skill with which words are chosen as on breadth of thought and depth of intellect possessed. He finds that the wonderful lines of Milton, the great dramatic scenes of Shakespeare, the lofty periods of Chatham, the ponderous eloquence of Webster, the pithy sayings of Bacon, the weird-like power of De Quincey, the soul-stirring oratory of all the great speakers, come not by mere spontaneity, but rather because each weighed as in a hair balance the precise significance of every word used, gauged to a nicety almost beyond comprehension, its potentiality. And as, year after year, with increasing zest, he pursues this fascinating word study, "dives deep beneath the surface," puts into practical use the beauties of expression which he is constantly discovering, his love of his own language, his appreciation of its worth and universal adaptability increases, and rightly he pronounces it the grandest language that the human tongue ever uttered, the noblest vehicle of human thought.

It will be noticed, that, in the suggestions made, I have confined myself entirely to incidental instruction in public speaking, without making any mention of specific training in that art. This was done because I believed there was greater need of mentioning the former, and also that it would be more practical. What we need in this day is not a conglomeration of fine-spun theories, but something utilitarian, something that we can apply in our work. Permit me, however, in very few words to refer to definite instruction in elocution.

I have not time to call attention to what this instruction should not be. If you will listen to the vaporings of many of our so-called teachers in elocution, if you notice the fact that they make the mechanical and imitative qualities of prime importance, if you see what the scholars who come under their mis-instruction are obliged to do before becoming successful in their art, namely, to forget about nine-tenths of what they have learned from them, you will have a capital idea of how it ought not to be done. All art has its mechanical side, it is true, but without expression it is not art. Our teacher of elocution should see to it that individuality is never lost sight of, that absolute self-control is acquired, that knowledge of human nature in all its various phases is fostered and increased, that the voice is cultivated, that the imagination is developed. These are all necessary to a thorough elocutionist. In short, to be successful, to be possessed of real eloquence, a threefold development is requisite, development physically, mentally, morally. Lacking in one of these essentials, no one can rightly claim to be a perfect public speaker.

Well, our boy having had all the advantages of the suggestions offered this afternoon, and having received instruction from a master

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hand in elocution, bids farewell to his school and goes to college or enters active life. He has been taught to think, to reason and to express himself. With well-equipped mental, physical and moral faculties, he stands undismayed in the presence of the new conditions that surround him. Where others are blind, he sees; where others are dumb, he speaks; where others falter and fail, he finds in the obstacles only an incentive to try his conscious powers, and he is successful. And as the years go by, and he, by his ability "to bring things to pass," and his skill in the presentation of great economic, scholastic or moral truths, wins influence and fame, he attributes it, not so much to his college, nor to his professional school, as to the high school, which, in the impressionable and formative period of his life, gave him just the encouragement and instruction he required and really made him what he is, a power for good in the world.

THE TRAINING OF THE HIGH SCHOOL TEACHER.

(*a*) Is a Term of Service in the Grammar Grades Advisable?
(*b*) Is There Need of Specialists?

BY MISS EOLINE CLARK, HIGH SCHOOL, FREMONT, NEB.

> O, let not then unskilled hands attempt
> To play the harp whose tones—whose living tones
> Are left forever in the strings. Better far
> That heaven's lightnings blast his very soul
> And sink it back to chaos' lowest depths
> Than knowingly, by word or deed, he send
> A blight upon the trusting mind of youth.

The purpose of anything determines its nature. So the quality of professional training must be determined by its design or end. To fairly estimate that needed by the high school teacher, we must first consider the object for which he is to be trained; that is, what he is expected to accomplish with the knowledge and discipline he has acquired. He is to have under his direction and influence boys and girls in that period of their lives when character is becoming fixed and crystalized into permanent form, when decisions are made which determine the direction of their whole future action, yet while these opinions and determinations are not so settled but that outside influence, judiciously used, may mold them as they can never be shaped in after years.

Wisely, indeed, should the influence possessed over them during these years be exerted, and no one, not even the parent, has the power

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so to control their tastes, in the direction of educational matters, at least, as has the teacher who has won the love and confidence of his pupils. To be capable of obtaining this influence and worthy of exercising it, the high school teacher must be trained in every element of his character; intellectually, physically, morally, socially and professionally. He should have a college education or its equivalent. The man of thorough and extended scholastic acquirements, trained to independent thought, is certainly better fitted to direct the mental efforts of students than one who lacks this culture. Such a one is less liable to allow superficial work by his pupils. This avoided, he has escaped one of the greatest errors made by teachers. Its misfortune lies, chiefly, not in the fact that it is superficial as to book-knowledge, but in the habits formed by pupils in doing this kind of work. It defeats one of the great objects of all true education, that of concentration of effort, and gives to character an impress that can never be effaced. He is more likely to inspire in his pupils a love and desire for higher attainments. Too few of our high school graduates ever enter college or university. May not the fact that so small a percentage of our high school teachers are college or university men account for this deficiency?

But the possession of great scholarship is, of itself, no proof that a man will make a good teacher. He must possess the teaching ability. This means infinitely more than the power to give much information. It means the power to awaken that faculty of self-education possessed by every child, and wisely to direct it. Teaching has assumed and must sustain the dignity of a profession. Then must we not require a professional training for those, at least, who are leaders in our work? It is demanded of a physician that he has studied medicine; a lawyer must have studied law; and the patrons of our schools are becoming conscious of the fact that the treatment of the mind, as it passes through the various stages of its development, is worthy of the care of one with no less professional training than is asked of him who is entrusted with the care of the physical being or the legal rights.

The means of obtaining this professional training are not lacking. The best normal schools of our country are doing a grand work. Let all honor be given them, but beware of imitations, for superficial or defective training of teachers is far reaching in its results.

Supplementing, but not taking the place of, the normal school training, is that given by the summer schools, teachers' associations and institutes held in every State. These have done much to give clear ideas of true educational principles. Approved methods of instruction have become, through their agency, familiar to remote sections of our country; teachers have had given them permanent impressions of the responsibilities pertaining to their positions, and by

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being brought in contact with the leaders in the work, have received higher ideals and a more exalted love for their profession.

In this connection, the influence of the educational journal must not be overlooked, for it has taken a leading part in every attempt to reach these higher ideals.

Yet, after all, to a very great extent the teacher must learn to teach by teaching. No amount of study of methods, or observation of the practice of those methods, can take the place of personal experience. Let a man be born with the teaching ability (and some men are born teachers, as others are born poets, painters or musicians), and, though he may lack in some of the approved means of training, this faculty will assert itself when he is placed in the school-room.

His love for the work will induce him to make such investigations of the child mind, and of the opinions of eminent educators concerning the laws of its development, that he becomes, almost before he is aware, possessed of a professional knowledge, enabling him to understand much of the human mind and its capabilities for growth. Let this teaching be under the eye of some competent critic and the results will be infinitely better than they could be without this aid.

Then, is a term of service in the grammar grade desirable? Undoubtedly. In no other way can the high school teacher, from the very nature of his work, obtain such intimate knowledge of the development already undergone by the pupils' minds or so well comprehend their weakness and strength. Let him have followed the same class, or similar classes, through the years of their work in the grammar grades, and he will know how, year after year, new faculties become the strong ones, and greater power of reasoning, and so of assimilating knowledge, is developed. He will not so often be inclined to censure either the pupil or the teacher of the lower grades for what might seem a lack of thoroughness in the comprehension of some demonstration or principle, for he will know that this same law of development prevents complete understanding till the ascendancy of the reasoning powers has made strong the power of comprehension.

It is not an uncommon experience for a teacher who has taken in a higher grade the pupils taught by him in a lower, to have them express their astonishment at understanding clearly some truth which he had previously presented to them, wondering that they had never had so clear an explanation of it before, while he knows that the same explanation—only, perhaps, made more simple and better suited to their mental capacity—has been given them. The difficulty lay, not with the explanation, nor with the teacher, nor with the pupil's willingness to learn; he simply was not able, at that stage of his mental development, to comprehend the truth which flashed upon him so clearly, at last, that he marveled at its ever having seemed

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obscure. The personal knowledge of this fact aids greatly in the work the teacher has now to do for the proper strengthening of the yet immature mind.

Added to these advantages, the effect of having worked with the pupils in the lower grades, has something in it of that obtained by permanency of position. Nothing adds more to the power of the real teacher than continued relation between his pupils and himself. I say, "the real teacher," for, while it may be true that the poor or indifferent teacher may do as good work the first year he has charge of a class as he does when that class has been under his care for a longer time, the man who excels in his profession gains in power and influence over his pupils with each year he spends with them. The more favorable the conditions for personal contact with the individual members of his class the more emphatically is this true.

Then, our high school teacher should have that firmness of character, that steadiness of purpose, that devotion to his work for the work's sake, which will induce him to remain in a position where he feels he is accomplishing that which will result in permanent good to himself and his pupils, even should some place more tempting in salary be open to him. Not that a lack of professional ambition to advance is a credit to a teacher more than to one engaged in any other work; but the true professional ambition should be for success other than mere personal gain. When this higher success is reached the lesser considerations of position and salary will follow. But though they should be secondary, a certain amount of business sagacity and training is of advantage to the teacher of boys and girls of that age, especially when they are beginning to take an active interest in the too-absorbing question of our times—that of the acquisition of dollars and cents. Other things being equal, the man who is a good business man is better as a teacher than he who has made a failure in every other enterprise in which he has been engaged. This applies to the average man as we find him in school and out of school, not to those exceptional geniuses who have flashed upon our horizon with some truth not before comprehended and who have given their lives to its promulgation.

All mind power depends largely upon physical condition; so we find, that not far behind the need of all these intellectual requirements comes the need of physical culture. The stage of the bodily development reached by the high school pupil is one in which he needs carefully and wisely directed exercise of his physical powers. He (perhaps, in this case, I should say the girl) is liable to become a mere student, giving too little care and attention to systematic exercise; or, on the other hand, the boy allows the exuberance of his animal spirits to carry him to the other extreme, and too much time and strength are given to athletic sports. The teacher should be able

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to lead, direct and control in these exercises, as well as in those of the class-room. This he can do only if he has personally felt the benefit derived from them and the pleasure arising from the ability to use with perfect ease every part of his body.

Greater than the physical, greater than the intellectual training needed by the teacher, is the need of moral training. The legacy of character left the world by his pupils is his crown of success or his insignia of failure. He must be able to supply food for the moral growth of the child. It is worthy of consideration that the teacher who has a good solid moral character himself is the one who can most easily train the child morally. He must not only appear to be honest and true, but honesty and truth must be constitutional parts of the self which is above and beyond reputation. He cannot easily deceive his boys and girls should he so desire, and he should be so trained to self-inspection that he do not that (which is easier) deceive himself.

This high moral character comes only with true religious training —not the form, merely, but the reality. It has been said, "The elimination of religious influences from any school is dangerous to the school itself, while the elimination of religious influences from our higher institutions of learning is dangerous to the State." The word "elimination" is used advisedly, as the introduction of these influences into our schools is not to be debated; they have had a place there since the schools have existed. The innovation is on the part of those who would banish them.

One of our honored leaders, Dr. G. Stanley Hall, tells us eloquently of the need of the systematic, intelligent training of another of our endowments, that of the heart.

To be earnestly interested in each individual pupil, the teacher must have depth and breadth of this faculty called the heart. The divine love is received and reflected by it and is so transmitted by us to those around us. Let it not be measured or stinted in quantity as we give it to these, our pupils. Every possible effort should be made to fill their lives with happiness. Let each day and each hour be a bright link in the chain which begins with life, but ends not with what we call death. To make one's sunny disposition less sunny, or to fail to brighten one naturally gloomy, is a responsibility too lightly assumed by the teacher. The lesson to "trip lightly over sorrow, trip lightly over wrong," is one well worth the learning, when the effect on the inner self is considered. Nature is constantly telling us a story of joy:

> There's a blush on the fruit and a smile on the flower,
> And a laugh on the brook as it runs to the sea.

To induce the pupil to see and enjoy that which surrounds him, the teacher should have a trained observation and love of nature.

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There is no lack of beauty and grandeur in the environments in which God has placed us.

> The hills,
> Rock-ribbed and ancient as the sun; the vales
> Stretching in pensive quietness between;
> Venerable woods; rivers that move
> In majesty, and the complaining brooks
> That make the meadows green; and poured round all
> Old ocean's gray and melancholy waste.

What shall we make of this world of loveliness? How shall we help these young minds to be filled with its beauty? Only through a thorough appreciation of Nature in all her moods, can we lead to observe and enjoy these grand provisions for our pleasure.

Added to all these qualifications, the man who is to be our ideal high school teacher must have that polish and self-control given him by intercourse with good society. His power over his pupils will be increased, and he will be enabled to give them that for which they will ever be thankful. No teacher who habitually fails in the least act of courtesy towards his pupils, or allows them to fail in one towards him, has done his whole duty; for this duty constantly calls him to pass the limits of the school-room, and he who fails to respond to these calls fails ofttimes in that which is higher than the work of the class or lecture-room.

The loss is felt and seen in its effects. Did Dr. Holmes touch on the truth when he wrote:

> Yet somehow we have lost amid our gain
> Some rare ideals time may not restore;
> The charm of courtly breeding seen no more
> And reverence, dearest ornament of all.

To the second subdivision of my subject, I answer: Yes, there is need of specialists. But only those whose preparation for special work began after a deep, broad foundation had been laid upon which to build. A few, not connected, quotations from a recent article from the pen of Dr. Harper of the Chicago University are so pertinent that the desire to use them is not to be resisted. He says:

> Our teacher is not the man who to-day professes himself able to teach any one of twenty subjects. He is not the man who kindly proposed that he be made a professor in the university, and that he should hold himself in readiness to take the work of any of the professors of the university who might happen for sickness or any other reason to be absent for a season. Do we appreciate the fact that the man who to-day professes to be able to teach the different departments of a single subject in that very profession brands himself an imposter?
>
> Our teacher, I say, may be one who, after broad preparation, has selected a subject, to some phase of which he will thereafter devote himself. The preparation for such work, it is suggested, requires long and severe labor. You are right. There will be the four or five years for special preparation for college, the four years of college work, and the three or four years of graduate study.

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Then, and not till then, will the young man be ready to announce himself a teacher.

It is men with such preparation that are needed to-day in the high schools, as well as in the colleges.

In no way can the highest possible perfection in each department of work be reached but by placing it in charge of a teacher who, though he may not have had all the years of preparation suggested by Dr. Harper, has given special attention to that department. This special work is usually chosen because of some natural fitness for it. The man who could be an enthusiastic teacher of the sciences would not be likely to fit himself to teach mathematics, when that branch is distasteful to him, nor would the natural mathematician choose languages for his specialty. Many lifeless recitations, distasteful alike to teacher and pupil, would thus be avoided, and all the natural ability of the teacher be utilized to the advantage of the pupil.

In most of our high schools too little attention is paid to this natural fitness and special preparation for the branches assigned each teacher. Realizing the gain to be made by such careful selection, the teacher will not be long in taking the necessary steps to prepare for it, and the time will not be far in the future, when the demand will be met with a supply suitable for a high school much nearer the ideal one than may have yet been reached.

A glance, then, at our high school teacher shows us a cultured man; moral, and therefore free from habits not desirable to encourage in our boys; physically able to direct their bodily training; and intellectually not only capable of fitting them for college or university, but also of awakening in their souls the desire to continue their work through these higher institutions of learning. Shown, too, in his life is the reflection of that divine knowledge of which it has been said: "And ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you free."

DISCUSSION.

PRINCIPAL CHAS. C. RAMSAY, Fall River, Mass.—The topic discussed in this paper I regard so important as to be worthy of the consideration of an entire session of our section. The report of the Committee of Ten made no point clearer than the pressing necessity of well-trained teachers in secondary schools. Long ago, in the establishment of normal schools, the training of primary and grammar school teachers was begun; but this pedagogical wave of reform has not yet struck the high schools. If I can read aright the signs of the times, however, the time will soon come when not only secondary but collegiate instructors will receive adequate training for their work. There has been, and still is, a great reluctance, scarcely justifiable, as I think, to promote secondary teachers to college positions. The objection to such promotion is that high school teachers have a radically

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different point of view, and become unfitted, by reason of the conditions under which they teach, to instruct college students. I think, however, that every college instructor would be greatly the better teacher if he had had prior experience as a teacher in a high school, provided that it had not been too long. The same is true of prior experience in grammar grades for all who would teach in high schools. In my own school, I have teachers who have had such experience and teachers who have not. Among secondary teachers who have had long grammar school experience, I have often observed a certain childishness and pettiness in spirit, method and manner, due, I think, by no means wholly to mental constitution and temperament. Too much grammar school experience I regard very detrimental to good work in high school teaching. In my own section of country, as you perhaps know, specialists are coming to be the rule rather than the exception among high school teachers; and it is well. The work accomplished is incomparably superior to that done by teachers who gave instruction in several branches. The monotony to the teacher of many daily recitations in the same study is avoided in a large high school, because in the exigencies of the program there are always conflicts which prevent the special teacher of a branch from meeting all sections or classes pursuing it.

THE FUTURE OF THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL.

BY J. REMSEN BISHOP, HUGHES HIGH SCHOOL, CINCINNATI, OHIO.

The thoughtful man looks upon the past with respect, upon the present with both satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and toward the future, as the case may be, with hope or with despair.

In the past, the American high school has been, not a product of the college reaching downward, but of the public schools reaching upward. In many States the public system of education has reached still farther upward, and we find the State university an integral part of a grand system extending from the primary grades through the secondary school—the high school—to higher institutions of learning. Yet in the past the independence of every intermediate system of schools in this great whole was as unquestioned as that of the most advanced institution. Each system did its best for intellectual development on the broadest lines, and no right of the more advanced to dominate the less advanced was either asserted or voluntarily admitted. The gloriously Greek—the great American idea—of free development, as contradistinct to the European or Roman idea of autocratic regulation of the entire educational system, ruled with practically no opposition.

In the present there is found a new influence at work, which, with, I hope, no likelihood of giving offense, I may call the trans-oceanic influence. Many of our educators who, abroad or at home, have studied the foreign, and, more especially, the German schools, have

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become dissatisfied with the American system. These are more and more insistently advocating a complete co-ordination of the free public schools and the corporate pay (often very high pay) schools and colleges. The report of the Committee of Ten, which I must here reluctantly pass by with mere mention, is a partial application of the trans-oceanic idea to our public school system. Before we can intelligently pronounce upon the probable advantage or disadvantage that would result from the adoption of the trans-oceanic system, we must have clearly in view the present status and condition of the American high school.

When it was found that many children would, if public facilities were afforded, continue their school work up to the age of eighteen or nineteen, the high school was established. Preparation of pupils for higher institutions other than those which would admit on certificate high school graduates of good standing was an afterthought. There is no trace of this in the original plan. In most high schools, preparation for college, adapted to the requirements for admission, is a feature of recent introduction. The main function of the high school never has been, and is not now, to satisfy the arbitrary requirements for admission to particular colleges, nor to conform to the preparation desired less specifically by colleges in general. I believe that the province of the American high school has been, is now, and ought to continue to be, the strengthening and broadening, to the greatest possible degree, of its pupils, irrespective of probable destination in life. High school graduates should be men to vote, and women to vote or influence votes, who have learned those lessons of history and of philosophy which teach the inevitable conditions of our existence; who have made that acquaintance with the problems of the past and of the present which alone saves from the pitfall of fanaticism. More of this later, for we are now considering the actual condition of the high school.

The introduction of a college preparatory course, arranged to meet the requirements of the ordinary college, necessarily hampered the freedom of the general course. With a limited number of teachers, a compromise was necessary. Some studies of the general course—Latin, for instance—was confined to the texts and portions of texts required by the college. On the other hand, the "college class" was compelled to study physics, which is not absolutely required by any college, and was also forced to devote to an extensive course in English literature energy which, in view of the coming college work, might better be given to direct college preparatory work and to much needed reviews. Also, in a more subtle manner, the college preparatory course has tended to limit the scope of work in the high school by creating an assumption that it is not the business of the high school to touch subjects of study claimed by the colleges as their

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exclusive property. I am inclined to trace to this source the lack of spirit in the work of the general course which has appeared to the public as indicating the decadence of the high school. The restless desire on the part of school officers to change the course of study is a natural consequence of shaken public confidence in the vitality of the schools.

In other words, we have come to an era of change in the history of the American high school. Much depends upon the wisdom or unwisdom which may characterize the changes which will undoubtedly be made. Let us examine the elements which will determine the result.

I may be wrong, but I consider those who would tack technical training to the high school enemies both of technical and of liberal education. I believe that both schemes of mind molding are injured by being forced into conjunction when both have important fields widely sundered in their very nature.

There are at present formed, or at least forming, among those who wish to be friends of the high school of liberal aim, two parties, with principles in their nature antagonistic. The one clings to the idea of the independent high school. It boldly stands for a broad course, which shall lay the foundation—supply the rudimentary data—of the greatest practicable number of liberal studies, defining liberal studies as those which "regard rather * * * intellectual improvement than the necessity of subsistence." Each subject shall be developed to an extent determined by two requirements: that a lasting impression shall be made upon the mind, and that other studies of the course shall not be cramped. This party has for its watchwords: "The best equipment for living" and "The greatest good to the greatest number." Preparation for colleges that will not open their doors to high school graduates is relegated to a separate, and, so far as possible, distinct department. The broad minded and patriotic members of this party fervently desire that all pupils so endowed and so situated as to make it advisable should pursue their studies beyond the high school. They feel that, as many colleges do now, more still will do hereafter, and the graduates of good high schools will one day be welcomed without question in all the colleges and universities of the land. Meanwhile, they would make the college preparatory course as efficient as the most earnest effort can accomplish. They make their stand upon the interests of the large majority of pupils who have no intention of going beyond the high school. They would provide for the two or three, whose intention might in some way be altered, by special assistance in and out of school hours until they could adapt themselves to the college course. Every pupil should be encouraged to aim at the highest degree of culture attainable. They smile at the new notion that all studies are of equal

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educational value as being from experience false. It is also slyly suggested that, even if this notion were not false, it would be no argument for the exclusion of political economy and mental and moral philosophy.

In a meeting of the Council, Professor Wheeler said that the colleges represent great vested interests, and are here to stay; that he is opposed to the German dualism of gymnasium and university, and in favor of a trialism—high school, college, university; that the colleges turned out the men who have been of great value—men of strong purpose grounded upon good training. All this is undoubtedly true of the college, and all honor to that institution; but there is another consideration. Both he and Professor King dodge the question as to which college or set of colleges shall determine the high school course; for there is a wonderful difference, as every college preparatory teacher knows to his cost, in the requirements of different colleges. Would it not be well, say the defenders of high school independence, for the colleges to get together and co-ordinate themselves before they attempt to co-ordinate the high schools?

The other party—the party of the trans-oceanic idea—would so order the high school as to make it dovetail into a system which, with the jealously exclusive college, should afford a liberal education, and without the college an education absolutely curtailed of certain branches of liberal study. The aggressive members of this party hold that certain subjects *per se* belong to the high school work, and that others may be incidentally taught but must not appear as regular separate studies. "A few things thoroughly" and the "co-ordination of the high school with the college" are their watchwords. Upon examination, the "few things" are found to be those traditionally required as foundation for college work or gradually being introduced as college requirements. They speak of schools "called gymnasial in Germany, secondary in France, and preparatory in America," and would include the high schools in this class. The independently developed American high school has, in their view, no ground for existence, and is simply the product of the necessarily chaotic conditions of a new country. Such, in brief, is the attitude of the two high school parties.

If there is one important change advocated by members of both parties, it is that of the addition of two years to the traditional four years' high school course. Supporters of this idea propose that the high school shall receive pupils two years earlier. It is argued that both the languages and the sciences would benefit by this change, which means nothing more than the introduction of certain studies at an earlier stage in the child's school course.

The battle is on with the two high school parties. That deceitful period of proposed compromise, of honeyed, hollow protestations, that

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each party is faithfully considering the interests of the other, will soon pass. In one camp or the other the combatants will face each other "to do or die." It would be foolish to claim that all the right is with the one side or with the other. But I here put myself on record as a private in the ranks of the independent American high school, preparing pupils for any college, however difficult of entrance, through a college course, but giving to those who are not going to college all the liberal study practicable. I believe that the needed impulse will come through thought-inspiring work; work which will force the teacher to draw out the pupils' minds upon the broad platform of human interests, there to wrestle with them and make them her own in the great cause of religion, patriotism and humanity. Cut and dried mere salary earning work, if it exists, will cease, just as the slavish conservatism of a foreign aristocratic government disappears in the free air of America. The signs are appearing. Mr. Morgan, superintendent of the Cincinnati schools, is about to introduce "thought periods" into the course of the lower schools. These periods are to displace mechanical work, and in them it will be the duty of the teachers to induce their pupils to make synthetic use of the material acquired in their formal recitations. It is in the air that mechanical drudgery in preparing for examinations upon lengthy and spiritless courses will give way for vital work. The demand is for lesser amount of required work and for enrichment. The exertion of moral force, as well as the skillful employment of drill, must find place in every recitation. It makes no difference whether a course comes under the head of "Information Courses" or under that of "Training Courses," so long as it fits properly into a well rounded whole. Character building is the real object. The ethical element must not be absent from anything taught, and the natural development as to subjects must be allowed. No subject should be excluded as a subject, but simply because it is not reached specifically in the development of the child's mental and moral powers within high school years. The testimony of actual experience is here both sole evidence and conclusive evidence, and no *a priori* conclusion is of value.

The teachers are ready and willing to make a noble response to this demand that they give greater prominence to the ethical element, and we shall soon find none who are merely drill-masters on so many pages of United States school regulations, but all ministers of light, teaching to the young those things, "the knowledge of which continues in heaven."*

HOW THE HIGH SCHOOL MAY ADVANCE PATRIOTISM.

Alarmists are beginning to cry aloud that patriotism is declining in our precious native land. It is probably true that the era of

*Part of a school motto.

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buoyant, boasting patriotism is forever past, but of calm, and, if necessary, obstinately resistant patriotism, there certainly is no lack. Yet the first indication of a decline of patriotism should be watched for as Elizabeth's scout-ships watched for the Spanish Armada, and every resource should be strained to prove that the lion of patriotic love but seemed to drowse. Defeat at the hands of a foreign foe may be borne with fortitude and prove a blessing in disguise. Curtailed in territory and population, a nation may shine as a more brilliant light for the very concentration of its rays. The slow decay which follows the decline of patriotism in the heart of a people is an unmitigated calamity—a deadly disease which, unless arrested at a very early stage, means certain and miserable death. In any case, prevention is better than cure. The American high school should be an agency preventive of a decline of patriotism. In two, or, at least, three years, its male graduates will be voters. In their free education is found a concrete evidence of their country's love for them; they are of an age at once plastic and rational, both enthusiastic and deliberate. What a glorious opportunity to inculcate—yes, stamp in—a sense of reverence, obligation and love! Work from this vantage ground. Speak often, also, of the glorious past, the bold working out of our nation's destiny in the face of Europe's contempt and our own poverty of everything except hope and pluck. Boldly teach that there is no fairer, happier land than ours; that no foreign foe would so much as think of invading our boundaries, and the traitor within carries the halter about his neck. Keep the flag in view and do it reverence.

Herbart taught that the conception of duty arises from the existence of hindrances to the attainment of virtue. Let every pupil know that there are many things threatening the prosperity and happiness of our country—that its future depends upon the unselfish and patient devotion of true Americans. It is possible to shadow forth these things without going into political questions. Endeavor to make it a boy's or girl's ambition in some way to serve his fellow countrymen, as the surest way to induce him to serve his country. In showing him the clouds, never forget to point out the ever-present glimmer of the silver lining. The little candles of good deeds still shine in the dark room of the threatening present.

Military organizations may be made of great assistance in this work of advancing patriotism; or, as I prefer, in preventing its decline. Future war is not necessarily symbolized in these organizations; rather, the necessary wars of the past and a present determination to rally round the flag, whether threatened by the weaker foe of violence, or the stronger foe of anarchism and social discontent. Singing of national airs, accompanied by short patriotic addresses, should, I think, frequently form a part of the school exercises. More

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than all, however, each teacher should feel it her duty, as occasion offers in the multitudinous incidents of school life, to set vibrating the chord of native love and pride. When the high school teachers are once impressed with the need of their help in preventing a possible decline in patriotism they will not be called twice. If any one thinks that he sees signs of declining patriotism, let him sound the call. If it is seconded by the public, there will be at once increased activity in this direction. The high school teachers of America are not eye-servants. I believe that there is not one of them, man or woman, in this broad land, who is not ready to do yeoman's work in our country's service, teaching love for her, voting for her best interests, nursing her sick and wounded; if necessary, dying for her.

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DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION—WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 11, 1894.

The Department of Higher Education met in the Reformed church, Asbury Park, N. J., on Wednesday, July 11th, at 3 P. M. President Austin Scott of Rutgers College, New Jersey, presided. In the absence of the Secretary, Mr. Issac T. Johnson of Wilmington, Del., was appointed Secretary *pro tem.*

The President announced the following Committee on Nominations of Officers for 1895: President John E. Bradley of Illinois College, Chairman; President W. F. King of Cornell College, Iowa; and President Isaac Sharpless of Haverford College, Pennsylvania.

President John F. Crowell of Trinity College, North Carolina, read a paper upon "The Future of the Smaller Colleges."

The discussion was opened by Prof. J. B. Kieffer of Franklin and Marshall College, Pennsylvania, and continued by Prof. Louis Bevier, Jr., of Rutgers College, New Jersey; Prof. Horace Goodhue of Carleton College, Minnesota; President John E. Bradley of Illinois College; and President Thompson of Miami University.

Prof. Adolphe Cohn of Columbia College, New York, delivered an address upon "The Group System of College Studies." The department then adjourned to meet on Thursday, July 12th, in the same place, at 3 P. M.

SECOND SESSION—THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 12, 1894.

The department reassembled on Thursday, July 12th, at 3 P. M., President Scott in the chair, and Mr. Johnson of Wilmington, Del., acting as secretary. The Committee on Nominations submitted the following report for officers for 1895:

President—James H. Baker of the University of Colorado.

Vice President—President John F. Crowell of Trinity College, North Carolina.

Secretary—Prof. Horace Goodhue of Carleton College, Minnesota.

Executive Committee—The President, Vice President and Secretary; President John E. Bradley of Illinois College; President William F. King of Cornell College, Iowa; and Prof. John B. Kieffer, Franklin and Marshall College, Pennsylvania.

The report of the committee was adopted and the nominees declared duly elected.

George Wharton Pepper of Philadelphia read a paper on "The Control of College Athletics by Faculty and Alumni."

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The discussion was participated in by Professor Boatwright of Richmond College, Va.; Professor Rothwell of Liberty, Mo.; Prof. R. L. Sackett of Earlham College, Indiana; President Bashford of Ohio Wesleyan University; Chancellor Snow of the University of Kansas; Professor Buck of Cornell College, Iowa; President Schaeffer of Iowa State University; President Adams of the University of Wisconsin and Professor E. Hitchcock, Cornell University.

President Adams of the University of Wisconsin offered the following resolution, which was, after a brief discussion, adopted:

Resolved, That, in the judgment of this department, every practicable effort should be put forth by all college and university authorities to prevent professionalism of every form in intercollegiate athletic contests; and to make every such contest a genuine and honorable test of athletic skill, by excluding from participation in such contests all persons who are not regularly enrolled as students and doing full work as such.

In the absence of Professor Warfield of Lafayette College, who was to read a paper on "Student Co-operation in College Government," this subject was informally discussed by Dr. B. A. Hinsdale of the University of Michigan; President Isaac Sharpless of Haverford College, Pennsylvania; President Crowell of Trinity College, North Carolina; President Adams of the University of Wisconsin; and President King of Oberlin.

ISAAC T. JOHNSON,
Acting Secretary.

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PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS.

THE FUTURE OF THE SMALLER COLLEGE.

BY PRESIDENT JOHN F. CROWELL, TRINITY COLLEGE, NORTH CAROLINA.

Ten years ago it was my impression, based on a report of the Federal Commission of Education, that the smaller college as a type was certainly, if not rapidly, disappearing from the educational system in the United States.

This opinion rested largely on the popular observation of reflective educators that the number of colleges in the United States had, for a given decade, remained stationary, while for the same period new and competing types of educational institutions had increased both in number and in efficiency. To these latter classes of institutions the tide of patronage and the interest and support of the State lent an increasing prestige in the public estimation which quite overshadowed the colleges. Naturally enough the question arose whether the smaller college, on which these changes press hardest, can really last much longer in the course of years.

Too generally, perhaps, has this indication been accepted as a finality, as if the inevitable had at last come and must be respected without challenge or even inquiry. Such, however, is not the feeling of those who are best acquainted with the institutions in question. To them it becomes at once a matter of keen regret, that an institution which, for two and a half centuries, had pioneered the nation in its educational development should be threatened with elimination from our national life. There lies underneath this regret a conviction that those institutions, which society called into being in its soberest moods, will not hastily be cast aside. And yet, that is not all. We now know, as a matter of scientific demonstration, that the law of all life, whether in the individual or the institutions of society, is but an interminable struggle for survival. This question, therefore, in scientific form, is simply this: Can the smaller college fit itself for a more or less permanent function in higher education under existing educational conditions?

This form of the question assumes, what I think all of whatever persuasion will admit, that the smaller college is, with proper exceptions, currently regarded in educational circles as standing at a discount. To treat the question radically, we ought to know why it is, that out of our wide variety of educational institutions the smaller college has been singled as the special object of distrust

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and doubt. We ought to know these things, if they can be known. We ought to know just what sociological forces and functions are bound up in the institutions under discussion; and then, if it turn out that, in the end, the smaller college can be spared and these forces and factors, thus released by the dissolution of the smaller college, can be used to better advantage under other forms, let it be considered well and good. For times of transition are always critical; there is sure loss with much risk, and often doubtful gain for all our pains.

Let us note three phases of the question:

1. Existing educational conditions.
2. The true function of the American college.
3. The capacity of the smaller college to adapt itself to the new order of things.

Without anticipating a conclusion, it may be best to give here the position of those who take a despairing view of the situation. I think that we may sum it up in three statements:

1. That the age is rapidly outgrowing the smaller college by reason of the increase in knowledge, and is requiring more liberally equipped and more specifically organized departments of instruction in the same institutions, of which the larger and richer colleges and the scientific and technological schools, as well as the generously supported universities of the State, are the standard type more certain to prevail over the smaller college, and later to supersede it entirely by rendering the college unnecessary at first and then useless.

2. That the old-fashioned classical colleges give an education which is no longer in demand, either for lack of time to prepare for and take it, or because it is regarded as, on the whole, not necessary or particularly desirable as preparation for professional study or business life.

3. That the spirit of the smaller colleges, particularly those under denominational control, is out of accord with the popular impulse; is lacking in civic enthusiasm; and that these, together with the disposition to sacrifice the standards of scholarship to religious devotion or pecuniary necessities, render them incapable of realizing the best ends of higher education.

There is much in these allegations that may be truly said of some colleges; it is equally true that not a single one of these assertions is true of all small colleges. In all of the other States there are small colleges whose scholarship and equipment for undergraduate instruction are of such a character as to place these institutions beyond the apologetic level of life. In the South and the West there are more whose charters should be surrendered and the granting of degrees brought to an end; but throughout all these commonwealths

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there is a feeling that, in some definite measure, the religious liberties of the people are receiving a degree of positive development for which we can look to no other conceivable educational agency in existence. The modern attitude of the State toward religious activity is almost wholly negative; farther and farther the State universities and the larger colleges are drifting from the spirit of their founders in believing that, in order to have safe social development, the positive facts of the religious experience of the race must be emphasized side by side with a corresponding exposition of political rights and duties. To them the neglect of the one, no matter which, was as dangerous as the subversion of the other.

I make no apology for speaking of the religious factor in higher education, because the small college is guaranteeing to the youth of the land a discipline whose coherent force is of inestimable value to these times. Indeed, I am more than glad to say, and say with emphasis, that he who attempts to sum up existing educational conditions without taking due account of the religious forces in the American people will be so wide of the mark as a prophet of educational progress as to render his conclusions unworthy of common credence.

I have asked you to take with me this point of view, because the genius of the small college is historically and fundamentally religious. It grasps the supreme problems of two worlds in one program of education, and must, therefore, of necessity, take a very different view of the whole problem, as compared with the State or with the other institutions whose main purpose is to see that science is put to the service of industry. For all these the civic ideal is the dominant impulse. The one asks evermore: "What shall we eat or what shall we drink or wherewithal shall we be clothed?" The other commands us to seek the supreme good; is a spiritual order putting the economic welfare as secondary in the plan of life. These two poles of thought have been the two ruling impulses in all creative periods of history. In its turn each has overborne the other and given us a one-sided civilization. Naturally, then, if the economic or civic view of life, as a whole, is so different from that which the religious view involves, there must, of necessity, be the widest difference in the their respective conceptions of any higher education which is to be regarded as a preparation for life itself.

These two views are, after all, in no wise incompatible. Only when the ends of education are taken for means, and the higher purpose is crowded out to give place to the lower, does the one cross swords with the other. To day, while the mercantile spirit is rampant, demanding a degree of practicality that leaves no room for the reflective life, it becomes the smaller college to teach with more earnestness than ever the wisdom of the ages. The overshad-

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owing growth of other institutions in the last quarter of a century must be interpreted rather as the triumph of spirit over matter than as an indication that materialism has taken hold upon the national life. Once in its brief history has the American college saved the nation from the palsy of doubt. That was the chief task which called these colleges into being. There are infinitely greater tasks than ever for the institutions to do which are firmly grounded on the ethico-religious basis. The smaller college is still the best representative of this particular class of educational influences.

I have, I fear, dwelt more than necessary upon the theoretical aspect of this question. But it is much to have made it clear, that it is not war, but welfare, that we are after. The outward conditions are easily outlined. The State universities and the normal schools are the main competitors with the smaller college in the West; in the Middle States and in New England older universities, the technical and scientific schools are drawing largely upon patronage that the smaller college naturally regarded as its own; in the South the schools of agriculture and mechanic arts and a few high-grade universities have recently entered the field on somewhat different planes of competition with the smaller college.

Again, in each of these sections the condition of secondary education enters somewhat differently into the question of the future of the smaller college. More remotely still, but of equal importance, each section has its peculiar sociological conditions which enter into the problem. Yet, in their history they have had a common experience which makes them all kin, as it were. That kinship, it must be remembered, was never born of anything else than a zeal for the spread of higher learning; largely so, too, in years before the commonwealths had grasped the importance of higher education for the public weal.

The monograms of State histories of education, unfair as some are, show how large a share of the work of higher education has been done by the smaller college in the past. Not, then, for any historic shortcomings can the smaller college be justly taken to account. It is only in her failure to keep herself in a more sympathetic touch with the immensely varied unfoldings of new conditions at the end of the century that we have found her wanting. But in all these changes she has kept her face toward the unchanging ideal which has been her chief glory in the past, and will undoubtedly prove to be her salvation in the not distant future.

THE TRUE FUNCTION OF THE AMERICAN COLLEGE.

From the criticisms made adversely to the small college, it must be evident that many weak institutions are meant which do not really figure in the question. They will, in the course of time, dis-

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appear from the list with the advance of enlightenment. Some are to-day being correlated with stronger institutions, so that the name that knows them now will know them no more forever. The fact of their having come into being is simply proof of the over-supply of a good thing. If now the weaker ones go under, it is only what is happening year by year in the industrial world of supply and demand.

The real American college has two co-ordinate functions. It must, at the same time, be both disciplinary and cultural in its work. The four-year curriculum makes it practicable to give the major part of the first two years to disciplinary studies accompanied by a steadily increasing share of cultural instruction. By the beginning the third year these two aspects of the college training become equal. From that time the cultural part begins to preponderate, increasing till the end of the course at graduation, when the whole scheme becomes cultural. The division of a parallelogram into two equal parts by a diagonal line illustrates the proportion of each feature in the progress through the course of four years, beginning at one end and proceeding toward the other.

Among our colleges, the smaller ones must stick to the essentials, and, on account of the limited number of students, do the work which it undertakes better than the larger college or the university can do it. The maxim of Dr. Arnold of Rugby must ever be in mind; that it is not a question of how many hundred students, but how fine a product, can be produced. For the smaller college more than for any other the true end of education must be the gaining of knowledge in order to apply it to the conduct of life.

As distinguished from the university, the college must teach the knowledge already discovered, leaving the realm of the unknown to the explorations of the university chairs. The diffusion of the best that man has thought and written in the world's history is culture in its most general form. To convey this out into the walks of social life is a task which no institution does so well as the small college. It is the peculiar privilege of the college to make men and not to sacrifice manhood for scholarship. To do this, it must have men—not many, indeed, but enough—of such intellectual training and worthy character in a faculty as to present effectively the best standards of life and the best of the products of human thought and action to the youths and young men gathered there. If this program be faithfully carried out, there will be no lack of patronage for the smaller colleges which dutifully execute it. There are tens of thousands of homes from which sons would be gladly sent were the parents sure of such an education for their sons as they got in their day. The worth of that education consisted, to a great extent, in the sympathetic manner in which youth was led out of the traditional

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modes of thought, through the maze of unrest at the signs of doubt, and thence to the firm basis—a rational faith in the eternal verities, as Carlyle calls them. It is the function of the smaller college to do this with a spirit and in a way that will secure it a sure place in the affections of the people.

THE CAPACITY OF THE SMALLER COLLEGE TO ADAPT ITSELF TO THE CHANGED ORDER OF THINGS.

The newer order in education has not displaced, but enriched, the standard baccalaureate course. It has done more. It has applied knowledge to other fields of human interest than conduct. For this it needed and got newer schools; the older ones could not be adapted, it seems.

There is nothing which is essential to a bachelor of arts degree in the newer education which the smaller college of fair equipment may not teach as successfully as a larger college does. The average small college now selects its teachers from among those young scholars who have spent a year or more at a leading university after graduation. Most of them have such laboratories as give students systematic practice therein in the teaching of the sciences. Likewise their libraries of several thousand volumes are worth more to the undergraduate than one of a hundred thousand volumes would be. All these are matters of money and not of fate.

The failure of the smaller college to get rid of its dead timber is one of its heaviest handicaps. No method has yet been devised to accomplish this desirable result except perfect frankness on the part of the administration.

Another danger of the smaller college lies in its desire to be on competing terms with larger and richer institutions. Such rivalry is usually at a fearful cost. It must concentrate and husband its resources upon the one thing that it can do best. Upon this it can well afford to rely for public appreciation.

From the smaller colleges with good equipment and competent scholarship, graduating young men with the A. B. degree, the popular confidence among the intelligent classes has not yet begun to be withdrawn. Of this same class of colleges it is to be noticed that their graduates constitute a very large proportion of the students enrolled in the graduate and professional departments of the older and stronger universities. Thus, the better class of smaller colleges is in the direct line of demand and supply in their relations with lower and higher institutions in our educational system. We need but consult the catalogues and presidents' reports of, say, five of our greatest universities, and see how large a contribution the smaller colleges make to the most conscientious and enthusiastic portion of their student body, year by year, to be assured, that, as far as the

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real universities are concerned, there is no part of our educational system, outside of their own undergraduate department, which is quite so essential to university development as the smaller college. The universities do not distrust the smaller colleges because they are small, but because some of the smaller colleges are dishonest with their students and with themselves, in pretending to give them an education which they do not give, and often cannot hope to give. It is the sham college which has brought the genuine college into disrepute, by being allowed to issue the same grade of credentials as the best. As long as the universities and the professional schools accept baccalaureate diplomas without discrimination so long will this injustice continue, against which the meritorious colleges have no defense save the slow but sure verdict of popular contempt for the spurious. Were the National Educational Association to do for the colleges in general what has been done for the secondary schools by the report of the Committee of Ten, make a minimum schedule of requirements for the baccalaureate degree in colleges, it would help greatly to distinguish the spurious from the genuine college, and give the smaller college of the truer character a far better chance of usefulness.

It is true, then, that there are many smaller colleges which must sooner or later go to the wall by their inherent incompetence to maintain the requisite educational standards. Yet it is equally true that these colleges have come into being and remained, because the people believed in the college as an institution essential to their higher development. It is the incompetent class of colleges which the age is rapidly outgrowing, because it cannot pay for the men, the laboratories and libraries which are needed to furnish a first-class undergraduate training. Such small colleges as can do this are growing in with the age by leading it, rather than growing out of touch with it. This last statement is verified by the inquiry of Professor Cowey, showing that the smaller New England colleges, which represent the better type, have, instead of falling behind, really increased their attendance ninety per cent in the last forty years up to 1890, though in the same period population increased only seventy-two per cent.

It seems, from other sources, likewise, that this gain of the smaller college in patronage has exceeded the rate of increase in population from decade to decade since 1850.

Among smaller colleges there is a weeding-out process going on; the weakest are disappearing and the stronger ones increasing their resources and adapting themselves to the better standards, no less so than the colleges and universities.

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DISCUSSION.

PROF. JOHN B. KIEFFER.—We Americans have much reason to be thankful that the collegiate system of our Eastern States came, as Dr. Andrews once said, as the Kingdom of Heaven comes, "without observation." For it is in a quiet and unobtrusive way generally that life, and all that is a true expression of life, comes into being. Institutions which are perfectly suited to the requirements of a people seldom are mechanically contrived and imposed from abroad. Much rather they spring from a popular sense of need and grow with the growth of the people, shaping and molding themselves according to changed conditions until at last they fit that people to perfection, and are an effective instrument for the fulfillment of its special mission. It certainly was in this way that the American college came to be what it now is,—the one member of our educational order best suited to the production of a manhood which shall be ideal, not in the sense of being partial and provincial, but in that of being well rounded and universal. And herein lies the certainty, I believe, for the continued existence of the smaller American colleges. These institutions, almost without exception, had religious foundations. They sprang out of the solemn conviction of our forefathers that education is concerned, not with the intellect only, but, and much more, with the ethical and spiritual nature of men—from the earnest conviction that it has to do with the formation of human character in all the fullness of its powers, and that the rationalistic factor in men's lives needs a corrective, which corrective is, and can be only, religion, even as religion is the only true basis on which moral conduct can rest. If this was a reasonable conviction when these institutions were founded, it is much more so now. Our lives are full of presages of coming events of the most momentous and alarming proportions, and we know that our children will have to grapple with problems far surpassing in magnitude and complexity any which their fathers attempted to solve. The type of man which our institutions are now being called upon to create in order to meet such exigencies is, therefore, in many particulars, different from that which they have hitherto produced. In a much more profound sense than ever, the leaders among men will have to be self-conscious, self-determined, morally responsible. This they cannot be if the formation of character is in the future to be determined by the training generally of the intellect only, and if, in the process of education, man's spiritual nature is to be left to a process of slow decay. The value of those members of our educational system which lay particular stress upon the formation of moral character, under the free guidance of religious influences, rises precisely in the degree in which the type of manhood needed by the society of the future may require an increase of conscious moral power. And on this ground alone it is difficult to see how the educational work of the future can dispense with the college, and especially with the smaller college. The danger of extinction which is supposed to be threatening them seems to come from two directions—the common school system and the larger college, or university. But a consideration of either as a source of danger will reveal the fact, that, to both, the small college is, if not a necessity, at least a source of help of such importance as to make it a most difficult problem to find a substitute for it.

I am very far, I think, from what Dr. Low calls "the spurious democracy which objects to the public maintaining schools." I believe in our public school system. I both recognize the necessity for its existence, and am heartily thankful for the noble work it has done, and is now doing, for our country. And I should be very sorry to say anything which could be construed into an unfriendly criti-

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cism of that part of our educational order. But it can be said with truth, I think, that the contribution it is making to the formation of moral character—its moral teaching—is, for the most part, independent of the system. In other words, its ethical value is imported into it from abroad. It comes to it in the lives and characters of the Christian men and women who are its teachers, in the religious influences surrounding the home life of its pupils, and in the watchful and sensitive religious sentiment of every American community. The inherent and natural tendency of the system as a system, however, is, and will be, to emphasize the purely intellectual side of education, and that tendency will become more and more accentuated as the system is expanded into the higher ranges of educational work. This, I think, represents fairly the true limitation of our public school system, and not the often repeated objection to general taxation for high school purposes. The latter may be of force where colleges already exist, but in itself can have none where they do not. For it certainly is within the range of possibility and right for high schools to undertake all the work, in the way of mental training, preparatory to admission to our best universities; and by universities I do not mean the undergraduate classes of their arts departments. But whenever and wherever that is done, it will be found that a large and constantly growing portion of our best people will look with apprehension to the results of the work. The existing inability of the State to furnish proper checks to the materializing tendencies of the system, and to give to it a positive relation to our higher religious life, will make it continually the object of their most serious concern. They will think of it as a system whose logical outcome will be, to use the words of Mr. Pearson's reviewer, "to make of God a force, of the world to come a coffin, and of morality a regulation of police." They will gladly trust their children to the primary and high schools so long as they can go to them directly from their homes, assured that home influences and the known characters of their teachers will be their sufficient protection while their relation to religion is yet unconscious and habitual. But when they are obliged to send their children from home for that part of their education which falls between their fifteenth and twentieth years, they will look to institutions in which the main stress is laid upon formation of character under the guidance of religion. For this reason, I do not look with much apprehension to any possible extension of our public school system as tending to set aside the necessity for the existence of our smaller colleges.

The reason for believing that our larger colleges will likewise find them essential to their well-being is somewhat of the same kind. For it is of the very nature of university work to deal with abstract ideas and to follow out lines of study to the utmost limits of human knowledge. It lays particular stress, therefore, upon the intellect, and presupposes an already matured and self-poised character in the men with whom it deals. In institutions which are strong enough to undertake such university work, the senior professors naturally will shape their instruction to meet the wants of these matured and advanced students, and, in proportion as the American university becomes a reality, all undergraduates will be relegated to tutors, instructors and deans; and their relations even to these will tend to become perfunctory and casual as the number of students increases, so that ultimately the boy of fourteen or fifteen may find himself situated at Harvard, or at Yale, very much as Mr. Gibbon was at Oxford—a waif helplessly adrift in a world of countless conflicting interests and tendencies. The formation of moral character of a high order under such circumstances would be practically almost impossible, and the few instances where, in spite of the absence of an experienced faculty's personal help and inspiration, a rugged moral character is achieved are no compensation whatever for the multitudes of young men who may be wrecked in the process. If we can imagine the smaller colleges already blotted

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out of existence and the union of college and university everywhere an accomplished fact, it is, for the above reason alone, almost beyond the reach of a peradventure that small colleges would again be founded in order to remedy the resulting mischief. That public sentiment is very cautiously weighing the possibilities in the case everyone knows. It is but a year or two since I was asked in a university community whether I, too, had heard that that was an irreligious institution; and when, last week, young men whom I had advised to go to a certain university for post-graduate work returned to me, they very significantly added to their warm praise of the university their emphatic declaration: "But it is no place for freshmen,"—a declaration which, in a modified sense, they would have made of all undergraduates. This inability to deal with a very important—if, indeed, it be not the most important—part of the well-rounded education of men the university-college will always have to contend with; and hence, I think, it will ultimately cherish the small college as its most necessary and most effective assistant, instead of seeking to absorb all the higher educational work of the country.

What we need, Mr. President, in order to the most effectual carrying forward of higher education in America is, not the abolition of this or that existing member of our educational order, but a clearer conception of the different spheres to which the several members should confine themselves. If our universities will make themselves universities, and let undergraduate work be for the colleges (excepting, it may be, in so far as local demands may require), and if colleges will let special courses of study be for the universities, and confine themselves to what they can do and do well, and if high schools will confine themselves to the work of secondary education, we shall find ourselves on the high road to the realization of the kind of education which our country needs and which the age is demanding at our hands.

PROF. LOUIS BEVIER, JR., Rutgers College, New Jersey.—We have as yet no real system of instruction logically arranged from kindergarten to the university. Colleges were founded largely under allegiance to various religious denominations. Some, fortunately situated, or with strong executives, have gained commanding positions and influence, and have secured a large and growing constituency. The majority have grown slowly, and are meeting, in changed educational conditions, with real difficulties. The smaller colleges do not draw students from as large a field as they formerly did, for several reasons:

First, denominational preference plays a smaller part in the choice of a college.

Secondly, colleges are more generally known through the public prints, and the choice is less dependent upon personal and oral advice.

Thirdly, the development of large colleges, so attractive to the young, is drawing more and more away from the smaller institutions in which their parents graduated.

Fourthly, the broadening of the curriculum and the demand for numerous elective courses require large funds, difficult for the smaller colleges to command.

On the other hand, the recognized value of the personal contact between pupil and mature teacher is the great superiority of the small college, and the fact that a constantly increasing proportion of the youth of the country are taking a college education renders it certain that the worthy small colleges will continue to hold their own.

When a more perfect co-ordination shall be attained between the colleges and high schools, so that the passing into college shall become as natural as the passing from the grammar to the high school, the probability is that we shall need, not fewer, but a far larger number of colleges, most of which will be of necessity comparatively small. The changed educational conditions seem to me to make it likely that the small colleges will become in the future more local in their constituency, but none the less potent in their influence.

The work of the university cannot be done in great cities where students assemble in great numbers, but the undergraduate's work done in the smaller colleges is, in some respects, superior to that done in the large colleges.

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THE GROUP SYSTEM OF COLLEGE STUDIES.

BY PROF. ADOLPHE COHN, COLUMBIA COLLEGE, NEW YORK CITY.

[ABSTRACT FURNISHED BY THE AUTHOR.]

The advisability of spreading the group system among the American colleges that determine to do away with the old curriculum depends greatly upon the arguments by which the old system is successfully assailed. In this warfare, two arguments seem to have most weight. One of them is, mainly, that the old curriculum is unsatisfactory; that it leaves out a great many subjects, the importance of which for the modern man is almost, if not fully, as great as that of the subjects formerly studied to the exclusion of all others. Modern languages, natural science, political economy and a number of other branches have, one after the other, knocked for admission at the college gates, within which no recognition could be granted them for lack of time, until the student was allowed to drop some, at least, of the subjects formerly prescribed.

According to the other argument, a prescribed curriculum is bad simply because it is prescribed. Better work is to be expected from the student who has chosen his own studies than from one whose every step is taken under the command of a fixed rule. With this latter view we must disclaim any sympathy. College is a preparation for life, and life is full of irksome duties. It reserves its greatest victories for him, who, according to Descartes' advice, has determined to conquer his desires rather than the circumstances by which he is surrounded. The very things which we have most eagerly desired often fail to satisfy us. This is true for the student as well as for anybody else. The study which attracted him one year is the very one he will dislike the next, and he, too often, if left to himself, tastes of one thing after the other, without really mastering anything.

The group system has for its object the protection of the students against such evils. The different subjects that appear worth studying being distributed among different groups, he is expected to exercise his freedom of choice once for all, and to remain wedded to his choice for better or for worse. For the good working of such a system, two conditions seem to be required; one, that it be possible to so constitute the groups that each of them may in itself possess all the qualities of a perfect curriculum and that all of them taken together include all the subjects that may legitimately claim the attention of a college student; the other, that the young man be possessed of sufficient wisdom to make his choice wisely, a condition, we make bold to say, very seldom realized in the average freshman.

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The former condition, moreover, does not seem any easier to bring about. New subjects are constantly being introduced and new groups cannot be constantly formed. The evils, however, which the group system is intended to provide against are only too real.

A purely elective system is sure to breed intellectual anarchy. Too great a love for intellectual ease is perhaps as great an evil as too great a love for material comfort. Shall we then go back to the old fixed curriculum? This seems hardly possible. Perhaps sufficient restriction of the student's liberty of choice might be found in a system requiring him to choose from a varied list of studies, a certain number which he would follow for three or four years, and giving him absolute freedom of choice for the rest. Each student would thus build his own group as he went along through his college career, and the discipline which results from the fulfillment of obligation would be combined with the exultation which always accompanies the use of freedom.

FACULTY AND ALUMNI CONTROL OF COLLEGE ATHLETICS.

BY GEORGE WHARTON PEPPER, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

The absorbing interest in college athletics which manifests itself on every hand is compelling the governing bodies of American colleges and universities to take official cognizance of this important department of activity in the academic world. This fact is recognized in the annual report of the president of Harvard College for 1892-1893; and President Eliot's utterances upon the subject of college athletics have called forth much criticism and comment.

The term "college athletics," as popularly understood, applies not so much to the physical exercises of the mass of the students in a given institution as to the public contests in the several departments of sport between picked teams representing rival institutions. The practice, training and preparation for these public contests is continued throughout the entire college year. Indeed, it is scarcely an exaggeration to say that the mind of the student is bent upon his chosen sport throughout the whole length of the calendar year; since it is now the custom for college athletes, either individually or in bodies, to permit the serious work of practice to encroach to a certain extent upon the holiday time which intervenes between commencement season and the opening of the fall term. Just how much time in the student's life is devoted to athletics it is, however, probably impossible to ascertain. It is known, of course, that the candidates

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for a team or crew are required to devote about two hours a day to their work; while whole days and indeed several consecutive days are stolen from their studies when the time for the competition arrives. It is clear, however, that such data are by no means sufficient to enable us to determine the number of those additional hours when the athlete in his study, with a book open before him, is nevertheless making no progress in his reading—his mind being full of football signals or home runs or racing starts. While apparently studying, he may be indulging in a day-dream of the hour when Yale—or as the case may be—shall tremble at his power.

The amount of time given directly to athletics, therefore, of itself should challenge the attention of those upon whom fall the responsibilities of government and control in our colleges. But it is not alone the element of time with which they are concerned. There is, also, the fact that probably no other single department of college activity excites so large a measure of public interest. Again, as a direct result of this last-mentioned factor in the problem, the sums of money which pass through the hands of the managers of the college athletic associations, whether arising from gifts, admission fees or contributions for "campaign expenses" are so considerable that, as is remarked in a report already referred to, there is felt to be something exquisitely inappropriate in such extravagant expenditure on athletic sports at institutions which have been painfully built up by self-denial, frugality and public spirit.

Then, too, the publicity which attends upon participation in college athletics is a matter which deserves serious consideration. A successful college athlete at once attains great newspaper notoriety. His physique is minutely described in the public prints and the measurements of his limbs become public property. His age, too, is published, and any sudden gain or loss of weight is announced all over the country by the associated press. His picture appears in the sporting columns of the papers, and it is no uncommon thing for enterprising journals to reproduce studies of such of his limbs as are called into requisition by the sport in question. All these details are eagerly read by thousands of people, young and old; and the public gradually reaches that pitch of nervous excitement which, in the case of many sedate and worthy citizens, amounts to temporary insanity when the long expected contest is actually under way.

In taking a survey of the situation we cannot afford to leave out of consideration the spirit in which these athletic contests are conducted, and the tone which prevails among the student athletes. As my love for college athletic sports is of the keenest, and as my sympathy with college athletes is most profound, it is with a feeling akin to pain that I observe what I take to be the decline of true sportsmanship in American college athletics. Except in the annual boat

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races between Yale and Harvard, and between Cornell and Pennsylvania, where a different spirit seems to be manifested, there is, in the judgment of the writer, but little which bears the semblance of sport for sport's sake. In baseball and football the evils are most conspicuous. In the conventions or meetings held to make arrangements for inter-collegiate contests there is manifested a desire to accomplish results by bargains, by trading votes and by the various devices known to practical politics. Undergraduate managers are too apt to consider it a matter for self-congratulation, that, in the council chamber, they have succeeded in procuring the adoption of a measure disadvantageous to a dangerous rival—thus influencing in advance the result of a contest which should have been fought out on even terms in a fair field. Many of the most influential newspapers espouse the cause of this or that particular college—in accordance with the affiliations of their respective editors or managers—and both in news articles and editorials they labor to promote the interests of their favorite institutions, and, often with the grossest unfairness, to criticise or revile the athletic representatives of all others.

As a result of all this, or, perhaps, behind it all as the efficient cause, we observe manifestations of the spirit which prompts men to play only to win—the spirit which leads men to regard defeat as a disgrace, and to look upon victory as the only condition under which existence is tolerable. When it once becomes a postulate that victory must be secured at any price, it is not surprising that a short-sighted policy should dictate the strengthening of the athletic army by the addition of mercenaries who stand ready to give their time and skill to the college which retains them. Many of the leading colleges have not been guiltless in this respect; and many more have, on various pretenses, allowed men to play upon their teams to whom, in time past, athletic sport has been a means of pecuniary gain. When these facts are borne in mind it ceases to be remarkable, that, when the contests actually take place, there should be evidences of brutality in football, and instances of sharp practice on the baseball field.

This is the situation which confronts us. The picture which has been drawn is not an attractive one, but for our present purpose it is the darker side of the subject which we are bound to contemplate. We may take for granted that a properly regulated indulgence in athletics is not only a good thing for the normal youth, but that it is essential to the rounded development and growth of his mind and of his body. We are justified in assuming that there is great educational value in the training for athletic contests and in participation in the contests themselves. The athlete learns self-control. He learns to render implicit obedience to his superior. To attain success

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he must be prompt, decided and courageous. He has a great opportunity to learn how to enjoy victory with calmness, and he may school his heart and mind until he can even understand, what Miss Wilkins aptly calls, the peace that follows defeat. All this may be taken for granted, and we can devote ourselves without reserve to a consideration of the remedies for the evils which have been adverted to. The evils are not imaginary evils, as some enthusiasts would have us believe. Nor can we agree with those who think that college athletics is a subject unworthy the consideration of sages. The fact of college athletics cannot be ignored. It is a thing which must be dealt with by educators. If it is wisely dealt with, I believe that the good in college athletics can be emphasized and the evils reduced to a minimum. If the abuses which are complained of in athletics were manifestations of a debased standard of honor prevailing throughout the whole body of American college students, the situation might fairly be considered well nigh hopeless. This, however, is not the fact. The college athletic interest has attained its present proportions as the result of a gradual development which has taken place under the unconscious influence of professional sport. The development has not been subjected to a careful scrutiny by educators. The public, and therefore the students themselves, are losing sight of the sharp lines of demarcation which ought to separate not only amateur sport from professional sport, but college amateur sport from amateur sport which is non-collegiate. What is needed is an awakening of a public sentiment, which, during the last ten years, has gradually become dormant, by an emphatic declaration that these lines of demarcation must be observed. The declaration should be made by all the colleges at once, and it should take the form of college legislation enacted by representatives of all the interests which will be affected by it. The legislation should specifically recognize that college athletics is a legitimate department of college activity, and should amount to a complete system of control exercised jointly by students, faculties and the college corporation. No one of these classes should be represented to the exclusion of either of the others, for faculties and trustees have interests at stake, the superintendence of which they cannot, with fidelity to their trust, delegate wholly to the students. The faculties are, of course, directly interested in the matter of control, for in athletics they find an attraction which threatens to draw after it the whole student world, leaving lecture rooms and laboratories empty. It may be objected that if the faculties are, on this ground, warranted in interfering with indulgence in athletics, they must, to be consistent, legislate on card-playing and billiards and regulate visits to theaters and attendance at evening parties. There is a conclusive answer to this objection. These amusements are not recognized as part of the life of the college or university.

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They are in the university, but not of it. Indulgence in them is not, on any theory, necessary in order that the student may obtain the maximum benefit from his college course. Students do not engage in these pastimes in the name of the college. They are not departments of college activity, as such. When inter-collegiate billiard matches become the fashion it may be found necessary for the faculties to deal with the situation by appropriate legislation.

The interest of the trustees of a college or university in the matter of athletics does not seem to be clearly recognized. It is upon the basis of this interest that the contention is made that they should share the responsibility of control. The legal status of the student, on whose behalf a contract for an education is made with the trustees of the college, is undoubtedly a status of modified tutelage. The paternal theory is, perhaps, untenable; but it is earnestly contended that there is devolved upon the trustees the duty of investigating and scrutinizing with anxious care this as well as every other recognized department of college activity. The student, when at college, is, at it were, in a watch tower, whence he can look out upon the doings of the world with which he must one day mingle. College athletics, if uncontrolled, tend to drive him prematurely into the arena, and makes the spectator himself an actor, living no longer in private but before the eyes of the curious multitude. It is idle to say, as it is sometimes said, that what the students do in their leisure hours is no concern of the trustees so long as no law is violated by them. In point of fact, students engage in these athletic contests as quasi-members of the college corporation itself. It is in virtue of their legal relation to the college or university that they are eligible to compete. They are, for the time being, in the eyes of a great number of people, the university. The corporation gives them the facilities for practice and training, permits them the use of corporate property for their game and lends them the use of the college name. The corporation even accepts from them tangible acquisitions of property in the shape of permanent improvements and payments to capital account made out of the gate-money taken at the contests. Since the athletic teams have, in a real sense, the power to pledge the name of their alma mater the trustees must, at their peril, see to it that the power is properly exercised. The reputation of an entire university for manliness and fair dealing may be seriously impaired in the eyes of a vast number of persons by the misconduct of a team or the trickery of an unworthy manager. The undergraduate manager, like men of the Debs stamp, seems to be limited in respect of his ability to do good, but to be possessed of an infinite capacity for doing harm.

If it is conceded that the corporation has interests to protect, the next point for consideration is the proper instrumentality through

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which to exercise the powers of protection. It is submitted that a body of chosen alumni may with advantage be made the delegates of the corporation for the purpose of acting in conjunction with faculty and students to attain the desired ends. The alumni who should thus act as the representatives of the corporation ought, in the writer's judgment, to be elected by the undergraduates from a list of nominees approved by the trustees. By this plan, a unity of interest and action can be secured which seems attainable in no other way.

In the consideration of this subject, it must not for a moment be forgotten, however, that intercollegiate athletics is primarily the student's affair. The ideal system of control should preserve the autonomy of the students as far as possible. The faculty members of the joint board of government should be vested with the necessary power to control the decision of those questions which have to do with the *bona fides* of one who claims to be a student of the college, and of those questions which relate to the amount of time which may profitably be devoted to athletics, either by the students as a body or by individual athletes. The trustees, through the alumni delegates, should have a controlling voice in the decision of questions relating to professionalism, and the legal qualifications (so to speak) of those who seek to represent the college before the community. They should have a supervisory power, also, in the matter of expenditures and accounts. The election of a graduate treasurer may be advocated as a wise step—a step which has been taken with satisfactory results at Harvard and Pennsylvania, and perhaps elsewhere. Their voice, also, should control in the decision of questions relating to the propriety of holding contests and games at this or that public park or field; and the enthusiasm of undergraduate managers must be kept within bounds by the representatives of the corporation, in order that all arrangements made for public exhibitions may have about them at least a flavor of academic dignity. As the captain of a university team is, in some sense, the official representative of his alma mater, the alumni and faculty members of the board of control should be vested with a veto power over the undergraduates' selection.

Such are the powers which, it is submitted, could profitably be wielded by the faculties and the corporation. But these are the only exclusive powers which should be lodged in their hands. Their advice and counsel may be asked by the students upon other points, but their function should be advisory only. The students should determine what contests shall take place and the frequency of their occurrence. An enlightened self-interest may be relied upon, especially in football, to restrain the number of contests within reasonable limits. The students should determine for themselves whether intercollegiate contests shall be "'varsity" contests only, or whether fresh-

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man contests shall be held as well. There should be no legislation—unless it be enacted by the students themselves—disqualifying any class of students in regular standing from participating in college athletics. After laying down general rules requiring good standing in class as a prerequisite to athletic competition, it may safely be left to the students in the several university departments to determine which of them can afford to seek places on the teams. It is submitted that it would, at any rate, be a subversion of the natural order to leave undergraduates in a university free to compete as they please, and to enact restrictive legislation as respects graduate students and students reading for professional degrees. Above all, to the student should be left the decision of all questions connected with the selection of candidates for the team, the training of them and the ultimate picking out of the representative men. Matters of discipline should be left entirely in the students' hands; and they are entitled, if only for its educational value, to bear all responsibility which does not rest primarily upon the shoulders of others.

When trustees, faculties and students, with the powers thus briefly described, are represented on a joint board of control, and are occupied with the task of framing a code in the exercise of their powers, it is believed that they will, in general, agree to the wisdom of the regulations devised some time ago by Harvard and Pennsylvania, and since that time adopted with slight modifications at other colleges. These rules, at the University of Pennsylvania, were promulgated by a conference committee representing trustees, faculties and students. The rules fall, roughly, under three heads: Rules against professionalism; rules respecting the *bona fides* of student-athletes, their physical fitness and their standing in class; and rules regulating the eligibility of students with respect to the length of their athletic career. The first head requires no comment. The rules falling under the second head provide, in substance, that no student shall be permitted to play on more than one athletic team in a single college year without obtaining faculty consent; that no student who has been dropped from his class shall take part in athletic contests until the end of the college year, or until he is reinstated by the faculty; that no student shall be permitted to participate in athletic contests until he has passed a satisfactory physical examination; and that no student athlete shall represent his university unless he is, and throughout the year intends to be, a *bona fide* member of the university, taking a full year's work. Under the third head are rules which disqualify students in the professional schools from taking part in intercollegiate contests until they have been one year in residence at the university and have passed the examinations upon a full year's work. There is also a rule providing that no student shall represent the university in athletic contests for more than four years.

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With regard to all such rules, however, the difficulty lies in the enforcement of them. Rules like these may be adopted by the students alone, or by the faculties alone, and yet they may lack vital force. As, upon examination, they are seen to be rules designed to protect and promote distinct and separable interests, we, at the University of Pennsylvania, have found it of the utmost importance that each of the interests should share the responsibility of seeing to their enforcement. This paper cannot end better than with a repeated assertion of the writer's conviction, that the body which is to be both legislative and executive must, in order to make the laws practically operative, be armed with a power derived from all the three estates.

DISCUSSION.

PROF. E. HITCHCOCK, JR., Cornell University.—At the risk of being thought disloyal to the educators making up this assemblage and to my colleagues, I wish to affirm, at the outset, my belief, that the faculty control of athletics, as opposed to their control by the students, would be a serious mistake. In other words, I most earnestly believe, that, so far as the sports themselves are concerned, our boys are better able to manage them than are we their teachers. And yet this statement should, to a certain extent, be modified; for while college sports essentially should belong to the students taking part in them, still there are questions continually arising relative to absence from the university of a baseball team or crew, the infringement of training upon university hours, etc., in which the university officials must interest themselves and act.

It is hardly to be expected that contestants in the field of athletics should legislate against their favorite sport, if conflicts come between athletics and studies, and since the object of college and university life is largely to be found in the acquirements of the class-room, it does become necessary that there should be an authority to adjust and hold in proper check the enthusiasm for athletic education. But adjusting does not mean suppressing, such as seems to be intended by a late report of the president of Harvard College.

The institution which I have the honor to serve has always regarded athletics as a valuable adjunct to education, but it does not attempt to exercise anything more than an advisory function in the sports. A committee of its faculty meets with the management of each department of athletics, examines into the schedule of games, looks into the finances of the team, and grants or refuses permission for a team to absent itself from the university, as in its wisdom it sees fit. This much of direct control only does the university assume. The management of the individual sports is in the hands of the athletic association, a self-perpetuating body, which is composed of ten undergraduates (the managers and captains of each of our five organizations), one member of the university board of trustees, a graduate treasurer and four members of the faculty, leaving the balance of power entirely in the hands of the players; and in the history of the organization, which has existed several years, there has been but one occasion when there has been shown anything like a marked line of difference of opinion between the older men and the undergraduate members, and on this occasion after events proved the latter to be in the right.

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STUDENT CO-OPERATION IN COLLEGE GOVERNMENT.

BY PRESIDENT ETHELBERT D. WARFIELD, LAFAYETTE COLLEGE, PENNSYLVANIA.

[ABSTRACT FURNISHED BY THE AUTHOR.]

American colleges early adopted the English view that the college stood to the student in *loco parentis*. This parental relation has ceased to be real. Oversight has become less and less possible, and more and more objectionable to the students, and nothing has been substituted for the decaying system. The problem is a real one. A new and definite system is demanded. This demand is testified to by the great amount of criticism in the daily press of many so-called college outrages. The possibility of so unmanly and brutal an act as hazing among refined and educated people is itself witness enough to the need of an overhauling of the system under which it is permitted to exist. What solution has the age to offer? Amherst has tried student co-operation; Cornell and Princeton have tried committing special functions to students; Chicago and others have tried regulating the dormitories by the inmates. All report a general approbation. Indeed, on every side there is a growing feeling that college students are no longer boys, but men; that they are generally earnest and self-respecting; that loyalty to their own institution is an increasingly influential sentiment. In recognition of these facts it seems as though nothing could be more natural than to give these sentiments outlet and direction by enlisting them in the cause of college government.

The question is a larger one than is implied in the word discipline. But few students are ever involved in questions of discipline, while all are included in the problem of government. When a vast majority are interested in promoting the welfare of the college they should be called on for aid in directing all undergraduate enterprises, in making room for new forces, in stamping out abuses and anachronisms, and in curbing the few who are unruly and ready to make trouble. Modern student life is as sensitive as the life of youth always is. It has been made self-conscious by too much attention, both to praise and blame, and it needs to have demands made on it in order to awaken its sense of responsibility, to stimulate its devotion and to cultivate its self-control.

A very large proportion of our college students are voters; nearly all are on the eve of becoming voters. Can the college refuse to trust them, upon whom a share of the responsibility for the State rests? And, on the other hand, is it not the duty of the college to train its

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students to become citizens as well as to be scholars? In the hands of those who aid and abet hazing, the grand jury can scarcely be effective. The cure is early teaching of the same code of morals in college and in State. I believe that an overwhelming proportion of our young men are ready to respond to increased responsibility, and to justify a large measure of confidence. The details of the plans are various and unimportant. The beginning should be made with care, and development must be made to rest on results. The future will certainly justify a large degree of mutual confidence and trust between teacher and student, and will exhibit in student and alumnus a higher appreciation of the munificence of benefactors and of interest in the development of the college which he calls his own.

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NORMAL SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 12, 1894.

The Normal Department met in Whittier Hall at 3 P. M., and was called to order by Dr. Jas. M. Milne of New York, President of the department.

The members were welcomed to Asbury Park by Miss Emily A. Rice, Ph. D. President Milne responded to Miss Rice's cordial greeting on behalf of the department.

On motion, Dr. J. A. McLellan of Toronto, Canada, was made an honorary member of the department, and invited to take part in the discussions.

The committee appointed in 1892 submitted a report through its Chairman, Dr. Charles De Garmo, President of Swarthmore College, Pennsylvania.

On motion of Principal W. E. Wilson of the Rhode Island Normal School, the report of the committee was accepted.

It being announced that J. N. Wilkinson, the Secretary of the department, was absent in Europe, Principal J. Walter Barnes of State Normal School, Fairmont, W. Va., was made Secretary *pro tem.*, on motion of Dr. R. G. Boone.

The Committee on Nomination of Officers for the ensuing year was appointed by the Chair as follows: Prof. L. H. Galbreath of Minnesota, President John W. Cook of Illinois, and Dr. R. G. Boone of Michigan.

The program was then taken up, and Dr. C. C. Van Liew of State Normal University, Illinois, read a paper on "The Duty of the Normal School toward the Problem of School Literature."

Prof. L. H. Galbreath of Winona, Minn., opened the discussion. A general discussion of the topic then followed, participated in by President L. C. Lord of State Normal School, Moorhead, Minn.; Dr. J. A. McLellan of Normal School, Toronto, Canada; Dr. J. M. Green of New Jersey State Normal School; and Dr. John W. Cook of Illinois State Normal University.

Prof. Frank McMurry of Illinois State University, Champaign, Ill., then read a paper on "Recent Educational Theory."

President L. C. Lord of Moorhead, Minn., followed with a paper on "Scholarship in Normal Schools."

Owing to the lateness of the hour, this paper was not discussed. The department adjourned to meet at 3 P. M. Friday.

SECOND DAY.—FRIDAY, JULY 13, 1894.

The department was called to order at 3 P. M. by President Milne.

Dr. J. M. Green, President of New Jersey State Normal School, read a paper on "The Academic Function of Normal Schools."

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Dr. R. G. Boone of Michigan State Normal School read a paper on "The Teacher as Expert."

Discussion of these papers was animated and interesting, and was participated in by Dr. Chas. De Garmo of Swarthmore College, Pennsylvania; Dr. Baldwin of Texas; Prof. Chas. C. Ramsay of Fall River, Mass., High School; Dr. John W. Cook of Illinois; Prof. C. C. Rounds of Plymouth, N. H.; Dr. Phillips of West Chester, Pa.; Dr. J. M. Milne of New York; Dr. J. M. Green of New Jersey, and Professor Dominick of New York.

The Committee on Nominations reported as follows:

Your committee appointed to nominate officers for the Normal School Section of the National Educational Association for the next year, beg leave to report as follows:

President—Principal James M. Green of Trenton, N. J.
Vice President—Z. X. Snyder of Boulder, Colo.
Secretary—Prof. C. C. Van Liew of Normal, Ill.
On behalf of the Committee,

L. H. GALBREATH,
Chairman.

The report of the committee was adopted, and the nominees declared elected as officers for the ensuing year.

On motion of Dr. Cook, the department then adjourned *sine die.*

J. WALTER BARNES,
Secretary pro tem.

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REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON THE RELATION OF NORMAL SCHOOLS TO UNIVERSITIES.

BY THE CHAIRMAN, DR. CHARLES DE GARMO.

The procedure of your committee has been as follows: They first sought from the normal schools themselves certain important information bearing on this subject; they then undertook to find from the catalogues of representative normal schools what constitutes their curriculum of study; finally, they inquired what the attitude of the universities themselves is with respect to the relation they bear to the normal schools.

Condensed tables of the results of this threefold inquiry accompany this report. The conclusions of the first inquiry made to twenty-five representative normal schools are briefly as follows:

1. Twenty of the twenty-five schools report that their graduates are admitted to degree courses of a non-classical kind in one or more colleges and universities.

2. The average age at graduation is slightly under twenty-two years; twenty-five per cent of the graduates in sixteen schools being below twenty years.

3. Thirty-two per cent on the average of the normal school students are, at matriculation, graduates of high schools, or have had an equivalent preparation.

4. The graduates of all these schools are reported to be able to do university work with success in mathematics, the several sciences, psychology, history, economics and literature; while eight are reported as more or less prepared in ancient or modern languages, particularly in Latin.

5. To the inquiry, "Is it desirable that your graduates be admitted on their diplomas to courses leading to degrees?" twenty answer with an unqualified "Yes;" of the remaining five, three express approval with modification, one gave no answer, and one answered "No."

6 The last query was as follows:

To what extent, in your opinion, do the age and earnestness of your students, combined with their thorough elementary training, compensate for the lack of the linguistic training given in special college preparatory schools, making your graduates capable of acquiring, with credit to themselves and the university, the benefits of higher education in the departments of learning unquestionably within their reach?

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It is the almost uniform testimony of the normal school principals that their graduates excel in maturity of thought, earnestness of purpose and ability to profit by a university course.

Concerning the second inquiry into what constitutes the curriculum, your committee is unable to report precise data, except as to number of subjects taught. But what the range of a subject like pedagogics is, or how much time is devoted to it in number and length of recitations, it is almost, if not quite, impossible to tell from the catalogues. The committee find, with one exception, from thirty to thirty-nine different subjects, all but a very few of which are required of all students. In one school eight different sciences are taught, the general rule being, in many of the schools, one study—one term.

In the Prussian normal schools, some thirty-six topics are enumerated, eight of these being in music and four in religion, to which two subjects alone more than one-fourth (twenty-six and nine-tenths per cent) of all the time is devoted.

As to the third inquiry, the attitude of the universities themselves toward the normal schools, your committee found a somewhat unexpected liberality. Of twenty-three universities interrogated, ten being under State and thirteen not under State control, two State and six non-State universities now refuse to admit normal school graduates without Latin to any course whatever.

Of universities admitting such students to non-classical courses, like B. S. or engineering courses, there are eight State and seven non-State institutions. Wisconsin and Iowa for special reasons admit non-classical normal school graduates to advanced standing in some cases.

The foregoing is a short summary of the facts your committee has been able to gather. Their conclusions may be noted as follows:

1. A clear distinction should be observed between those normal schools that confine their efforts to what they conceive to be the preparation of teachers for the elementary school, and those, on the other hand, that combine with such preparation, a distinct preparation for the classical college. Without pausing to express an opinion upon the latter course, your committee would like to confine its remarks chiefly to those schools that attempt no more than the training for teaching.

2. To a considerable extent, the normal school is, or should be, an institution of higher instruction. Its pupils are of almost university age, and their preparation, theoretically, at least, is not much below that required for some courses in many universities. Its students are also capable of pursuing their studies from the reflective

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or scientific, standpoint. They differ from the ordinary, classical college students chiefly in their lack of linguistic training.

3. After three years of earnest study under such conditions, it seems to your committee that both justice to the individual and the good of the teaching cause demand that those who choose to continue their education at the university should be allowed to do so, with the hope of ultimately winning a degree in such course or courses as they are fitted to pursue. To the credit of American universities, it must be said they have gone farther to meet the normal schools than the normal schools have gone to meet them. The universities manifest little inclination to debar normal school graduates from pursuing the studies they are able to master. With knowledge so vastly extended beyond its old classical limits in the realms of normal and human science, it seems purely gratuitous to close the door to any who can study with profit to themselves and with credit to the institutions yielding them the privilege.

4. In view of the fact, furthermore, that strenuous efforts are being put forth to articulate and unify our public school course from bottom to top, your committee would strongly urge that so important a component part of the system as the normal school be not severed from the educational organism, to the extent of having its relations to the universities accidental and undefined.

5. While your committee recognize the value of the higher pedagogical work now beginning in some of our universities, they do not regard this as the only, or even the chief, service of the university to the normal school graduate expecting to make teaching a life work. These persons have an elementary knowledge of many subjects, and a somewhat extended knowledge of the technical side of teaching. They know elementary methods from a more or less sound psychological basis. But the highest service the teacher can render does not spring from technique, however extended, when associated with mere elementary knowledge. In addition to the methods springing from the needs of the undeveloped mind, the teacher needs to know a few subjects according to those comprehensive, scientific methods that have so rapidly advanced human knowledge, and which, once possessing the mind, inspire a productive enthusiasm such as can be generated in no other way. This is the influence that awakens mental life with a creative touch. With a combination of the practical work of the normal school and the vivifying spirit of the university, we shall doubtless reach the highest perfection of the teaching art. It is, therefore, of the utmost concern for the cause of education that no artificial bar be placed between the teacher with elementary training and the knowledge he so much needs. This may be accom-

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plished in three ways: (1) by establishing close relations between the two grades of schools; (2) by the universities undertaking something of this professional work; and (3) through an extension of the normal school course and enriching it by a more abundant culture.

6. Your committee are firmly of the opinion, however, that the possibilities of the normal school, even in its present field of activity, are not yet fully realized. They are convinced that the "one study—one term," principle is a wrong one, leading to superficial knowledge in every department of study. They think that able, mature minds are often kept "marking time" in direct primary study of the common branches, when they should be examining these subjects reflectively in the light of more advanced knowledge. For illustration, most students of the normal school are, upon entrance, capable of studying with profit algebra and geometry. Why not begin with these subjects, returning later to a consideration of the arithmetic as to the pedagogical sequence of topics, say, in addition of common fractions, together with devices for concrete illustration. There is no danger that the student so taught will not be able to solve the problems of the arithmetic. He will, on the other hand, have a more fruitful insight into the pedagogy of the subject, with an expenditure of one-half the time now devoted to it. What, again, could be more exquisitely irrational in the normal school than the spending of large amounts of time to teach the facts of geography as grammar schools usually present them? Here, also, the reflective method should be used, by studying first the physical and economic or commercial foundations that make geography rational.

7. Your committee would urge, furthermore, that the normal schools are badly handicapped by inadequate teaching force. A good college or university has on the average one teacher for every ten students; normal schools usually have one teacher for every forty or fifty students, a fact that compels them to have classes ranging from forty to eighty students. But this condition, bad as it is, is surpassed in unfortunate results by the fact that there can be little or no differentiation in the teaching, thus enabling the students to study intensively at least a few subjects. All classes containing all the students of a given grade are hustled over each topic in a very limited time. This fact is much to be regretted on every account, but especially when we think of the normal school graduate at the university. He is practically restricted to the subject in which he can begin at the beginning. Mathematics is about the only exception.

8. Finally, your committee most earnestly recommend that, when the next Committee of Ten is appointed, to study, perhaps, the

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problems of elementary education, a sub-committee be appointed to consider the whole problem of the normal school, with respect to its curriculum of study, its teaching force, its methods of work, and especially with regard to its relations to colleges and universities.

Signed,

CHARLES DE GARMO, *Chairman.*
D. L. KIEHLE,
G. STANLEY HALL,
RICHARD G. BOONE,
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER,
J. M. GREEN.
Committee.

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TABULAR STATEMENT OF ANSWERS TO THE COMMITTEE'S INQUIRIES RECEIVED FROM TWENTY-FIVE LEADING NORMAL SCHOOLS.

State Normal School at	Graduates Admitted to Degree Courses on Certificate.	Age of Students at Graduation.	Per Cent Having High School or Equivalent Preparation.	Studies Students Could Profitably Pursue at The University.	Is it Desirable That Your Graduates Should be Admitted to Degree Courses on Diplomas?	To What Extent Able to do University Work.
Chico, Cal.	1. State University. 2. Leland Stanford, Jr.	21 10 per cent below 20 years.	9 per cent.	1. Mathematics. 2. Sciences. 3. Psychology, History, etc.	Yes.	Only partially.
Cedar Falls, Iowa.	1. State University. 2. Iowa College. 3. Cornell College.	24 25 per cent below 20 years.	25 per cent.	1. Mathematics. 2. Sciences. 3. History, Economics. 4. Psychology and Latin.	Yes.	Reported as among best students of the Universities.
Emporia, Kan.	1. State University.	23 20 per cent below 20 years.	47 per cent.	1. Mathematics. 2. Sciences. 3. History, Economics. 4. Psychology and Latin.	Yes.	Very able.
Farmington, Me.	None.	22 10 per cent below 20 years.	50 per cent.	1. Mathematics. 2. Sciences. 3. History, Economics. 4. Psychology and Latin.	No.	Prepare for college in 2 years.
Framingham, Mass.	None.	21¼ 30 per cent below 20 years.	56 per cent.	1. Mathematics. 2. Sciences and Technical Studies. 3. Psychology, History, Literature, etc.	No answer.	Many quite able.
Westfield, Mass.	None.	19 to 20 60 per cent below 20 years.	50 per cent.	1. Mathematics. 2. Sciences and Technical Studies. 3. Psychology, History, Literature, etc.	By all means.	Better than High School graduates.

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Worcester, Mass.	None.	22 Less than 1 per cent below 20 years.	55 to 65 per cent	1. Mathematics. 2. Sciences and Technical Studies. 3. Psychology, History, Literature, etc.	Yes: on recommendation.	To considerable extent.
Ypsilanti, Mich.	1. University of Michigan. 2. State Denominational Colleges.	23 8 5-10 per cent below 20 years	35 per cent	1. Mathematics. 2. Sciences and Technical Studies. 3. Psychology, History, Literature, etc.	Yes; but not special course under professors.	Better than High School graduates.
Winona, Minn.	1. State Universities of Minnesota and Wisconsin. 2. Wellesley.	21½ 30 per cent below 20 years.	45 per cent.	1. Mathematics. 2. Sciences and Technical Studies. 3. Psychology, History, Literature, Latin, etc.	Yes.	To very large extent.
Cape Girardeau, Mo.	1. State University.	23	Very small.	1. Mathematics. 2 Sciences and Technical Studies 3. Psychology, History, Literature, Latin, etc.	Yes.	Lack of linguistic training.
Warrensburg, Mo.	1. Harvard. 2. Leland Stanford, Jr.	22 30 per cent below 20 years.	25 per cent.	1. Mathematics. 2. Sciences and Technical Studies. 3. Psychology, History, Literature, Latin, etc.	Yes.	Have an advantage over High School graduates.
Plymouth, N. H.	None.	21½ 27 per cent below 20 years.	44 per cent.	1. Mathematics. 2. Sciences and Technical Studies. 3. Psychology, History, Literature, etc.	Yes.	One-half are superior to High School graduates.
Trenton, N. J.	1. Wellesley. 2. Rutgers. 3. Vassar. 4. Dickinson.	20 50 per cent below 20 years.	20 per cent.	1. Mathematics. 2. Sciences and Technical Studies. 3. Psychology, History, Literature, etc.	Yes.	Training more than equivalent to linquistic study of High Schools.

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TABULAR STATEMENT OF ANSWERS TO THE COMMITTEE'S INQUIRIES RECEIVED FROM TWENTY-FIVE LEADING NORMAL SCHOOLS.—*Continued.*

State Normal School at	Graduates Admitted to Degree Courses on Certificate.	Age of Students at Graduation.	Per Cent Having High School or Equivalent Preparations.	Studies Students Could Profitably Pursue at Their University.	Is it Desirable That Your Graduates Should be Admitted to Degree Courses on Diplomas?	To What Extent Able to do University Work.
Buffalo, N. Y.	1. Rochester University. 2. Amherst. 3. Vassar.	21	None.	No answer.	No.	Few go to college.
Cortland, N. Y.	1. Amherst, Syracuse. 2. Brown, Rochester. 3. Vassar, Cornell. 4. Williams.	21 40 per cent below 20.	38 per cent.	1. Mathematics. 2. Latin, Greek, French and German. 3. Sciences. 4. History, Psychology, Literature, etc.	Yes.	Take first rank.
Fredonia, N Y.	1 Cornell. 3. Hamilton. 4. Rochester and Vassar.	23 or 24.	10 per cent.	1. Mathematics. 2. Latin, Greek, French and German. 3. Sciences. 4. History, Psychology, Literature, etc.	Safe to do so in this case.	Best half well prepared.
Geneseo, N. Y.	1. Cornell and Amherst. 2. Williams and Hamilton. 3. Rochester, Vassar, Michigan University.	Men 23. Women 21. Women 25 per cent below 20.	25 per cent.	1. Mathematics. 2. Latin, Greek, French and German. 3. Sciences. 4. History, Psychology, Literature, etc.	Yes. No new course.	60 per cent classical, others do well.
Potsdam, N. Y.	1. Cornell and Amherst. 2. Williams and Hamilton. 3. Rochester, Vassar, Michigan University.	22 or 23.	85 per cent.	1. Mathematics. 2. Latin, Greek, French and German. 3. Sciences. 4. History, Psychology, Literature, etc.	Yes. Pedagogics.	60 per cent classical, others do well.

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Monmouth, Oregon.	1. Leland Stanford, Jr., except in 3 or 4 topics.	21	Small.	1. Mathematics. 2. Sciences. 3. History, Literature, etc. 4. Psychology, History, etc.	Yes. Emphasis on Pedagogics.	Well fitted in maturity of thought.
Indiana, Pa.	1. Wellesley.	21	None.	1. Latin and Greek, and German. 2. Mathematics. 3. Sciences. 4. Psychology, History, etc.	Yes.	Superior in age and earnestness.
Lock Haven, Pa.	1. Several colleges of state, may be conditional in Latin.	20 25 per cent below 20.	27 per cent.	1. Latin. 2. Mathematics. 3. Sciences. 4. Psychology, History, etc.	Yes.	To a great extent.
Providence, R. I.	1. Brown University.		50 per cent.	1. Mathematics. 2 Sciences. 3. Psychology, History, etc.	Yes.	50 per cent able to do University work.
Fairmont, W. Va.	1. University of Virginia (no Latin or Greek). 2. Some courses in Cornell and Adrian, Mich.	23 15 per cent below 20	50 per cent. Rather low grade.	1. Mathematics. 2. Sciences. 3. Psychology, History, etc.	Yes.	Better able than High School graduates.
Oshkosh, Wis.	1. State University. 2. University of Michigan. 3. Cornell. 4. Johns Hopkins.	24	18 per cent.	1. Latin and German. 2. Mathematics. 3. Sciences. 4. Psychology, History, etc.	Yes.	Ready in memory and expression. Defective in reflective research.
Whitewater, Wis.	1. State University, to Junior class, except in classics.	23	20 per cent.	1. Latin. 2. Mathematics. 3. Sciences 4. Psychology, History, etc.	Of course.	Much better able than High School graduates.
Summary and averages.	Nearly all to some courses of one or more Universities.	22 years. 25 per cent below 20 in 16 schools.	32 per cent.	All in 1. Mathematics. 2. Sciences. 3. History, Psychology, Literature, etc. Eight in more or less languages.	Unqualified yes 20. Some qualification 5.	Generally thought abler than High School graduates, except in Languages.

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TABLE OF COURSES OF STUDY COMPILED FROM

Worcester, Mass.	Bridgewater, Mass.	Normal, Ill.	Terre Haute, Ind.	Oshkosh, Wis.	Cortland, N. Y.	Winona, Minn.
Arithmetic.....	Arithmetic.....	Arithmetic.....	Arithmetic.....	Arithmetic.....	Arithmetic.....	Arithmetic.....
Algebra.....	Algebra.....	Algebra.....	Algebra.....	Algebra.....	Algebra.....	Algebra.....
Geometry.....	Geometry.....	Geometry.....	Geometry.....	Geometry.....	Geometry.....	Geometry.....
Book-keeping...	Book-keeping...	Book-keeping...	.....	Book-keeping...	.....	Book-keeping...
Physics.....	Physics.....	Physics.....	Physics.....	Physics.....	Physics.....	Physics.....
Astronomy.....	Astronomy.....	Astronomy.....	.....	.....	Astronomy.....	Astronomy.....
Chemistry.....	Chemistry.....	Chemistry.....	Chemistry.....	Chemistry.....	Chemistry.....	Chemistry.....
Physiology.....	Physiology.....	Physiology.....	Physiology.....	Physiology.....	Physiology.....	Physiology.....
Botany.....	Botany.....	Botany.....	Botany.....	Botany.....	Botany.....	Botany.....
Zoology.....	Zoology.....	Zoology.....	Zoology.....	Zoology.....	Zoology.....	Zoology.....
Mineralogy.....	Mineralogy.....	.....	.....	.....	Mineralogy.....	.....
Geology.....	Geology.....	.....	.....	Geology.....	Geology.....	Geology.....
Geography.....	Geography.....	Geog. (Physical)	Geog. (Physical, Math. & Pol.).	Geog. (Physical and Political).	Geog. (Physical)	Geog. (Physical, Math. & Pol.
Language.....	English.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Language.....
Reading.....	Reading.....	Dictionary and Reading.....	.....	Reading.....	Reading.....	Reading.....
Orthography....	.....	Orthography....	.....	Orthoepy.....	.....	.....
Etymology.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Grammar.....	.....	Grammar.....	Grammar.....	Grammar.....	Grammar.....	Grammar.....
Rhetoric.....	Rhetoric.....	Rhetoric.....	Rhetoric.....	Rhetoric.....	Rhetoric.....	Rhetoric.....
Literature.....	Literature.....	Literature(Eng).	Literature.....	Literature.....	Literature(Eng).	Literature.....
Composition....	Composition....	Shakespeare and Themes.....	Composition....	Composition....	Composition....	Composition....
Penmanship....	.....	Penmanship....	Penmanship....	Penmanship....	.....	Penmanship....
Drawing.....	Drawing.....	Drawing.....	Drawing.....	Drawing.....	Drawing.....	Drawing.....
Vocal Music....	Vocal Music....	Vocal Music....	Vocal Music....	Vocal Music....	Vocal Music....	Vocal Music....
Gymnastics.....	Gymnastics.....	.....	.....	.....	Gymnastics.....	Gymnastics.....
Psychology.....	Psychology.....	Psychology.....	Psychology.....	Psychology.....	Psychology.....	Psychology.....
Science of Education.....	Science of Education.....	.....	Science of Education.....	Science of Education.....	Science of Education.....	Science of Education.....
Sch. Organiza'n.	Sch. Organiza'n.	.....	.....	Sch. Managem't	.....	.....
History of Ed...	History of Ed...	Pedagogy.....	History of Ed...	History of Ed...	History of Ed...	History of Ed...
Civil Polity of Mass. & U. S..	Civil Polity of Mass. & U. S..	Civil Government.....	.....	Civics.....	Civil Government.....	Civil Government.....
History.....	History (Gen'l.).	History (Med., Anc., U. S.)....	History (U. S.& General).....	History (U. S. Gen. & Eng.).	History (U. S.& General).....	History (Genera Eng. & U. S.
School Laws of Massachusetts.	School Laws of Massachusetts.	School Laws of Illinois.....	.....	School Law.....	School Law.....	.....
Latin.....	Latin.....	Latin.....	Latin.....	Latin.....	Latin.....	Latin.....
French.....	French.....	.....	.....	.....	French.....	.....
German.....	German.....	German.....	German.....	German.....	German.....	.....
Greek.....	Greek.....	Greek.....	.....	.....	Greek.....	.....
Trigonometry...	Trigonometry...	Trigonometry...	.....	.....	Trigonometry...	.....
Surveying.....	Surveying.....	Surveying, Practical Teaching	Practical Teaching.....	Practice.....	Practice.....	Practice.....
.....	.....	Criticism.....	Methods.....	Methods.....	Methods.....	Methods.....
.....	.....	Calculus.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	Political Science	.....	.....	Fam'ar Science.	.....
.....	.....	.....	Theo. of School.	Theo. & Prac...	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....	Political Econ'y	School Econ'y...	School Econ'y

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CATALOGUES OF THE SEVERAL SCHOOLS NAMED.

Whitewater, Wis.	Oswego, N. Y.	Geneseo, N. Y.	Millersville, Pa.	West Chester, Pa.	Trenton, N. J.
Arithmetic.....	Arithmetic.....	Arithmetic.....	Arithmetic.....	Arithmetic.....	Arithmetic.
Algebra.....	Algebra.....	Algebra.....	Algebra.....	Algebra.....	Algebra.
Geometry.....	Geometry.....	Geometry.....	Geometry.....	Geometry.....	Geometry.
Book-keeping...	.....	Book-keeping...	Book-keeping...	Book-keeping...	Book-keeping.
Physics.....	Physics.....	Physics.....	Physics.....	Physics.....	Physics.
.....	Astronomy.....	Astronomy.....	Astronomy.....	Astronomy.....	.....
Chemistry.....	Chemistry.....	Chemistry.....	Chemistry.....	Chemistry.....	Chemistry.
Physiology.....	Physiology.....	Physiology.....	Physiology.....	Physiology.....	Physiology.
Botany.....	Botany.....	Botany.....	Botany.....	Botany.....	Botany.
Zoology.....	Zoology.....	Zoology.....	Zoology.....	Zoology.....	Zoology.
.....	Mineralogy.....	Mineralogy.....	Mineralogy.....	Mineralogy.....	Mineralogy.
Geology.....	Geology.....	Geology.....	Geology.....	Geology.....	.....
Geog. (Physical, and Political).	Geog. (Physical)	Geog. (Physical)	Geography.....	Geog. (Physical and Math.)...	Geog. (Political and Physical).
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	Reading.....	Reading.....	Reading.....	Reading.....	Reading.
Orthoepy.....	.....	.....	Orthography....	Orthography....	Orthography.
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Shakespeare.
Grammar.....	Grammar.....	Grammar.....	Grammar.....	Grammar.....	Grammar.
Rhetoric.....	Rhetoric.....	Rhetoric.....	Rhetoric.....	Rhetoric.....	Rhetoric.
Literature.....	Literature(Eng).	Literature(Eng).	Literature(Eng).	Literature(Eng).	Literature.
Composition....	Composition....	Composition....	Composition....	Composition....	Composition.
.....	.....	.....	Penmanship....	Penmanship....	Penmanship.
Drawing.....	Drawing.....	Drawing.....	Drawing.....	Drawing.....	Drawing.
Vocal Music....	Vocal Music....	Vocal Music....	Vocal Music....	Vocal Music....	Vocal Music.
.....	Gymnastics.....	Gymnastics.....	Gymnastics.....	.....	Gymnastics.
Psychology.....	.....	Psychology.....	Psychology.....	Psychology.....	Psychology.....
Science of Education.....	Science of Education.....	Science of Education.....	Science of Education.....	Science of Education.....	Science of Education.
Sch. Managem't	.....	.....	Sch. Managem't	Sch. Managem't	.....
History of Ed...	History of Ed...	.....	History of Ed...	History of Ed...	History of Ed.
Civil Government.....	Civil Government.....	Civil Government.....	Civil Government.....	Civil Government.....	Constitution.
History (U. S. General).....	History (U. S. General).....	History (U. S.& General).....	History (U. S. General).....	History (Gen'l.).	History (U. S. General).
School Law.....	School Law.....	School Law.....	.....	.....	School Laws.
Latin.....	Latin.....	Latin.....	Latin.....	Latin.....	.....
.....	French.....	French.....	French.....	.....	.....
German.....	German.....	German.....	German.....	.....	.....
.....	Greek.....	Greek.....	Greek.....	.....	.....
.....	Trigonometry...	Trigonometry...	Trigonometry...	Trigonometry...	.....
Practice.....	Practice.....	Practice.....	Surveying, Practice.....	Surveying, Practice.....	Practice.
Methods.....	Methods.....	Methods.....	Methods.....	Methods.....	Methods.
.....	.....	.....	.....	Calculus.....	.....
.....	.....	Fa'illar Science.	.....	.....	.....
Theo. & Prac...	.....	.....	Man'l. Tra'ing, Moral Phil'y..	Theo. & Prac...	Man'l. Tra'ing, Theo. & Prac.
Political Econ'y	School Econ'y...	School Econ'y...	.....	School Econ'y...	.....

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TABLE SHOWING CONDITIONS AND EXTENT OF ADMISSION TO UNIVERSITIES OF NORMAL SCHOOL GRADUATES WITHOUT LATIN.

1. Do not admit to any course.....	1. State Universities—Kansas, Nebraska (intend to articulate). 2. Non-State Universities—Williams, Johns Hopkins, Yale, Columbia, Chicago, Amherst.
2. Admit to non-Latin courses.....	1 State University of Wisconsin (Scientific, English and Civic, Historical); State College, Pa.; Illinois (B. S.); Michigan (English this year only, Engineering); Indiana (French and German accepted); Minnesota (Latin required, given credit for work done); Iowa; California (Pedagogic course, or others on trial.) 2. Non-State Universities—Northwestern (B. S. or B. L.); Princeton (Engineering); Brown (Ph. B., B. S. and Engineering, 1 year of French and German required); Harvard (B. S.); Lawrence (8 scholarships for Normal School men); Rochester (B. S.); Cornell (same as others); University City of New York (Pedagogy).
3. Admit to Advanced Standing....	1. State Universities — Wisconsin (Juniors): Iowa (Junior class after 4 years course). 2. Non-State Universities.

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THE DUTY OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL TOWARD THE PROBLEM OF SCHOOL LITERATURE.

BY C. C. VAN LIEW, Ph. D., STATE NORMAL UNIVERSITY, NORMAL, ILL.

If there is any one phase of work in the more recent development of the normal school that has received a marked emphasis and shown a rapid and revolutionary growth it is that implied in the very conception of a normal school, viz., the strictly professional phase. The teaching-act implies familiarity with the mental life of the taught; hence, pedagogical psychology has rapidly come to hold a position of increasing prominence and power as a factor in the professional training of the teacher. The teaching-act implies, further, a due regard for the conditions of healthy mental activity and growth, and for a fitting physical environment of the growing child; hence, the recent prominence and emphasis of the problems of school hygiene and certain departments of child study. The teaching-act also implies something more than a mere mechanical application of methods and formulas to children *en masse*, as if they were so many pieces of rude but pliable clay in the hands of the potter, to be placed upon the same revolving surface, fashioned by the same manipulations, decorated by the same pleasing conventionalities, and finally turned out, identical in form, "dressur" and purpose. It implies to-day a practical recognition of the rights of individuality in growth and power, so that the entire field of child study is about to add its contribution to the professional training of the teacher. Finally, the reflection that his sphere of labors involves problems as broad as the problem of human existence itself, has taught the educator to seek, not alone a practical, but also a philosophic method of approach to educational questions. Thus, a distinctively professional body of thought has been appearing in the normal school, more or less well organized and harmonized, that has undoubtedly had a salutary effect upon its theory and practice in general, or upon what we term "general method." The practical test of its soundness is made in the application to the special branches of the curriculum, and it is here that the principles of theory and practice must always be ready to demonstrate their vitality, their "right to be."

One of the most important among the many problems of special method to-day is that of child-literature; or, in so far as such literature bears upon the child's life in school, of school literature. For a number of years there has been a growing conviction that the masterpieces of thought in the literature of the world should not necessarily be a closed book to the child in school; that they can appeal to him more fully as wholes than as fragments. The world-

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literature, it is true, is a fountain-head of untold force, from which flow the most varied waters. Here are expressed thoughts drawn from almost every sphere of human experience and research; here sparkle all the emotions that ever welled up in the human heart, and here may be found the play of all the motives that ever prompted mankind to action. Fairy tale, myth, fable, legend, history and "art-fiction," all of which are more or less involved in the conception of literature, imply a breadth and variety of culture hardly to be measured but by the full sum of man's experiences. These considerations alone, however, suffice to show that school literature is, and for some time will probably remain, a pedagogical problem. As such it lies within the sphere of normal school labors. Whatever is still an unsolved problem to the teacher in practice, is, to the normal school, a subject for patient thought, research and investigation. Such a relation should now exist between the present problem of school literature and the work of the normal school. It is this thought that has prompted the present paper.

That the recent movement of school literature is destined to become one of the most significant and wholesome phases in the development of the modern curriculum, can hardly be gainsaid. This enrichment of the course of study finds its most valid defense, perhaps, in broad ethical views of literary masterpieces and in the vast field of cultural treasures which literature, especially in folklore, mythical, legendary and historical lines, contains. In general, therefore, school literature seeks to supply in a large measure to the modern common school course of study, those elements which older curricula sought in the so-called humanities. Accepting the validity of its claims, therefore (for a discussion of them would not lie within the province of this theme), let us consider what duties school literature may fairly expect the normal school to perform in its behalf.

Without doubt the successful treatment of literary masterpieces in the common schools presupposes in the teacher's general academic training the cultivation of a genuine appreciation of, and taste for, the best treasures literature can offer. These, in turn, presuppose a breadth of culture to which almost all of the academic branches, especially those treating of or touching upon history, mythology, legendary and folk-lore, and the growth of those great ideas and institutions of humanity that have been the burden of the masters' songs, will contribute. From a new quarter, then, comes the demand for the broader and deeper culture of the teacher. Let us reflect for a moment upon the contents of Hawthorne's "Wonder Book," one of the choicest of our American classics for children. It contains six tales as follows: "The Gorgon's Head," "The Golden Touch," "The Paradise of Children," "The Three Golden Apples," "The Mi-

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raculous Pitcher," "The Chimæra." Not one but dips deeply into the classic lore of the Greek. The wings, staff and sandals of Quicksilver; the greed of Midas, the accoutrements of Hercules and all of the wonders he performed, Bellerophon, Pegasus, Chimæra; these, and a thousand other elements, call for knowledge, if the teacher but attempt to barely understand them. How much more thorough must be his general culture, then, if habits of appreciation and taste are demanded as the conditions of successful class-work in literature. Undoubtedly a high grade of academic work, which in itself will always remain one of the prime phases of normal school activity, will and does contribute materially to the formation of the right attitude on the part of the teacher toward literature in the schools.

But it is equally true that this is a problem which involves vastly more than the student's knowledge and appreciation of literature. The problem must be approached from the pedagogical point of view. Literature must be regarded in the light of the contributions it will make to a realization of the aim of education, of its effects upon other branches of instruction, and of the method according to which it should be presented. Roughly classified, the chief problems to be met are about as follows: (1) What principle of selection is best fitted to meet the requirements of the whole cultural task and the peculiar needs of childhood? (2) Is there any principle of succession for the subject-matter of literature given in the child himself? (3) How may literature in the curriculum affect other branches of instruction? (4) What method is best suited to the presentation of literary masterpieces in the common public school? Nowhere are better opportunities offered to test these problems, that are themselves full of interest and destined materially to affect the practical results of the movement, than in the normal school, where the possibility of investigation and experimentation should never be excluded. If it is the duty of the normal school to train teachers for practical work in the public schools, these problems must be met by it. The problem of apt selection alone is one that, to my mind, has hardly been approached from the child's point of view. On visiting a school recently, where considerable enthusiasm was aroused upon the subject of school literature, I found the teacher in the first grade vainly endeavoring to lift the children up to the level of "Barbara Fritchie," which she was reading and interpreting to them with all her naturally excellent skill. She was failing, and from no lack in her own skill and tact as a teacher, but because wise selection had not yet become a problem to her. Still more recently, I have heard directly of a kindergarten teacher who had been directed to prepare to present the story of the "Iliad" to her children, and who was wondering how she would accomplish it. These examples, perhaps, suffice to show that selection may well be a very significant

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problem. The notion is very generally prevalent, I find, that almost any masterpiece may be presented to the child at any age, and that, no matter how imperfectly it is grasped, the single ray of light which it may cause to flash across the child's mental horizon is well worth the while. Are we willing to admit that? If so, it will be vain for normal schools to make any further study of the imperfections of school work or how these may be eliminated from the work of education; they may prepare to retire from service. What correspondence of thought, feeling or volitional habit is there between the child of six and the poem "Barbara Fritchie." Much of the mental imagery, all of the prominent emotions—patriotism, sectional pride, reverence, etc.—and, above all, those forcible pictures of the will, characteristic of this masterpiece, cannot reach down to the child at this age nor can he rise to them. Do we not deceive ourselves mightily if we presume that "Barbara Fritchie" retains its distinctive traits to a child of six, *i. e.*, that it remains "Barbara Fritchie" at all. It is not our purpose here to offer any solution of this problem of selection, but to state the problem. Personally, I believe that a solution will be most readily worked out along the line of a correspondence between the cognitive, emotional and volitional traits of the child, in any stage of development, and those of the literary content; for the latter are as much vital human forces as the former. Here, then, is work for the normal school. We need the aid of experimentation. The best solution to the problem of fitting selection, will be found in a series of practical tests undertaken in the model school, that is usually connected closely with the work of the normal school. This method of approach, of course, has the double advantage both of working in behalf of a grave, unsettled problem, and of acquainting the teacher directly with the practical phases of his work.

In some of our normal schools, child study has become an integral part of the training of the teacher. The investigation of the interesting problems of school literature lead directly to child study, for we feel that those problems must be approached from the child's point of view. In almost no branch of the curriculum can the child's own attitude toward the subject-matter of instruction, and hence his thought, feelings and expression, be more natural and characteristic of himself than in contact with the living, typical personalities and pictures of literature. Here, then, is certainly opportunity for child study under the most favorable circumstances. What sort of stories interest the child most at a certain age? When does he show the keenest interest in, and get the most good out of, the fairy tale, the myth, the legend, the pioneer history story, history proper? When does the interest in each of these wane? What characters prove most influential to the child at a given age? In what characteristic

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modes of expression does the child react upon the stories? Are we able to read in this expression anything of value as to the child's emotional and volitional life, or as to characteristic thought-processes? Can we point to evidences that any literary masterpiece has influenced the child's character? In general, what does there seem to be in any one selection that especially recommends it as being peculiarly adapted to use at a certain age? This is one of the most legitimate fields of child study, one in which we still need an abundance of recorded experiences. No institution is so well fitted, in general, to carry on the work at present as the normal school.

We might, perhaps, look above for an occasional ray of light upon these extremely practical and significant problems of school work—from the university, whence other lines of applied science are wont to draw new life from the results of the latest scientific research in the university laboratory. But, as yet, pedagogical laboratories are practically unknown in the American university; at least, so far as practical contact with the real problems of education is concerned.

There is another possible phase of this work in the normal school that seems to me to be very essential to the adequate training of teachers as instructors in literature in the grades below the high school. It is certainly necessary that they understand what the field of child literature contains that is available, and that they be practiced in testing its value for the particular use to which it will be put. This matter, I believe, should be approached in the most concrete manner possible. Let the text-book here be the literature itself; let it be read, studied, discussed and criticised in the light of the needs of the pupil and teacher. Of course, it will be impossible to review more than a very small part of what the entire field contains, but a thoroughly live discussion of the merits of a few masterpieces places the normal student upon a much higher, more independent plane of thought, one from which a higher grade of work may emanate. This plan may be the more extensively carried out at present, since the enterprise of our best publishing houses has placed much of the most desirable literature in a surprisingly cheap and available form. For a small sum, therefore, the student may become both the possessor of works representing a considerable variety as to thought, form and style, and create the nucleus of a private library. The normal school should be able to supplement such work as this by lists of masterpieces, that will further acquaint the young teacher with what material can be had in an available form. This implies a line of work on the part of the normal school to which I shall have occasion to refer later.

In the higher grades, especially, literature may be chosen largely with a view to its bearings upon other branches of instruction. This

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is especially true of its bearings upon history. Much of our very best American literature has drawn on American history for its themes, much of it is directly the outgrowth of historical events of great moment. I refer to such products, for example, as the "Old South Leaflets," the addresses of Washington, Lincoln, Webster and others, Hawthorne's "True Stories from New England History," etc. Many of these literary products, in fact, possess in general the characteristics of original historical sources, which are coming, more and more, to be emphasized as essential in an advanced study of history, both from the standpoint of interest and from the standpoint of a broad, concrete basis for historical insight. It is evident that, without constraint, literature may, in part, be made to strengthen the work of the instruction in history; in fact, it will itself be, in so far, more thoroughly grasped as its own development has been directly or indirectly influenced by the development of great historical movements. This kind of literature, I believe, requires special attention from the pedagogue's point of view. The duty will, therefore, fall to the normal school to collect and test a special list of literary material of this class. We need to know what is in the field; the field is one of research for the normal school.

Thus far, it will be seen, it has been my endeavor to emphasize that the teacher of literature in the eight grades of the common school must be something more than a mere instructor in the subject-matter placed in his hands. He must be able to approach that subject-matter intelligently and critically; to see in how far it implies a correspondence of power in the child; to select wisely and thoughtfully. It should be the business of the normal school to prepare him for this higher attitude by as close, concrete and practical an approach as possible to school literature itself, from the pedagogical as well as academic point of view.

A further problem that still requires close and patient attention is that of the method according to which class instruction in literature may best be imparted. In the higher grades, where the child has already acquired a comparatively easy command of certain formal facilities, the problem is not so difficult to approach. But, in the lower grades, where we are equally anxious to see the influence of the great masterpieces of thought, in so far as any such show a correspondence to the child's natural powers, the question is not so easily answered, nor will past methods in other branches always open the way to a solution of the problem in every respect. We desire to place the child in possession of certain appropriately chosen wholes of thought, expressed in classic tales. How shall they be presented to him? Shall they be read by the teacher from a book, or shall he narrate them merely, or make use of a developing form of presentation? Not many are as yet willing to admit that the

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teacher's own narrative or development of the story may, so far as educative instruction goes, be superior to reading in the original form. I, myself, prefer the former, especially in the developing form, and yet I conceive it possible that a long series of tests in this line might prove at least temporarily disastrous to the method. If a free and original presentation by the teacher be attempted, so many other complications are involved, that it becomes necessary to proceed cautiously, slowly, with a clear motive for adopting such a form in mind, and with a full realization of all that it implies. I know of no more promising field of labor in method for the normal school than that which will test the whole matter of a free and original presentation of stories, especially in the developing form, in the lower grades by the teacher. Why prefer such a form of presentation at all to the reading of the story? What effect do we expect to produce thereby upon the child's mental activity, interest, mental attitude, etc.? Is this effect superior, in any appreciable way, to that produced by the easier method? The story having been presented, what then? What further use shall be made of it? Shall the children be required to repeat or re-narrate it and what degree of accuracy shall we expect of them in so doing? Shall the ethical teaching of the story be brought out? If so, how? Simply, handed over, as in the fable, or developed in the children? Are we in danger of a little moral sentimentality here? These and a hundred other questions present themselves at once, as soon as one approaches the question of method. Here again, we need all that the normal schools can collect in the way of experience and special experimentation, before we can hope for satisfactory answers.

In conclusion, let us note that a special library of school literature in connection with each normal school would be a powerful instrument in the cause. Its influence would be felt, not only directly upon the normal student, in bringing him into immediate contact with the materials, thus broadening his acquaintance with suitable school literature, but indirectly upon school and village libraries, where the influence of the intelligent teacher is frequently in demand, if not quite determinative. Such special libraries are already in the possession of some normal schools, and our publishing houses stand ready and can well afford to further their collection in every normal school. It is obvious, also, that some systematic plan of organization would enhance the usefulness of such libraries. Once established and well systematized they would go far toward eliminating, in this phase of the teacher's training, what is too frequently met with, a narrow and meager knowledge of his tools.

My central thought has been that the normal school should take such a stand in respect to this movement of school literature, as will enable it to exert a wholesome influence upon, and in a measure,

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at least, mold practice in the common schools, both as to a wise and apt choice of materials in behalf of the needs of the child, and as to a method that shall reach the fullest, most educative results.

DISCUSSION.

LOUIS H. GALBREATH, State Normal School, Winona, Minn.—Suppose a young teacher knows what good literature is, responds sympathetically to its spirit, appreciates its value in life and in school instruction and the proper aims in teaching it, has literary selections sifted and sorted suitable to the teaching purposes of each school year, what further need has he? Suppose it has been decided how reading, rhetoric and literature should be taught in normal schools, to prepare the students in literary sympathy and understanding, so that they will be able to use literature effectively in instruction; suppose it has been determined what place and time should be given to work with child literature in the curriculum of the normal schools and in their libraries, and a suggestive course of study in literature for elementary grades has been devised, it still remains the duty of the normal schools to show how best to treat the various forms of literature in the different school years.

This duty is a pressing one at the present time, because of the extended interest and efforts of to-day in this class of work with its newness and its difficulties. Treatment of literature needs very generous consideration by all training schools. The students, as a rule, were never themselves taught this subject as they are expected to teach it, consequently they have no recollections out of which to create guiding ideals for their work. The normal schools should be mindful of this peculiar condition and the necessity to which it gives rise. The teaching of literature in early school years is too valuable in its purposes, too telling in its influences, and too enduring in its results upon the characters of the pupils to suffer poor treatment. How shall the normal schools train teachers to make the best use of literature in instruction, is an important and pressing problem. Upon what lines is it to be solved? Can a desirable order of procedure of training schools be described in a general way? What I shall attempt to do now, is, to state, in outline form, my thought regarding this obligation of normal schools toward treatment of literature in teaching young children.

With respect to this need, the first studies of the normal schools, in my judgment, should be concrete and observational. They should have an opportunity to see child literature handled. They should receive concrete and objective instruction as to how lessons should be worked out and prepared for teaching, and how they should be presented. To this end, typical selections are chosen and treated in a representative way. The lesson is studied by the students of the methods class under the direction of the teacher of methods. In this work, the attempt is to show how a teacher is to study a lesson before teaching it. By this method the students learn what it means to prepare to teach a lesson and how to do it. The lessons worked out in this way may or may not be immediately presented to model school classes, but before these concrete studies are ended such work will be done. The students will be given an opportunity to observe actual teaching, and will be led into the truths of method by an immediate study of the children in direct contact with literature. In this way they will catch the spirit of good teaching and will map out its steps. The results of these studies are better in many respects

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than descriptions of hypothetical cases, and theoretical discussions of them, with which many teachers of methods are satisfied. They are more real, because they come from observation and investigation of actual class work; they are truer, because what is observed is seen in its natural relations; and they are more enduring in memory, because they are received at a time of an especially interested attention.

Besides, the period for questions and critical reflections that should accompany each illustrative lesson, there should follow the completed series of lessons, a number of lectures and studies upon treatment of literature aiming to broaden and generalize the views of the students. During these considerations the students will be led from observation of actual practice to the apprehension of theory. Upon the firm basis of the concrete, general educational thought is erected. The advantages secured by this order of work are those that accompany all objective instruction. It is conducive to vigor, clearness, and correctness in thinking. It economizes time and labor of the student and yields greater satisfaction to the teacher.

Is there a further duty after this stage of appreciation of the general theory is attained? Are the students ready to take up the task of teaching literature independently? When a general truth or theory is clearly understood, its application is not always easy. To use it in practical affairs is commonly not less difficult than to understand it, and as intelligent guidance is needed in the study of theory, so it is also needed in its application. With literature this is especially true, because of the nature of the task and the educational demands upon it. The students should be directed in the actual work of preparing and presenting select lessons in literature. Nothing less than close, careful and critical supervision will suffice in this, else loose work and poor results will follow.

I have already suggested that all preparation should serve two purposes; one, to show how a poem, story, or any literary selection, should be studied and prepared for teaching; and the other, to show how it should be treated during instruction.

In meeting the first requirement, the students learn what it means to analyze a selection, to get at its setting and motive so as to be able to deal with it sympathetically, to arrange it for presentation, and to adapt his manner and instructions to the conditions and needs of the class. They see how certain well defined aims for instruction and training are settled upon and the role they play in arranging the ideas of the lesson, and in determining the kind of exercises and the definite results of the recitation.

In meeting the second requirement of illustrative studies, typical lessons should be taught to model school classes in the presence of the methods class. That these lessons should be representative necessitates certain considerations. What should be typified? To suggest briefly an answer to this, I should say that these illustrative studies should be typical; (a) of the treatment of the different forms of literature, as myths, fables, fairy stories, and the like; (b) of the character of work to be carried on in different school years, and (c) of the correlations of literature with other school subjects and exercises. If types are chosen carefully to these ends, the students will come to see how some form of good literary work can be done with children of any school age and under any conditions of school work.

These illustrative studies ought to be full of rich content for observation. The observing teachers are able to see how the previous learning and experiences of the children are discovered and used, how the new method of instruction is placed before the children, and how it is related to other materials and the practical needs of life. In this way they get an appreciation of the time requirement of instruction and of what children are really able to do with interest and profit in a given time.

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This work of observation is done under most careful guidance. From the records kept, questions and critical reflections arise for class discussions and individual investigations. Through this means the students are not merely informed, but become more observant and reflective and more accustomed to pedagogical inquiry. They soon learn to question fearlessly, and so open themselves up to the teacher as they could not do under other conditions, and, withal, their work is done with the intensity that accompanies real objective studies, and, consequently, more effective and enduring results are secured.

PRESIDENT L. C. LORD of Moorhead, Minn., said: There is no subject so in danger of losing its life as that of literature in the school-room. If I should eat a peach on account of the prussic acid contained in it, it would spoil the taste, but if I eat it because I like it, it gives me pleasure, and if I give it to my children because I like it, they will like it, too. It is the essence of the poem that makes "The Three Fishers" something that all boys love, and "The Day is Done" the favorite of the girls.

The normal school teacher must get to be fond of these things; take them to himself and hug them, and take the children up in his arms with them, and they will be fond of them, too.

If a teacher likes "Water Babies" he has a right to teach it, but if he sees nothing in it, he has no right to desecrate "Water Babies" by spoiling it for the children.

The spirit of the poem is what we want, and if we are not careful indeed we shall analyze this thing to death.

DR. J. A. MCLELLAN, Toronto.—I think it is quite possible to carry the point of analytical study of literature too far. An English text-book will contain fifty pages of Shakespearean text, and two hundred and fifty pages of notes and explanations. The problems presented in the preceding papers are most important to normal schools. But like any other study, their treatment may become too mechanical. Stories told me—songs and poems—when a child at my mother's knee, have remained with me always, while sermons and elaborate analyses have made no impression upon me.

In that beautiful poem which has before been cited,

> Where did you come from, baby dear?
> Out of the everywhere, into the here?

the word "everywhere" has been a fruitful source of discussion. Teachers have come to me for me to explain, and I have heard classes discussing the meaning of "everywhere," "Out of the everywhere." The real meaning of everywhere? Read the poem, get it into your own hearts as a living thing, and it will be in the hearts of the children as a living thing. Again in the gem of English poetry, "Ode to a Skylark," the many notes and explanations deemed necessary by some teachers are diverting to the attention of the children. All that I want to know, all that they want to know, is that the lark soars not because it despises earth, but because it loves earth; that out of this love of earth arises its song.

DR. J. M. GREEN, New Jersey Normal School.—I have been much interested in the papers and in the discussions which followed. It seems to me an opportunity for a happy combination of letting the student read selections of literature for information and culture, and afterwards following this with study for the purpose of analyzing and rationalizing.

There is more dissipation of energy in reading than in almost any other line in which human energy is directed. Unless there is rationalization of selection, this dissipation will continue. The habit of gossiping, which in olden times was formed by old ladies was bad in them, but worse when formed in old men. The same thing may be transferred to reading.

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PRESIDENT JOHN W. COOK of Illinois Normal University.—Shall we seize this instrument of culture and use it in the most systematic way? If it is to be made of any lasting benefit, it must be systematized. I cannot conceive how pupils of a normal school can go out and conduct classes in this most important subject unless they make a very thorough and careful study of the subject in the normal school classes. If we trust to inspiring students with simply a love for ballads, etc., what assurance have we that they will not go out and make a most absurd use of it?

RECENT EDUCATIONAL THEORY.

BY F. M. McMURRAY, FRANKLIN SCHOOL, BUFFALO, N. Y.

Recent pedagogical doctrine throws remarkable emphasis upon the thoughtfulness of pupils. Rejecting character, knowledge and discipline as the highest immediate objects of instruction, it declares that whatever secures lively thinking, whatever guarantees the tendency to think should rank as the highest direct object of the recitations. In response to the question—what is this object—what should be the guiding thought of the teacher in her actual work of teaching? it says, the development of a lively, permanent interest. Children should study, not primarily to acquire knowledge, but to become interested in it. This is a new standpoint in education. While interest is a very old topic among teachers, it has not been conceived in this sense. The success of instructors has long been partly judged by the interest they awaken among their pupils. If a superintendent, on glancing into a school-room, has found children attentive, he has felt pleased, because he knew that they were sufficiently interested to be learning well. And Herbert Spencer has declared that the pleasurable excitement aroused among pupils is a proper test of any plan of culture. But undoubtedly the idea, throughout, has been, that knowledge was the main object of the recitation, and that interest was necessary simply because it enabled pupils to acquire knowledge especially well. According to the new standpoint, however, children should not become interested merely to acquire knowledge better; on the contrary, they should acquire knowledge in order to become interested. Ideas are merely the means by which a lively interest may be aroused. The most searching question at the end of a day, or of a term, is not how much has he learned, but how deep, how permanent, an interest has been excited. The interest with which one leaves school, the enduring tastes that have been awakened; and not the facts that one carries away with him, are the proper tests of the value of school work.

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The reason for declaring interest not a mere incident, but a matter of fundamental importance in the recitation, is given in the statement that interest produces thoughtfulness. It is the condition under which the mind is made active. This latter statement requires examination in order to be justified.

In the first place, what we learn is continually slipping from us. Probably nine-tenths of our knowledge is forgotten. The condition under which it is likely to be retained is that it is interesting enough to be reproduced frequently. We forget those facts that we do not care for, and review those that have proved attractive enough to be recalled; hence, the retentiveness of our memories is directly dependent upon the degree of interest excited.

Secondly, interest not only causes us to reproduce ideas, but to dwell upon them as well; to ponder, compare and readjust them, until they become correct, thorough, and so free from individual prejudices and fancies as to be called objective. Such work is largely involuntary. A large part of our best thinking is done without our expressly willing it. Thoughts that have become really attractive occupy our minds of their own accord until they are well understood. Thus, the thoroughness of knowledge—its depth—is directly dependent upon the degree of interest it has excited in us.

Further, lively interest is the source of energy for the mind; it is the enemy to intellectual laziness; deep interest in thought is zeal, and leads to rapid and continued mental action. The quantity of thinking being increased, new ideas are, of course, reached. Necessarily, then, the quantity of our knowledge, or its extent, as well as its depth, is proportionate to the degree of interest that study produces.

Lastly, interest not only gives energy to our thinking, but to our volition as well. The number of things we will to do, and the strength of our determinations are greatly influenced by the amount of feeling or interest thoughts have engendered. The experiences of childhood prove this. When a boy becomes interested thoroughly in kites, and in bows and arrows, his desire to have them is excited. His will becomes active and strong, so that obstacles are easily overcome that, under ordinary circumstances, would prove insurmountable. So it is in general, when we become devoted to ideas, the difficulties which prevent their realization are much more frequently and easily swept aside.

Hence, our ability to retain what we learn, the depth and breadth of our knowledge, and the strength and frequency of our will action are directly dependent upon the degree of interest or feeling that ideas arouse.

Classical novelists and dramatists illustrate these points in a concrete manner. They are teachers in the same sense that we are.

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Indeed, they impart the most difficult kind of instruction, since they usually labor in the fields of morals. The thoughts of a good novel, such as those in Hawthorne's "Scarlet Letter," are comparatively simple. If the purpose of the author were merely to have them clearly understood, the task would be a light one. A few pages could make the main truths of most novels clear enough. Then why a carefully laid plot and a long story? Primarily, for the sake of interest; to so lodge thoughts in the mind that they will surely be recalled; that they will be reviewed and digested more thoroughly; that they will thus suggest new thoughts; that they will furnish motives to the will for frequent and determined action.

The novelist and dramatist are model teachers, recognizing that a deep, a permanent interest is the condition under which ideas can affect conduct. They are proper guides for school teachers, and remind us of a principle which is as true in any other study as in literature.

The kindergarten adopts this doctrine of interest. One cannot visit a good kindergarten for an hour without realizing that a lively interest is the leading thought in the teacher's mind. The knowledge is subordinate; the state of the child's mind, his attitude towards knowledge is the chief point. The teacher is convinced that, if strong interest is excited, mental life is the result. Hence, she works directly for interest, using knowledge as her means. So there is at present a striking difference between the kindergarten and the common school. While they are both aiming at the same thing ultimately, *i. e.*, activity of mind—thoughtfulness—the former hopes to attain it by fixing interest as the highest immediate object, while the latter relies directly upon knowledge as the means to that end. One must be wrong. The phenomenal success of kindergartens and the fact that primary teachers feel the need of becoming imbued with kindergarten ideas indicates which one it is.

I believe that this exaltation of interest is applicable to professional work in the university as well as to the kindergarten. The professor of pedagogy will do most for his students if he gets them thoroughly, permanently interested in the subject of teaching. In any profession, activity of mind is the quality that is at premium and it is conditioned by interest. When a permanent interest has been awakened, knowledge within a profession will be rapidly acquired. It will be retained and digested, too, and a guaranty of progress in the future is furnished.

The kindergarten and public school were just contrasted as aiming at different objects in the recitation while their ultimate objects were much the same. The public school is inconsistent in its stand, however. On the whole, it does aim directly at knowledge; still, in one subject at least, its immediate purpose is interest in the kinder-

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garten sense. In the seventh and eighth grades of the common school the development of a deep interest in literature is, with many teachers, the ruling thought, and the success of each recitation is measured by what it contributes to that end. They do not aim chiefly at the comprehension of poems, orations and classical selections, but at a genuine appreciation of them. The comprehension of the thought is merely the means by which the more important thing—appreciation, interest—may be attained. The standpoint here is, plainly, that, if the study of literature is to prove really effective and influence later life, it must awaken lively, permanent feeling. But why should literature be regarded in this light, while other studies are not so regarded? It is evident that one sphere of thought is not fundamentally different from another sphere, *i. e.*, the condition under which thoughts can give life to the mind and prove most useful are the same everywhere. Hence, if interest is a matter of superior importance in literature, it is of like importance in history, geography, grammar, arithmetic, etc.

I have endeavored thus far to explain why the awakening of a deep interest should be the highest direct aim in all instruction, and to show the extent to which such an aim is accepted among the better class of teachers.

Recent educational theory is planning for a much wider acceptance of it in the future. It is allowing the course of study, the relation of the studies to one another, and the method of teaching them to be radically changed, owing to the value it sets upon interest.

First of all, the curriculum is being remodeled. The growth of tastes becoming the leading thought, it is suffering such additions and emissions as will enable it to develop leading lines of interest much better than it ever has before. A sympathy for human beings and a deep concern for the welfare of society; a love for the observation of the things about us, for speculation in regard to them and for the beauties that they exhibit; these are the great lines of interest which the school studies are endeavoring to develop. Accordingly literature is fast becoming a regular study in all of the grades, as deep enjoyment of it insures permanent progress in several of these directions, while other new studies are likewise receiving much attention.

Interest is also causing a more careful consideration of the relation of the studies to one another than that subject has ever before received. In general, relationships, in distinction from comparatively isolated facts, are the most inspiring thoughts that instruction offers. The relationship existing among the different studies can, therefore, form an especially fertile field for study. Anyone is interested in seeing how insects depend upon similarity of color to environment for protection; how seeds rely upon the wind for trans-

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portation; how trees receive a part of their food from the air. Instruction not only often omits such relationships unnecessarily, but, with the present arrangement of the curriculum, whole studies are positively weak because of their isolation from other branches. Arithmetic, by its nature, receive its motives from other branches. In science work, let children weigh a potato and then dry it by the stove; after weighing it again, let them burn it and weigh the ashes. They are then prepared to talk about per cent; to determine what per cent the water and the ashes were of the whole potato.

Recent educational theory insists on the closest relation among all the studies, so that they may prove a positive mutual aid to one another. Increased understanding and interest must be the result. Thus far, after attempting to show why interest should occupy such a prominent place in the theory of education, I have briefly suggested the influence it may have upon the school curriculum and upon the arrangement of the studies with reference to one another.

Its influence upon the method of instruction is the last point to be considered.

First of all, it makes a positive demand that the teacher know her subject and prepare a plan each day for teaching it. The interest to be aroused, being in no sense mere entertainment or amusement, but a well grounded, permanent attachment to worthy thoughts, the teacher feels the need of a deep, clear conception of each lesson, in order to discover what thoughts there are in it worthy of attachment. The plain question is ever before her: What is there in to-day's work that is capable of exciting genuine interest? In order to answer it a deeper insight into the subject taught is required than when knowledge is her leading thought. For instance, when "Interjections" is the topic for twelve-year-old children, it will not do at all simply to begin and teach. The question is: What is there in it that they might care for? If the teacher believes that the only knowledge that can become a force in one's life is that which has awakened lively interest, this question must occupy her mind. The text-book on grammar scarcely reveals what there is of interest in such a topic. Its mission frequently seems to be the opposite to that. The teacher, therefore, hunts out what she can that may be worth something to the child.

Genuine interest, as the immediate purpose, will not only cause us to inquire for the essence of a subject, in order to make it pointed and interesting, and lead us to omit many topics, but it will direct the attention to a portion of instruction which is largely omitted. I mean comparison and relationship. Just as the relations of the studies to one another are now neglected, so the connections among the facts within single branches are ignored.

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Comparisons and relationships are the richest part of instruction. They give a peculiar interest to thinking. Still, heretofore they have been left largely to accident, while comparatively isolated facts have constituted the main part of the teacher's work. Clear, accurate, individual facts are often not more than the dry bones, while relationships are the meat of instruction. Therefore, the latter should be planned for definitely. They should not be omitted with any subject. It is interesting to observe how the horse, the cow and the sheep eat grass; but it becomes especially interesting when a comparison is made between them in this point. The cat and the rabbit have interesting ways of springing, the dog and the cat of walking; but our attention is sharpened when the animals are compared in these respects. With interest as the motive, important matters like these will be kept in mind. Also, after the subject-matter of a recitation has been chosen, the succession of points will be greatly affected. The successful lecturer realizes the importance of arranging his thoughts into a few definite points, and of so relating them as to lead one without effort to the next. The force of his ideas is dependent upon his care in these directions. The same applies to the teacher. In order to arouse the liveliest interest, she must assemble under one head all that pertains to a single point and must avoid breaks in the progress of a recitation. Irrelevant facts will receive no attention, and the law of continuity of thought will be applied with great sensitiveness.

After having projected the outline of a recitation under the influences of such thoughts as the above, suppose the teacher begins a recitation. Still, the leading motive of instruction greatly affects her actions. Even when the pupils might understand the matter to be taught, she is not likely to begin with it immediately. A strong interest and a full understanding will not be secured unless they feel related to the subject in hand. Consequently, she will first set to work to call up those experiences they have had which are kindred to the facts to be offered. In the case of interjections, the question might be to name those that are in daily use among the children. They will not be those in the book, namely, such as Alas! Alack! If the lessons are to deal with subjects and predicates of sentences, the first few recitations might be spent in revealing the fact that every child in the class has been picking out the subject and predicate for eight or ten years. For, during that period, they have been constantly distinguishing what their friends have been talking about, and what was said about it each time. They have even been using subject and predicate themselves during nearly all of this time. Of course, then, this matter has something to do with them. They already know a good deal about it, and they are disposed to learn more. Thus it is with any subject. If the pupils should be taught it at all,

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they have closely related experiences which, when brought to the mind, cause them to feel fully in touch with it. It is continually the duty of the teacher to provide for instruction in this matter.

When the advanced work is reached the same motive leads to vividness of instruction in all branches. It prevents too great confidence being placed in words, and directs attention to the thoughts behind them. It demands vivid picturing in geography, with special prominence given to the causal idea, because the latter is of peculiar interest to the human mind. It requires detailed description of events in history, and the actual performance of experiments in physics by the students themselves, in the place of mere descriptions. It determines largely the number and content of questions in all studies. Thoroughness of knowledge being necessary for the right kind of interest, "hows" and "whys" will be especially frequent, and the developing method of teaching will be substituted for the pouring in process.

This is because it is a closer test of results reached, and a better corrective of common errors, than the motive, knowledge, can possibly be. When real interest in the studies has been awakened, there is positive proof that the instruction has been clear and thorough. The right kind of interest is based upon such instruction. It results only from clearly defined and closely related ideas. Hence, when it is aroused, we know that the knowledge acquired is definite. We know, also, that the child's attitude towards this knowledge is the proper one. This is a matter to be kept in mind more than the other, since his attitude towards it determines the effect it will have upon him.

But, more than that, interest as the teacher's ruling purpose serves to correct common error to an extent that knowledge cannot at all. The most striking error in the instruction of the grammar school, high school and college to-day is the habit the teacher has of directing his attention mainly to the subjects taught, rather than to the persons to whom they are taught. The physician, who had his mind more upon his medicines than upon his patient, and continually forgot which was subordinate to the other, would be considered a dangerous practitioner. Yet the majority of teachers sacrifice the welfare of their pupils continually in order to follow a desired course of study, to finish a certain text-book in a given time, etc. They do not know, or they forget, that the whole school organization is for the good of the learners and should be completely subordinate to their needs. Knowledge, as the teacher's leading object, is no safeguard against this mistake. Indeed, it is largely the cause of it, for that motive blinds him as to what the student can most profitably receive. But when interest becomes the instructor's chief purpose, his attention is centered upon the learner. The latter's

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home environment, his experience in travel, his disposition, his companions, his favorite books, etc.; all these must be carefully and continually observed, for they must be made use of in arousing genuine interest. This kind of study makes the instructor more interested in his pupils, more sympathetic with them, and more inspired with the spirit of a true teacher. Thereby the avoidance of the grosser errors of instruction is assured and the attainment of noble results is promised.

Hence, it is with reason that recent educational theory is directing attention to the teacher's highest immediate object in instruction, in distinction from the ultimate object; that it is rejecting knowledge as the immediate purpose, and declaring that it is, instead, the excitement of a lively, permanent interest in the studies themselves, a genuine love for the thoughts that they contain.

SCHOLARSHIP IN NORMAL SCHOOLS.

BY LIVINGSTONE C. LORD, PRESIDENT STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MOORHEAD, MINN.

Far be it from the writer of this paper to decry the work in the normal schools that is considered distinctly professional. The study of psychology, the history and science of education, methods and devices in teaching, the observation of skilled teaching, practice in teaching under competent criticism; all these are, and must continue to be, prominent features in any school which professes to prepare young men and young women for the business of teaching. There has been, and still is, the notion abroad among school people, and especially among those whose course of study has been more extended than that of a normal school graduate, that the normal school does not give proportionate recognition to the idea of scholarship as over against the method in presenting knowledge. However much the charge made against normal schools, that they substitute methods for knowledge, may have been exaggerated, certainly the charge is not entirely without foundation. No professional training not based upon general culture and accurate scholarship can be successful. It is true that the normal schools as now organized cannot give in extent the attainments which the college graduate is supposed to have acquired, but the normal school can, and ought, to set its students' minds in the right attitude toward knowledge, and to see that certain portions of knowledge are, or have been, thoroughly mastered. It is a monstrous theory that the normal schools shall take a high school graduate and give him professional training when his general scholar-

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ship is poor, and then hold the high school responsible for his general scholarship; and all practice that is based, consciously or unconsciously, upon such a theory is reprehensible. When students whose knowledge is poor in quality and small in quantity enter a normal school for professional training, the normal school must either send them away to acquire knowledge or provide for their instruction within its own walls. A school which prepares teachers must not only see that its students have mastered some portions of knowledge, but must also see that they are introduced, to a good part, at least, of the best literature on each and all subjects upon its curriculum. The man of one book is always provincial, even though that book be Shakespeare. The teacher must be cosmopolitan, and he can never become so unless he travels far and wide in the intellectual world. The well trained and exact scholar, with no knowledge of what is technically known as "method," is more likely to succeed in teaching than the one with less training and scholarship who has the amount of professional training given in the average normal school. The reaction against the idea that a good scholar must be a good teacher has gone too far, and it is too nearly assumed that a good teacher need not necessarily be a good scholar. In the opinion of the writer, for the preparation of teachers for grades above the fifth, any school that can maintain the claim that it gives the best possible training in the art and science of each subject upon its curriculum, may also maintain the claim that it is a good school for preparing teachers. In arithmetic, its students are accurate and rapid in computation, and clearly grasp the logical relations which exist among the various parts of the subject. In geography, they have accurate knowledge of some parts of the earth and know the causes and effects of air and water currents, and adequately grasp the more important changes that have gone on and are still going on in the earth's crust. They are ready and accurate readers, not only able to grasp for themselves the thought upon the page, but also able to give such oral expression to the thought that a listener can easily understand it. They are able to spell correctly ordinary English words, to write a legible hand, and to understand the structure of an English sentence well enough, at least, not to say that words perform offices which they clearly do not perform. And in all subjects dealt with in this school, the student has the best knowledge of the subject-matter that his mind is capable of grasping. On the other hand, the school that allows slipshod habits of study, that gives only general views of things, and passes over particular knowledge; whose students can neither add, spell nor read well, is not a good school for preparing teachers, no matter what its work in psychology and methods may be. That attitude toward the subject taught, which Professor Davis so felicitously calls "the easy mind," is almost entirely determined by

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full and accurate knowledge. With regard to subject-matter, the education of the teacher must not only be intensive, but extensive. The single text in English grammar will not do, even if prepared by the teacher himself. Richard Morris, John Earle, Bain, the three bulky volumes of Maetzner, and a dozen other authors, must be consulted, not only by the teacher of the subject, but by the students in the class. In literature, a scholarly and catholic taste must be possessed by the teacher. The man who said the only poet he liked was Shakespeare, did not like Shakespeare. Shall the lover of Burns not enjoy Eugene Field, and the admirer of "Tam O'Shanter" see nothing in "Dibden's Ghost"? Shall the man who loses himself in the "Impeachment of Warren Hastings" be above "Bardell vs. Pickwick"? And has not the "Knickerbocker History of New York" a place in a teacher's reading as truly as Justin Winsor's wonderful research or John Fiske's masterly grouping? Again, the teachers of the various subjects in a normal school must be men and women of scholarly instincts and attainments. The teacher of Latin must have read more than the four books of Cæsar, four orations of Cicero, and six books of the "Æneid." He must be able to translate Latin, and not merely to construe with a facility that is little better than that of his best pupils. The teacher of mathematics must be able to solve with promptness and ease problems that are difficult for the best students in the class. In fact, before every class of students composed of persons preparing to teach, the living scholar must stand, and this scholar who knows his subject well is likely to possess or to find the best method of teaching that subject. The man who looks wiser than any man ever was, and whose talk is profounder than any thinking ever was is little to be trusted. So far as habits of exact seeing and judging are formed by the teacher in the minds of his pupils, and so far as the pupil is taught to detect the vital point in a complex presentation, these things are done by the teacher who is first and last a scholar. The writer disclaims any intention of minifying the value of those subjects which are known as professional—a careful study of attention, memory, and the rest; a knowledge of the systems of education and their growth, both in the present and in the past, in our own country as well as in Germany; a study of the co-ordination or concentration of studies; a careful examination of the theory or theories of school government—all these are necessary and vital in a normal school. But, while scholarship is not all that is required in a teacher, what is any teacher without it?

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THE ACADEMIC FUNCTION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

BY DR. JAMES M. GREEN, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TRENTON, N. J.

The place of the normal school in the educational system is and ever has been under discussion.

There are those who claim that it has no clearly defined special duty; that it is an educational institution supported by the State and is at liberty to do whatever needs doing.

There are those who claim that is is an academic institution that finds a place by virtue of territorial conditions; that the population and ratables of the State are so distributed that there are large sections that cannot afford to provide a local training that would sufficiently qualify for teaching; hence the establishment of a central school, available to all, where this work can be done.

There is still another class who claim that there is a preparatory distinct from academic training and strictly peculiar to teaching and that this is the province of the normal school.

The first of the above claims contains the element of freedom in a high degree, but the purpose is not sufficiently defined to entitle it to be considered educational. The second claim, while it may be entitled to respect from the economic standpoint, can present no valid reason why it should be titled normal. The third claim would imply that the special qualification for teaching is independent of the subject-matter to be taught.

It is the opinion of the writer that neither of these claims best suits the normal school of our country. There is a training independent of academic knowledge necessary to the teacher. There is a treatment of academic subjects peculiar to the teacher. It is the wedding of these two forms of work that defines the true character of the normal school.

The subject of this paper requires that its attention be given mostly to the consideration of the pedagogical treatment of academic subjects. It will give clearness, however, if we briefly note the part in the training of the teacher which is independent of the academic matter he is to teach—that which is purely pedagogical.

Under this latter qualification may be classed the study of the mind of the child, its faculties, and the laws of their growth and development; the planning of work in conformity with the laws of the mind; the study of the principles of school organization and school government; the history of the origin and development of the leading educational systems of the different periods and nations; the comparison of these systems and the discussion of their values. Finally,

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the consideration of the underlying principles of the development of civilization and the relating of educational facts to these principles.

It will be seen at once that this department of work is *sui generis*. It can be well done only in a place set apart for it, thoroughly equipped and adapted to it; namely, a normal school. It is a kind of work that is not provided for in the curricula of our colleges, our academies or high schools. It can only be well done by teachers who have given long and well directed attention to it. It should be done with such thoroughness and dignity that the graduates of all these other institutions and especially the colleges would seek the normal school for its accomplishment.

To come directly to our subject, the academic function of a normal school, it should be borne in mind that we are discussing the work of what may be considered a true normal school. The academic function of such an institution is to be distinguished from that class of academic work which is often adjoined to a normal school as a necessary outgrowth of territorial conditions, and which, while it may be strongly favored for reasons of economy and expediency, should be termed preparatory. Its only normal shading grows out of the fact that it is done by normal teachers, and thus tends to frame the mind for a more ready appreciation of what these teachers will afterwards present from a pedagogical basis. It is a leveling up process, made necessary by reason of the great variety of schools and conditions from which the students of a State school come, and which will not be ignored when we remember that it is a fundamental principle of school organization to adapt the school to the needs of the times.

With the above preliminary discussion in mind, we may take up with clearness the true academic function of the normal school.

This academic work may be defined, firstly, as to scope; secondly, as to manner of treatment.

Firstly, the academic scope of the normal school is limited. These institutions are designed to prepare teachers for the common schools: that is, the primary, grammar and high schools. They are designed to better the condition of the masses. The remuneration for teaching in these grades of schools does not warrant, and cannot, for some time to come, warrant, a demand for college-trained teachers. The normal school, therefore, in accordance with the economic condition, cannot attempt to cover the range of the college or university. It may wisely consider its academic scope bounded by the limits set for our best secondary schools, and even within this range it is a question whether or not it can always include all of foreign languages that would ordinarily be covered by secondary schools.

Secondly, the fact that the normal school finds its academic range above the primary and the grammar school and below the college will affect the manner of treatment within that range. Permit me here

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to quote from my esteemed friend, President Charles De Garmo of Swarthmore College: "The university and college rightly pride themselves upon the breadth and depth of the knowledge they impart and upon the rigorous scientific character of the methods they pursue. But rigorous scientific method for adults is the logical unfolding of relatively perfect systems of complete knowledge, or is a difficult excursion into new realms of truth hitherto unexplored. But the young are mostly incapable of pursuing either of these processes successfully. Theological unfolding of a department of acquired and systematic knowledge is not a proper guide for imparting it to children, since the course does not coincide with the psychological laws of learning in the young. The laws of apperception demand that new knowledge shall be imparted in view of the interpreting experience that the child has already acquired. Suppose an attempt is made to teach natural science according to the order of evolution from lower to higher organisms. What interpreting experience has a child had of protozoa? None whatever. Hence, both understanding and interest would be lacking in such an order. University knowledge is, therefore, of small account until it has been analyzed and readjusted in accordance with the psychological principles governing the child's mental assimilation. On the other hand, students in academies and high schools acquire knowledge imparted, in an elementary, non-reflective manner. They are so much engrossed in absorbing that they are unconscious of the manner of assimilation. Nor do they pursue the higher studies long enough to see their interpreting value for the more elementary branches. It is evident that to a still greater degree there must here be a lack of psychological insight as to the proper way to select, arrange and impart instruction, since there is a lack both of the knowledge that the university gives and the broad liberalizing outlook that it imparts. The function of the normal school, therefore, is to pass the white light of knowledge, whether acquired in the high school alone, or in that and the college combined, through the prism of that psychology which reveals the elementary processes of learning."

It is taking an unusual privilege to quote at such length, but the clearness, conciseness and value of President De Garmo's statement forbid its division. He expresses forcibly and satisfactorily that phase of the treatment of academic matter commonly called method, for I understand the poetic expression "to pass the white light of knowledge through the prism of that psychology which reveals the elementary processes of learning," to mean making the student conscious of the conformity to the laws of mental development in the arrangement and presentation of the lesson.

The normal student must also consider academic matter as a theme. The traveler journeys over hill and through vale, unable to

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review his path or form a conception of the country as a whole until he reaches the summit of some lofty mountain, when he beholds the entire landscape spread beneath him. He can now picture at a glance its proportion of forest, pasture, field and lake, and the relative value of each.

So with the student passing through a subject, such, for instance, as arithmetic. Case after case is presented to his attention, each offering some new idea. He proceeds from problem to problem, acquiring a mastery over each that will enable him to parallel it in practical life; but not acquiring that conception of the relation of the respective problems to the theme of arithmetic, as a whole, which will enable him to plan a course of study skillfully, or direct the work of a class with greatest economy and definiteness. It is to this conception of the theme as a whole that the normal school must bring its pupil. Then will he realize, when teaching the fundamental rules, what part of interest and mensuration he is opening up, make his pupil conscious thereof and render possible such a treatment as the concentric system.

As an outgrowth of this conception of a subject as a whole the normal student must learn the art of selection within that subject with respect to culture and utilitarian values. There is no greater waste of time and energy than that which grows out of a prevailing custom of assigning to be learned that which is contained in the books. No person is entitled to be considered an educator who has not a well defined theory of what constitutes an education both from the utilitarian and culture sides, and who is not able to make his academic tasks means to the promotion of his theory as an end.

For instance, in the subject of American history, the student should know the origin of our Constitution, and the development of the country under its provisions; the relation of the States to the general government and the effect of these relations; the development of municipal government and its tendencies; the growth and character of our systems of transportation and exchange. These are great themes, about which nearly all that is important in history clusters.

The normal pupil must know how to select these topics, and how to pursue them in a manner that will develop the habit of true scholarship; that is, the habit of close investigation and correct statement of results. That which has been instanced in American history is only suggestive of what should be done in each of the academic branches.

When the normal school has taught its pupil to bring all the academic knowledge he is to teach within the law of psychology, has brought him to a conception of a subject as a whole which will enable him to see the relation of all the parts to the whole, and has further

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taught him to select topically from all subjects with relation to practical life and culture combined, it has given him a power that must command respect.

That this academic treatment is the function of the normal school follows logically, from the fact that it is peculiar to the work of teaching for which the normal school is designed to prepare, and from the fact that no teacher can be an educator in the truest sense without this training.

THE TEACHER AS AN EXPERT.

BY DR. R. G. BOONE, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, YPSILANTI, MICH.

The relations of students in a school for teachers have a double significance. The days are school days, and so should mean all that such days do or can mean to anyone. But, in addition, the process has been one of training also. While they have been growing, the primary thought of the school has been to make them conscious of the process of growth, and to busy them with thinking how most wisely to direct it. To the degree that it is training, there is the result of "taking shape" more or less as the clay yields to the potter's hand. To a certain extent it has been a process of making rather than growth. The hoped-for chance to teach has been the primary motive in learning, the individual interest secondary. It is found expedient in such schools to take on the teacher habit, the teacher's interpretation; the captain's point of view, not the private's; the soldier's attitude of following authority, not the free joyousness of the child or the controlled interest of the student.

In every law school, because it is a law school, education as growth is subordinated to the acquisition of legal forms and the application of certain established principles underlying human civic rights. In theology, the best training still magnifies the importance of shaping oneself to the controlling interpretation. Professional training of every sort looks less to growth than to possession. The technical school, as such, also presupposes a preparative time and process of education. To this it undertakes to add technical insight and skill.

Is it otherwise with the training of teachers? If so, is it otherwise as an expediency or as a necessity?

Academic work in a normal school is the result of a compromise. It is there because students have not the knowledge, and so cannot take up the method; or it is offered to give the teacher's view of branches which had been taken only from the side of the student.

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Conceding to instructors in such schools the most liberal views of education and the fullest conception of the teacher's needs, it yet remains true that work has been prosecuted upon the assumption, tacitly held, although perhaps with reservations, that, in a general, and very elementary way, perhaps, the education of students has been completed. That is, certain minimum presuppositions of culture have been met. They are there to learn; incidentally, to grow. They are expected to yield up their best thought, not in some line, but in a prescribed line. It is not enough that they think; they are required to confine their thinking to a certain group of experiences.

Are they studying history? As teachers (or teachers in the making) they have constantly before them the significance of its conditions in the process of culture. Are they re-investigating science? It is to understand how it may be best employed as an instrument of education. The study of literature has been made to yield a richer insight into the ways and means of the spiritual life of the race, and so; incidentally, of the individual. To the extent that it is a teacher's school, however, the inquiries have sought to answer certain specific questions of training.

That is, training school experience is, in very material ways, unlike all former school experience. In the professional class, the use to be made of it gives, more or less, the primary significance to every lesson. It is learned for a purpose. The embodiment of that purpose is in the life external to the learner. Its realization in the lives of others lends it all its point. Their training as teachers has been efficient in proportion as it has insured success in the class-room and among children. Directly and narrowly, perhaps, but truly, the question is not what it has done for them, but what it has enabled them to do for others.

Schooling for education, then, is one thing; schooling for training would seem to be something else. Nevertheless, the latter is believed to be sometimes, if not always, intelligent, commensurate with the former. Indeed, it may safely be said that the course for training that most respects the requirements for education is permanently, though not perhaps immediately, best for training.

Teaching is essentially an unselfish act. He of whom it was said, "He is able to be touched with the feeling of our infirmities," may well be our example in a purely pedagogical sense. To be "touched" with the need of others is the primary pedagogical fact in teaching, not less than the characteristic trait of the priest. The teacher must needs be compassionate and sympathetic. "Put yourself in his place," is rather the attitude of the instructor than that of the student.

On the other hand, learning is a selfish act. It is acquisitive, appropriative and centripetal. To teach means to share, to concede, to think and feel for others, to live for others in the true Froebelian

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sense. Teaching is centrifugal. It is not sufficient, either, to be able to be compassionate and thoughtful simply; but to be so habitually; to be anxious, inclined, disposed to be, and do so. A ready, facile, intelligent participation in feeling with the impotence and ignorance and fear of the learner—this it is to be a teacher.

Concerning such schools, then, and in this presence, it may fairly be assumed, I think, that what their academic years could not do for them—give this unselfish attitude of the real teacher—their professional study has made possible to students. Whatever else their studies do or do not accomplish for them, this is fundamental: the habit of mind called above "touchableness"—responsiveness to others' needs and conditions and fullness of resource to make that sympathy fruitful.

As I regard the question, I find myself in a strait between two ways. One is a teacher. He should be a student. Along with the interest that prompts him to live for others—his wards for the time—the teacher has still need to live for himself. Over against the school-room for teaching let there be set up the laboratory and the library for learning. A life devoted to either becomes narrow and poor; whether that life be within college walls, on the farm, at the bench, in the domestic circle, in the pulpit or at the forge, in writing books or teaching the young. Speaking accurately, the only safe teacher is the learner.

Only he who has unanswered questions facing him, whose answers he earnestly seeks, can be greatly "touched" in the presence of those to whom most questions remain unanswered. Hence, the call everywhere for growing men; not young men or women necessarily, but persons who are aspiring and progressive; who, seeing the tasks to be attempted, have the courage of their understanding. The need is for teachers who are students.

But, in educational affairs, the demand is made more specific in the want of the public for some reliable appeal.

From the point of view of the teacher, every one is a student. From the side of the public, every professional teacher is, in theory, and should be actually, an expert. Difficulties in building you refer to an architect. Questions in sanitation and therapeutics are turned over to the physician. To the degree that either fails, he drops to your own plane and is no authority. As he is able to converge the latest and the best thought of mechanics or medicine or the laboratory upon the problem, his knowledge is expert knowledge; this, too, though every point made may be contradicted by to-morrow's better insights.

So, of the teacher; it is expert knowledge that the schools need. There are thousands of teachers, and other thousands of sensible men and women who are not teachers, and more who are neither, who

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yet have a considerable but partial and scrappy acquaintance with questions of education and schooling. To them the problems of culture seem simple enough. Teaching is like farming, or bread-making, or cobbling, or clerking, calling for neither apprenticeship nor considerable study. There are those, however, who stand for something other, and, it would seem, better, than this; who believe that larger and more wholesome results accrue from making the processes of education a subject of serious study and investigation; who seek to find the law of their procedure, make its results calculable; who recognize the social and personal conditions underlying education as infinitely complex, and the intellectual, moral and physical forces involved as both little understood and difficult of comprehension. All this represents a knowledge incident to long and patient study only, and the co-operation of many persons in related but different lines. It means a study without bias or selfish aims. It means a generous understanding and a devoted heart. The frivolous and impetuous and hasty are excluded by the very nature of the task. Here is no place for indifference or unyielding opinions. Equally, also, the narrow commercial instinct, ambitious for preferment and care for reputation are but hindrances. He who would render or be able to render large service here, must be ready, figuratively, if not literally, to "forsake houses and brethren and sisters, and father and mother and wife and children and lands," with an eye single only to his vocation.

It is no more true of teaching and teachers than of any other pursuit, where truth is the end and truth-seekers the means. It is no less true. It is expert knowledge that is wanted.

Most of us can remember when few credentials of any sort were required of us. In the last generation, or even more recently, to have taught well satisfied the unthinking,—most parents, and not a few teachers. The instruction might be purely empirical,—usually was so,—resting on the lowest level of the art. To learn the art from this plane was to imitate it. To explain its success was to give devices or to quote authority or precedent. That the art sometimes failed in the hands of the most successful teacher, and more often the copied device, is what we should expect. The ground for their success being not understood, their failure was necessarily a mystery. The insight that is able to think both the success and the failure under a common law immensely exalts the art, and has, besides, added a new science.

The normal school, or whatever other professional device, seeks not merely to make teachers, but investigators of teaching,—students of its laws—that they be put in the way of becoming skilled workmen in the art; no longer apprentices or journeymen, but masters in their

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profession. The burden is upon each of us to become such, or show cause.

Primarily, then, an "expert" is one who has knowledge of a kind, or insights, which the average individual, even the highly-cultured individual, outside the class, does not have.

The teacher may fairly be held responsible for knowing more of education and the conditions of culture, and the mental and moral forces that make for progress in both the individual and the race, than any parent, except he also be a teacher. This is, of course, true of superintendents and inspectors and of all who direct education; but is it not, also, incumbent upon the teacher in the ranks? Here should be such mastery as that patrons, willingly or unwillingly, will concede the leadership. "We know that thou art a master," are words that may be spoken to any great teacher.

Now, concerning teaching and the processes in education. One may have read history and be ignorant of them. Not every scholar is also instructor. Not every artist is teacher. One may make a wheelbarrow well, and bungle in either telling or showing another how. Not every preacher—even successful preacher—is a wise critic of preaching. But the teacher who is not superior to his art soon becomes inferior. The public may know—even the indifferent, business, unsympathetic public—when the school's work is well done, through examining its product. The teacher must be no less sure in advance, through watching or planning the steps of the process. The teacher, as expert, has no need to wait for the badly-written manuscript to know that poor work has been done. The loose thinking in daily work should have assured her of misspellings and false syntax in advance. The common mind looks back upon the process through results; the expert predicts results from given conditions. In dealing with the child there must be reasonable assurance that there is no blunder-making.

It seems as if it ought not to need saying that no amount of general culture will, of itself, give this insight, any more than the traditional liberal education makes one an author or editor or builder or preacher. I trust that you will agree that the writings of both the author and editor, the edifice of the builder, and the sermon of the preacher, will, if they be really authors, editors, builders and preachers, be improved by so much as there is liberal culture behind their doing.

It rests with us and our colleagues to prove that there is a higher plane of pedagogy than that occupied by this even highly cultured general public; a higher plane than can be taken by those who give it but incidental attention.

One's saying that it should be so does not make it so. Not all teachers are experts. Most of them lack the general training to

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make expert knowledge trustworthy. Many are unacquainted with the processes actually involved. Some have narrowed their view to the school. A few are still content to follow authority. Far too many are lacking in several or all of these qualities. Life only can afford the time requisite for such preparation.

The professional school does but little. Instruction only gives the first "push;" fixes the direction and habit of the mind. The years to come must determine how well the impulse is used; whether the young teacher forges ahead of his patrons, as they have a right to expect, in his chosen sphere, or drops into the class of "average" persons trying to do expert work; accepts mediocrity, loses himself in the crowd, and is content to borrow dignity from the profession.

All this is common enough in some States; I hope less so in yours.

To succeed means to follow a very different policy. There will be need to read widely. Other languages must be employed. The net results of study of not less than three or four nations should be fairly familiar. Men and institutions must be studied. The inductions of history will afford perspective; the insights of literature, coloring. Familiar intercourse with the local and common life will give sympathy and effectiveness. Here is learning for a lifetime. But all this is mere scholarship. This anyone needs and may have, and be the better for having. Without it, for anyone, there is, by so much, paucity of life. The teacher, however, has need of the wide reading and other languages and history and literature and travel, the better to interpret and direct the learning process. It is this which sets the teacher off from the larger public. Here is the element of "exclusion." It is not so much the amount of knowledge which distinguishes him as the kind of knowledge and the purpose for which it is held.

But expertness implies more than knowledge. There is involved facility and mastery in handling the questions that come up in the pursuit of such knowledge or its use. There is implied an element of skill in the practice of the art for the sake of which the knowledge has been acquired.

Washington Roebling, who built our great Brooklyn bridge, was an expert engineer. This was not alone, or chiefly, because he could calculate the strength and resistance of materials and could predict and measure strains, but equally because he could handle, and direct the handling of, tools and machinery with speed and economy.

An expert chemist is one who can himself make the analysis. No physician would be permitted to testify before the courts as an authority who has book-knowledge only, or "speaks by the card." Expert knowledge is first-hand knowledge. It rests upon personal experience and initiative of a high order. Expert farming means skillful working with the soil, not interesting theories about it. The

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sanitary engineer who fails to make his apparatus "work," finds himself without a "job," or should. Efficiency is one measure of man's claim to recognition. "One is worth to himself what he can enjoy; he is worth to the world what he can do."

It is true for whatever art and for every individual. It is profoundly true of teaching. You may with reason suspect the theory of one who himself fails in practice. Neither alone can satisfy. There are notable exceptions. One may think well, and bungle in the doing; as one may teach effectively through instinct, rather than with intelligence. But this is not expertness. Of the two, the public usually exalts the latter. The tendency of teachers, on the other hand,—especially young teachers, just out from school, and carrying the atmosphere of their instructors with them,—is to excuse themselves for deficiencies in the class-room, through over-devotion to their "methods." There is no virtue in "methods" except they be productive of results in their following; and skill in itself, without constant reference to the principles that make the doing skilled, as distinguished from unskilled labor, is only manufacture or bald imitation. Let us not deceive ourselves by supposing that distinction lies along either way exclusively. The "educational expert" must have both knowledge and skill.

Public and professional confidence would be, as they deserve, far more than it is, with the critics of the schools, if there were confidence in their acquaintance with the processes of teaching. Just as there will be more confidence in our teachers in the ranks when, as a class, they have become better established in the accepted doctrines of education and the modes of insight into the mental life.

To the young person going into the school let it be said: Study to teach. It is an achievement to command the admiration of the philosopher to have brought to fruition the several steps in a lesson or a series of lessons. Take pride in your success before the class. Carefully think out devices. Compare and criticise your efforts. Weigh results in an impersonal way. Make careful note of conditions. Test failures for their cause, not more than successes or supposed successes. "Covet the best gifts."

To have administered a trust well, goes far towards dignifying one's motive. Yesterday's failure becomes a new lesson. No greater honor comes to one than, in the light of larger or more accurate knowledge, to improve his teaching. A degree of success here is open to everyone.

Whatever one's position or service in the school-room, it is of vital importance that he keep himself in close touch with the children and the recitation, the discipline, the homes and the playground, the games, public amusements, neighborhood enterprises, and local movements. It is the only means known whereby one's theories may be

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vitalized. In the school there is a rich field, easily cultivated and removed from the general public.

Expert knowledge in education, then, is such knowledge of and skill in handling the processes involved in growth and culture and training as come only from a life devoted to their study.

Among the questions involved in this expert study of education are certain ones which would seem to be of special significance to those who would teach.

Without any intention of making comparisons, or depreciating other phases of the problem, there is much need, as it seems to me, for a patient, painstaking, unbiased observation and gathering of facts concerning our natural history relations.

We are so accustomed to think of man as a rational creature, self-directive and determining, that we are constantly in danger of forgetting that he is also animal and thing. Of course, it is evident, though it is sometimes forgotten in the school-room, that he is a natural object, just as is the cabbage, the cloud, or the trilobite. He is accordingly subject to the same conditions of time and place, of interference and exhaustion and failure and decay, of environment and dependence, as are they. He finds limits set to his doing, and even to his thinking and wishing. In theory, able to endure any climatic conditions, he finds himself crowded into corners. Nature picks her provinces and civilization thrives. New conditions appear, and nations diverge.

How man, first used by Nature, comes in time, to employ her and her forces to his own advantage, and so enlarge his privileges and his satisfactions, is the problem of civilization. In the individual, this, it is obvious, is the problem of culture, also, and the schools. We call the science anthropology; and, by so doing, greatly dignify much that is written and spoken in its name. Its real and serious study, it must be known to you, as I am convinced it is not known to the body of teachers, opens up a rich field. In an interrogation of the race's early dependence upon, and gradual emancipation from, nature, are to be found some of the most fruitful lessons for the teacher, and some of the most neglected. How climate and seasons and topography fix barriers to migration, and hence set boundaries between nations and cultures; affect health and customs and pursuits and morals; determine the food supply and modify the physical and mental energy, and so, man's efficiency, is easily apparent for the body of the people. That the like or corresponding effects follow or accompany in the individual, is equally true, it would seem, though less understood. The fact becomes significant for every teacher, however narrow the field of her labors. It is significant to everyone who is interested to bring to bear upon it the detailed work of the

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class and the individual lesson, the insights of the race, and her own insight into the ways of the race's culture.

The entire question of race is an anthropological one, and is very important. No social or educational problem in this country, I apprehend, is more in need of serious and sensible study by teachers, rather than by politicians, than this of associated races under the same institutions. Inequalities, also, in race development complicate the problem. There is included, not only the difficulty of throwing them into the same school, but that of including them in the same system. To have the same, or nearly the same, curriculum for the body of negroes and Indians and most whites in this country, is a little like including representatives of the race from the time of King Alfred and Knox and Shakespeare and Cotton Mather and Washington and ourselves under the same *regime*. The difficulty of the former is one in which, directly or indirectly, every teacher is interested.

No more helpful or more misunderstood generalization has been reached by modern science or by pedagogy than this: that in his development, the individual follows the same order as that through which the race has passed. To the end that the principle may be intelligently interpreted, and the conditions understood which give rise to it, the would-be teacher will find occasion for much study of history,—real history,—the personal and social and institutional life of peoples, observation of men and investigation of social forces, and the conditions of public and domestic life. As opportunity offers, she will become familiar with epoch-making literatures; not for the sake simply, or chiefly, of the literature, but because of the richer pedagogical insight that comes as a result. She will be also led to study art, and the arts and inventions of men, their comforts and conveniences and luxuries, along with their wants, their industries and pastimes, conventionalities and intercourse, as opening a door into their lives, and so offering a means of learning the forces that have operated to further the intelligence and make effective the culture of whatever historic people. Here is a large field for study, and none of it can go amiss to one interested in education. It is particularly helpful to primary teachers to study these relations among primitive people, among the uneducated, the simple-minded, or those of defective senses.

Formerly, it is known, anthropology had to do almost wholly with man as a moral being; later it came to mean the science of the physical man in his natural, racial connections. At present the study comprises the entire man in his natural history relations.

There are included questions, also, of age and sex, neural characteristics, physical and mental heredity, with all that the term implies since Weissmann has written; the faculty of expression, the kinships of savage and civilized life, customs, traditions and myths,

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the religious impulse, rites and ceremonies, conventionalities, and, in a broad way, the distinguishing characteristics of the historical culture epochs.

"Long prior to the age of reflection," says Emerson, "is the thinking of the mind. * * * In the period of infancy it accepted and disposed of all impressions from the surrounding creation after its own way. Whatever any mind doth or saith is after a law, and this native law remains over it, after it has come to reflection or conscious thought. In the most worn, pedantic, introverted self-tormentor's life, the greatest part is incalculable by him, unforeseen, unimaginable, and must be, until he can take himself up by his own ears. What am I? What has my will done to make me that I am? Nothing. I have been floated into this thought, this hour, this connection of events by secret currents of might and mind; and any ingenuity and willfulness have not thwarted, have not aided to an appreciable degree."*

Certainly, the will has done something. It has done much toward making each one what he is. But, looked at from the crest of the wave of influence, it seems relatively little. And the importance of comprehending this law, which precedes and remains over "reflection or conscious thought," the being able to interpret this seemingly "incalculable, unforeseen and unimaginable," but greatest part of the individual's life, and the natural forces by means of which one has been "floated into this thought, this hour, this connection of events," is great to every one, greatest, perhaps, to the teacher. There is need to understand this principle of instinct or spontaneity in life, the native attractions and repulsions, the modes of living and thinking of children, and such as have not had their minds subdued by the drill of school or other education.

This is chiefly, I take it, the motive, whether it be consciously held or not, which underlies the modern experimental and observational study of children, and whatever application of the scientific method to pedagogical affairs.

It should be noted, however, that expert knowledge of the child requires not this knowledge as an end of our investigation, but an insight which it is hoped they may give into the natural history relations of the child and his instinctive and spontaneous experiences and biases.

In much of all this the experiments and observations seem to have no immediate pedagogical motive. They have been cited, not alone because of their educational implications. There are the purely experimental studies in general psychology, the investigations of social and institutional and economic questions, laboratory studies of physi-

* See Emerson's essay, "Intellect."

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ological and related phenomena, statistical collections in anthropology and antiquities—all of which sustain established and well-understood relations with public and individual culture. But many of them are only incidentally pedagogical. How greatly this broader view needs to be taken by school men and women, no one knows so well as one who has had long contact with the work of the public schools. The narrowness of view of the great majority of the teaching class cannot be doubted by one who has more than a local acquaintance with them. It may be, doubtless is, unavoidable under present conditions; but it is none the less deplorable. Whatever gives one a better insight into the nature of civilization, and the conditions that make for public and individual culture, the motives that underlie conduct, and the affinities that obtain between thought and thing must improve his teaching.

It is not enough that pedagogy be rooted in psychology; it sustains, of necessity, vital relations with ethics, physiology, anthropology and logic, in addition to the almost equally helpful ones of sociology and philosophy. Indeed, the one thing that most distinguishes the current study of educational questions is, perhaps, this vitalizing of our notions and our interpretations of them, through a better insight into and employment of these collateral relations. No one can be thought an expert in such matters who only knows the school.

DISCUSSION.

[REPORTED BY MISSES FLORENCE M. MATTESON AND GRACE B. LATIMER.]

DR. CHARLES DE GARMO: In this normal school problem every man must look at it from his own standpoint. The papers read indicate that we are entering upon a new era in normal school work, and one which will enable us to utilize the benefits of the past and to reap benefits never before realized. The development of the high schools is progressing rapidly under the influence of the universities. This means that it will be possible for the normal schools to do a new class of work, as has been suggested. We shall be able to go on with the higher branches from the beginning, forming ideals of what constitutes teaching from the higher branches and then returning to the lower branches for a briefer time. If this is true, a large amount of time can be saved. For example, the study of English grammar, which now takes a large amount of time in the school course, could be shortened if the student were encouraged to study Latin, which is really an explanation of English grammar.

DR. J. A. BALDWIN, Texas: I wish to say a word about the problem presented by Dr. McMurry. The article seemed to me to be pure gold, rich in suggestions. What was said of the teaching of literature, Dr. McMurry carried over into all subjects. Interest, as Dr. McMurry explained, leads to effort, and effort to all achievement. Normal school work is standing on solid rock. The last paper

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read sets forth this fact. In our work we realize that much remains to be done. Will it be possible as in our universities to make the high school diploma the condition of entrance to the normal school? Then our work in the normal school can be largely professional and the normal student entering college may enter the junior class.

PRINCIPAL CHARLES C. RAMSAY, Fall River, Mass.: In Massachusetts, I am happy to say, a law was passed going into effect this year compelling normal schools to admit none except those having high school diplomas, and candidates must also pass a rigorous examination in the common branches.

Question: What fixes the grade of high school graduates?

PRINCIPAL RAMSAY: The high schools of Massachusetts are of very high rank. Some have a four years' course and some a five years' course, and all are subject to the inspection of the State Board of Education.

Question: Is there a uniform standard of graduation from the high schools of that State?

PRINCIPAL RAMSAY: No, sir.

Question: Do the leading colleges and universities receive such high school graduates upon certificate?

PRINCIPAL RAMSAY: Many of the best of them do.

DR. JOHN W. COOK, Illinois: If all the high school graduates in the State of Illinois, graduated from our high schools last May, were immediately and violently seized and put into the normal school, we would have perhaps one-fourth the number of teachers required yearly. Conditions are different in Illinois. We must admit pupils into the normal schools direct from the district schools. Our normal schools are of low grade, but they are like the schools for which they prepare teachers. The normal schools in each State are set to do the best they can for its public schools under all the conditions that exist. Our population is scattered. We have a few cities, but by far the greater part of our population is in the small towns and in the country districts. What must we do to supply the district schools? We must offer to those willing to go into them to teach something in the way of education. We endeavor to make it thorough and in a way professional; it is largely academic. Many of our students come to us direct from the district school, but they have the capacity to work, and at the end of the second year they ask no odds of the high school graduates; indeed, they excel in the power to pay attention, one of the things most needed.

Question: Is it not possible under the present conditions in Illinois to differentiate the work in the normal school so that those able to do the highest type of work may do it instead of spending time on the elementary work?

DR. COOK: It seems to me that this is just the work needed, as the high school graduates are so far away from elementary work that it has all the novelty that geometry or algebra would have. Almost invariably, if allowed to take advanced work, after one year they ask permission to take the elementary work. My proposition is that those high school people need elementary work and those not from the high school are not ready for other.

DR. DE GARMO: I do not wish to deny the fruitfulness of the work in the common branches. The whole problem is the balancing of advantages between advanced and elementary work, that we may get the principles of work and not spend a large amount of time upon one group of subjects and slight the rest.

DR. COOK: The proof of the pudding is in the eating, but I cannot think that under the present conditions it is possible in the State of Illinois to adopt the

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suggestion to have a two years' course for graduates of high schools of larger cities. With us the elementary work is necessary, and normal school graduates, like this gentleman (Dr. De Garmo), have given pupils their first knowledge of thorough work in the common branches, and have always uplifted the whole system of education in places where they have gone.

MR. BALDWIN: In Ontario every teacher has normal instruction. Suppose, in addition to university normal schools, we could have plenty of elementary normal schools, we could better prepare all classes of teachers. Dr. Cook is right as to elementary work, but the time has come to make a distinction between elementary and university normal schools.

DR. C. C. ROUNDS, Plymouth, N. H.: Twenty-five years ago I was present at the organizing of the Normal Department of the National Educational Association, and I am amazed at the progress made in that time. In our school we attempted to require high grades in entrance; but the results were disappointing. Now we are much more lenient in admitting students. But once in the school, their advancement is very rigidly guarded. About one-half our students are graduates of high school or academic courses, but in the second year work they seem to possess no advantages over the students from the district schools, while the latter seem to have a higher sense of responsibility. Some of our most brilliant teachers have been from the district schools. We have to adapt ourselves to conditions, and we do not suffer from that adaptation. We have only a two years' course, but we want a three years' course.

Question: Do you make any difference in your required work from high school graduates and your other students?

DR. ROUNDS: There is no distinction made in the elementary studies, but when they come to the higher studies, high school graduates are credited with part, thereby evening out advantages.

DR. G. M. PHILLIPS, West Chester, Pa.: No one in Pennsylvania would wish Dr. De Garmo's suggestion accepted. Any board may organize a high school with any course of study, hence high school graduates are not uniform. Students entering high schools enter at early ages. Courses of study are culture courses, rather than teaching courses; hence, upon graduating they are unable to teach the common branches without special preparation. I have helped conduct twenty-five normal examinations, and know the limitations in that direction. The question is not so much how students go in as how they go out from the normal schools.

DR. JAMES M. MILNE, Oneonta, N. Y.: The academic work in New York State is unique, inasmuch as there is absolute uniformity in the regents' examinations and also in the marking of these papers. Still, the greatest variety is found in these schools. We must hold in mind that there are two outlooks in teaching, one where facts are taught, the other where power is obtained. The normal school seeks power rather than facts. Teachers teach largely as they are taught, and grow afterward into the principles of methods.

We make the work in our training department just what we think the work in the public schools should be. Arithmetic, grammar, etc., are studied by students with immature minds and when they face the problem of teaching these subjects they see their lack, and ask permission to take these subjects again with their more mature minds. Our best students in arithmetic come from the district schools. There are limitations in practical experience which every normal principal must recognize.

DR. DE GARMO: May I ask how much time is given to science work in the New Jersey normal school?

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DR. J. M. GREENE. Trenton, N. J.: One year in chemistry, one year in physics, five months in zoology, five months in botany. Physiology is taught in connection with physical culture throughout the course. Students do not have science work long enough to get the feeling of power, and when they attempt to teach these subjects they go back to mechanical ways. It is better to give more time to a subject and give power in it, even if by so doing we must sacrifice the number of subjects.

PRINCIPAL RAMSAY: Heretofore in Massachusetts the normal schools have seemed to be of lower grade than the high schools, and committee-men have put a premium on high school graduates, but the new law governing admission to the normal schools establishes them as distinctively of a higher grade than the high schools.

DR. COOK: Again I would suggest that we must remember that each State has its own peculiar conditions, and we must do our best under existing conditions, whether we be in the East or in the West.

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DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 1894.

The Department of Industrial Education met at 2:30 P. M. in Westminster church.

In the absence of all of the officers, Dr. C. M. Woodward of St. Louis was elected President, and Prof. E. R. Booth of Cincinnati, Ohio, Secretary *pro tem.*

Prof. John C. Miller of the Chicago High and Manual Training School read a paper on "Drawing—Its Relation to Manual Training and the Industrial Arts."

The paper was discussed by Messrs. Larkins, Clarke, Booth, Wasson, and others.

The session adjourned at 5:30 P M.

SECOND SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 12, 1894.

The session opened promptly at 3 o'clock P. M.

Dr. C. M. Woodward of St. Louis, Mo., read a paper on "Organization and Plans for Manual Training Schools."

Dr. Henry Leipziger of New York City read a paper on "The Progress of Manual Training."

A paper on "The Hygienic Relation of Dress to Education" was read by Miss R. Anna Morris, Des Moines, Iowa.

"Methods of Manual Training in the Philadelphia Public Schools" was the subject of a paper by J. Liberty Tadd, Director of the Philadelphia Industrial Art School. The paper was illustrated by teachers and pupils from the Philadelphia public schools, whose work was the subject of extended and interesting discussion.

The following officers were unanimously elected for 1895:

President—E. R. Booth of Cincinnati, Ohio.

Vice President—A. N. Ebaugh of Baltimore, Md.

Secretary—Chas. D. Larkins of Brooklyn, N. Y.

The Department adjourned.

E. R. BOOTH,
Secretary pro tem.

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DRAWING—ITS RELATION TO MANUAL TRAINING AND THE INDUSTRIAL ARTS.

BY JOHN C. MILLER, ENGLISH HIGH AND TRAINING SCHOOL, CHICAGO, ILL

While superintendents and teachers are trying to solve the question as to what kind of manual training they ought to introduce in their schools, in what grades it ought to be taught and what methods should be followed, whether it be called whittling or sewing, blacksmithing or cooking, metal working or sloyd, one fact stands unassailed—drawing is the foundation of all manual training.

From the most advanced stages of manual labor to the paper folding and model making of the primary school, the pencil line is the agent and its proper use the language which conveys the thought of the designer to the workman, be he young or old.

Not a ship plows the sea nor a train parts the air but has its first material existence in the lines and figures of the draftsman, and, in a less ambitious sense, no lesson is well taught in our manual training schools but that is or should be based on a good drawing, which embodies the thought, the experience, the best effort of the originator of the course.

The drawing is the foundation upon which the student in handicraft builds his structure; the platform upon which he stands to build that statelier temple of the mind through the agency of the hand. Without the drawing he is a wanderer, he knows not his course and sees not the end from the beginning; he is as a mariner without a compass, sailing this way and that without an approach to the desired haven.

In the establishments of this country that deal most closely with the industrial arts, no one workman takes precedence over the designer. Indeed, the output of the establishment is but the reflection of the artistic sense of him who plans the work, to be afterward executed by the skillful hand. If the designer has not the cultured mind, how far short the product must fall of what is required for the purposes of competition in this age! The hand may be skillful, but the mind of the designer must be trained in those lines now being studied, appreciated and held in high esteem by the American people.

We, manual training teachers, are too prone to look upon the end of our teaching as the perfecting of the student in manual execution, losing sight of the mental training, which is the parent of the manual. Mental training is the end; manual training the means.

The drawing, then, which we must have as the basis of our studies in handicraft must be carefully chosen. We must get rid of the notion that drawing in connection with manual training should be

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purely mechanical in its nature. A simple transference of ideas from the draftsman to the artisan is not the drawing that raises the student in culture and thought. We make our boys machines by such practices. It is the method of drafting-rooms, and while we may turn out beautiful work—work, that, from an artistic sense, is perfect—yet look at the student and see if an advance has been made in mental development.

We cannot tell of the work being done in our schools by the simple inspection of drawing. We see only the material part; but the part that stays with the scholar—the life of the teaching—is embedded out of human sight, to blossom forth at some later day. Go to the drawing class, stay the lesson out, and, from the methods, the matter and manner, judge of the work. Make the visible pencil line but an incident in your judgment.

In a course of study in drawing adapted to all grades of manual training schools, we should by no means omit those divisions of the subject that have to do with the beautiful in art and nature.

It is too generally understood, in speaking of drawing in its relation to manual training, that only that division of the subject which includes the working drawing and orthographic projections is referred to. The sooner we get away from these narrow limits the sooner will American products take their deserved place in the markets of the world; for the present generation includes the designers of the next, and the present American design, in machine construction especially, falls far below that of our foreign cousins.

Compare for a moment the design of a radial drill of English and American manufacture. An American manufacturer even sent his draftsman abroad for sketches of the above, but the vital point in the beauty was lost. The subtle curves of the English machine, wherein lay its beauty, evaded the draftsman, and while we have the utility the beauty is marred. Of two constructions, the more beautiful commands the market, their utility being the same.

Let us then introduce more freehand and perspective; not the mechanical perspective of the architect, but the free, sketchy work that flows readily from the pencil point. We are too mechanical in this, at least. The study of subtle, graceful curves and forms of beauty and grace cannot be begun too early in the course.

The question often arises in the relation of drawing to manual training and the industrial arts, as to the connection between the drawing-room and the shop, or to the drawing and working periods. By some it is held, that, before the boy executes a single piece, he should have made a working drawing of the same. Such an opinion the writer once held, but experience, that great teacher, has taught him differently. In the drawing-room, first of all, lay a foundation, and in a short time the preparation of such shop drawings will be

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but mere play for the student. His theory will pass his practice, and the shop drawing-work will be abandoned for richer and untilled fields. If we start by having the student make all his working drawings, all his early time must be devoted to that work. He must do it blindly and will acquire habits hard to overcome. At the end of the course the student who was first grounded in the principles of the projections has also drawn, or has the ability to draw, the work of the shops, beside having had a logical development of the drawing system he is following.

There are many points in favor of having the students work from other drawings than their own. In the shop, the work with the drawing is the reverse of that of the drawing-room. The shop work is analytical, but will teach the student of drawing nearly as much as the synthetical work of the drawing-room.

The shop drawing should be a masterpiece in its way, for the student will notice its style, and the ideal he makes of the perfect working drawing is thereby raised; and, in later days, his mind will revert to them and he will endeavor to equal them. The practice of having high grade drawings on the walls of our rooms is to be most highly recommended.

We should, in this, avoid the opposite extreme of making our work so abstract in its method or tiresome in its theory as to rob it of all its life and interests. Principles can be so clothed as to make their study pleasant to the student. Notes may be given, but do not carry the note-giving too far. The student's time is priceless. Text-books can be bought that about fill our wants, but we are looking for the perfect one, and trust to see it soon.

Again, the methods should be adapted to the grade of the school we are teaching. That which we would follow for the grammar or intermediate school would not be best for high school work.

Manual training to the American people is a new line of study. What is best for Sweden or Russia is not best for America. Teachers must be students. Methods must be tried, discarded or adopted, accepting that, only, which has proven good. Let the teacher be a student of himself, open to conviction, and, from the present apparent chaos in the systems of the country, there will come a true American system; not the creation of a day, but the growth of experience refined by a questioning people.

The question as to the time we should devote to drawing in the manual training course is one to be considered. The time to be devoted to the separate divisions of the subject also demands attention. Drawing is so closely connected with all industrial work that, limit the drawing period as we will, the subject is the prominent one of a manual training course. This is as it should be; for the drawing is the graphic means of expression, taking the place of

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written work, and should be directly related at every point to all the work of the school. The science teacher makes use of it in biology, describing by few words and related sketches that which would be impossible otherwise; the teachers of chemistry and the physics find their work rendered simple and clear by the introduction of many sketches; and so on throughout the industrial school, the lesson is taught at the blackboard and not at the desk. We cannot take the subject by itself and limit the time devoted to it, for it is so interwoven with every study as to make its isolation impossible; and it would be an error so to do, for drawing, everywhere we find it, is mental training, acquired through the hand, and is manual training as truly as the joint the boy executes in the wood shop.

We may well divide our drawing-room work into periods devoted to the mechanical and the artistic divisions; the latter including the perspective sketching, decoration, historic ornament and work in color; the former, the purely mechanical work, as developments and orthographic projections. It has been found that an hour a day devoted to drawing, will, at the end of a four years' course, give a student a thorough preparation in drawing in the high school grade. Less time should be given in the lower grades, decreasing as we descend; for the tendency in the lower schools is towards weariness. Do not spoil the effort by over-zeal. Of this weekly time, devote two-fifths to the artistic branches of the subject; the remainder to the mechanical side. This will so temper the one with the other that the drawing adapted to the industrial arts will predominate, and the product will be beautiful in design as well.

In our drawing we should cultivate originality to the greatest degree. While it is folly to expect from our students many designs that would be accepted by our manufacturers in the arts and industries. yet by attempts and consequent criticism only can we secure improvement. If he continually copy from others, the scholar does not improve as he ought. A single venture of his own, criticised kindly, will do more to help him on his way than days of copying. Lay the foundations, teach the correct principles, give a knowledge of ornament, then incite the student to action. With him rest the results.

The teacher of drawing in manual training and industrial schools must be a strange combination. He cannot be a theorist, nor a draftsman pure and simple, but a person who knows the purpose and the aim of his work from the educational standpoint; a student in the history of education, of industrial work in particular. He must know every detail of the shop work from beginning to end—the shop practice followed by the various trades; and he should be a designer

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if original work is to be pursued. It is seldom we find all these qualities in the teacher; when we do, we find a jewel.

The future of industrial education depends largely upon its teachers and what they make of it. If they are temperate in their work, not revolutionizing the system at once, and are led by results and experience as seen by unprejudiced eyes, the new education, built on the foundation laid by them, will grow to proportions most grand, and be a structure, permanent as the hills, in the educational system of America. Theirs is the work; it has been well undertaken, and by a continual study of results, and an abandonment of fads when so proven, the manual training system of this country will stand impregnable.

ORGANIZATIONS AND PLANS FOR MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOLS.

BY PROF. C. M. WOODWARD, ST. LOUIS, MO.

[ABSTRACT BY THE AUTHOR.]

The question of organization of a manual training school is generally preceded by an inquiry as to the probable or possible attendance. As a useful rule, one per cent of the population of a city or town consists of boys in their sixteenth year. Hence, if there are 25,000 people in a given city, there are 250 boys who are fifteen but not sixteen years old. So that for the four years of a high school course there are 1,000 boys available so far as age is concerned, and the same number of girls. In other words, the constituency of secondary schools is 2,000. From 2,000, subtract the number attending school and you have what the manual training school may draw upon.

If possible organize a separate and new high school. Let the old high school alone, and give the grammar graduates the choice of the two. The standard of admission should be the same. Boston, Baltimore, Louisville, Philadelphia, Chicago, Providence, New Orleans, St. Louis, Cincinnati, San Francisco and Brooklyn have organized separate schools; Springfield (Mass.), Toledo, St. Paul, Minneapolis, Des Moines, and numerous smaller places, have made manual training annexes to existing schools.

The objections to such annexes are serious, and the schools themselves may be appealed to in confirmation of what follows:

1. All the traditions of the old schools are opposed to manual training. They find it difficult to regard tool work seriously. "It is not literary; not scholarly."

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2. The daily programs can admit tool-work only at the end of the day, and extra demands of the teachers on the pupils are generally at the expense of the manual work. Such treatment would kill any language study, and it almost kills manual training.

3. The manual training school day is at least one period longer than the old school, and an economic use of plant and teachers requires that some manual divisions come early in the day. The spectacle of pupils going home is a hard one for pupils to bear who have to remain an extra hour.

4. The diversity of courses in a mixed (manual and literary) school is distracting. Concentration of interest is found in separate schools; each flourishes best by itself.

Let girls have the same drawing as the boys, and let them have some joinery and wood carving. After the chemistry, let the girls study the theory and then some of the art of cooking, but let the theory be most studied.

If objection be made to the expense of such a school, it will be brief, for the attendance of a large number of enthusiastic students will bring popular support. Three hundred boys have applied at the Chicago school for next year, and 265 applied last year in Boston, though all could not be admitted.

In grammar schools, make no distinction between boys and girls in manual training. Confine tool work to the seventh and eighth years or grades.

Do not have tool work in ordinary rooms, and do not send pupils from one building to another at a distance. Keep the entire work of a school under one master. Have the tool rooms or laboratories light, pleasant and clean, and employ none but educated teachers.

THE PROGRESS OF MANUAL TRAINING.

BY DR. HENRY M. LEIPZIGER, NEW YORK CITY.

No "idea"—if that term may be so used—in education has met with so much popular approval as the "manual training" idea. It is only since the Centennial Exposition that it received its impetus, and in that brief interval schools based on it have been called into being, and are growing with great rapidity.

We live in a practical age, and what is practical, or is thought to be practical, appeals strongly to all men. Among the most popular

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of benefactions, second to hospitals and homes, trades and technical schools are taking their place.

The history of the growth of this idea may be found in the dissatisfaction with that education sometimes called humanistic—better called narrow—which trained the memory and neglected the senses. Froebel says: "Only that which he makes or is able to make is intelligible to the growing man." On the other hand, emphasize as we may, as advocates of manual training, its great value, a mistake is made if it is exalted into a substitute for all other training or as a panacea for all other existing social evils. There must be manual training, and there should be trade schools and technical schools. These three divisions are totally distinct, and I here wish to emphasize the fact that manual training has no place in the curriculum of an elementary school except as an element of general training. Manual training, as has been said, should mean training or education by the hand, and not education of the hand. For an education of the hand means a development of the hand in lines of handicraft or trade.

That the hand plays a great part in the development of brain power has been shown by Professor Marshall: "Whatever primitive man made he had to finish by himself." That is the reason why this labor exercised a powerful influence on the brain, developing it rapidly to a great superiority over that of all other creatures.

Whenever, in manual training schools, deftness in manipulation is the desideratum, then such school ceases to be a purely educational institution.

The progress of manual training has been on the lines of most educational ideas, *i. e.*, from the higher schools downward. Technical schools have proven in the European countries great stimuli to the development of commerce, art and industry. These technical schools gather about them a class of students that exercise brain power of as high an order as that exercised by classical students. Gradually a standing for the technological school is attained, and the true university of to-day recognizes the laboratory as of equal value to the seminary, and the degree of bachelor of science as an equivalent to the bachelor of arts. The advance in the natural sciences calls attention to the need of man for power to modify and control natural objects and phenomena, and this power is found to be developed through manual skill and large brain power. The mass of the people in all lands are workers, and for them it is now seen that a broader training is absolutely essential. Hence the demand for its introduction into the public school system.

A survey of the present advance of manual training may prove useful.

England has, during the last ten years, made perhaps the most notable advance of any country on the globe. Through the influence

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of the National Society for Technical Education, the United Kingdom has been studded with technical schools and evening science schools. In the London board schools, manual training is introduced. In Germany, while there are some of the best technological schools and special mining and weaving schools, manual training in the elementary school is not interwoven with the curriculum. In Sweden, the sloyd system is becoming a part of the general curriculum, and Switzerland has an excellent system of manual instruction. The manual training school of to-day is, however, a truly American product.

The type has been set by the admirable manual training school of St. Louis, under the direction of Professor Woodward. Since its establishment nearly every great city except New York has organized a manual training high school: Boston, Denver, Cincinnati, Atlanta, Brooklyn, Philadelphia; and Chicago has two. These schools are intended for pupils who leave the grammar schools at an average age, say, of fourteen years. There are in both New York, Philadelphia and Brooklyn excellent trade schools. But what is of greater importance in the consideration of the progress of manual training is its incorporation in the curriculum of the elementary school.

As a compeller of its introduction, the kindergarten may be considered as a most efficient cause. In the kindergarten the pupil's activity is employed and directed, and a continuation of that manual activity is demanded. In New York City shop work, paper cutting, designing, clay modeling, sewing, cooking and mechanical drawing are part of the regular curriculum in twelve schools. The woodwork is only for boys.

In Boston wood-work is given in the grammar schools to girls as well as boys, and the superintendent reports that girls are in no respect inferior to the boys in their work at the carpenter's bench. Several of the teachers are women.

In the schools of Chicago, Washington, Springfield (Mass.), St. Paul, and several smaller cities, the manual training is incorporated.

Who are, or should be, the teachers of this subject, if it is considered a subject? I look forward to the day when every teacher in our grammar schools will be as "all around" as we wish our pupils to be. Then there will be no more need of a specialist in wood-work than for a specialist in spelling. At present, many of the teachers of woodwork are men who have had merely the education of the mechanic. In the New York City schools the wood-working is taught by graduates of the New York City College, all having the bachelor's degree.

This is as it should be, for manual training is, after all, a means, and not an end. I have visited schools—so-called manual training schools—where modeling in clay was taught—and yet I did not find that the teacher of geography in the same school had used this

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means of aiding instruction on that subject; nor did I find the teacher of physics utilizing the skill in wood working in the making of apparatus. If manual training is treated as an outside subject in our grammar schools, it fails of its real purpose, and very soon its failure as a real element in education will be seen.

It must be brought by real teachers into close contact with all other studies, vivifying and emancipating them.

The report of the Committee on Secondary Education has omitted reference to industrial and art training. This has been explained by stating that the committee considered the schools as they are, and not as they ought to be. The school of the future must break down the barrier between the brain workers and manual work; we must combine the two. General education should be given in science and handicraft alike. "Whosoever he might be, scientist or artist, physicist or surgeon, chemist or sociologist, historian or poet, he would be the gainer if he spent a part of his life in the workshop or on the farm. Better the workshop and the farm, if he were in contact with humanity in its daily work, and had the satisfaction of knowing that he himself discharges his duties as an unprivileged producer of wealth."

That a three days' session of manual instructors is soon to be held, that great institutions like the Young Men's Christian Associations are going to incorporate in their work trade and technical classes, indicate what hold the subject has on the mind of the present generation.

In conclusion, two thoughts present themselves: (1) That manual training in elementary schools, *i. e.*, grammar schools should be closely welded with other forms of instruction, and that the methods used should be calculated rather to develop thought than imitation; (2) that the teachers should themselves, besides manual skill, possess the broad foundation of a liberal training.

THE HYGIENIC RELATION OF DRESS TO EDUCATION.

BY R. ANNA MORRIS, DES MOINES, IOWA.

Nature has clothed all of her beings, with the exception of man, in a wise, beneficent way. Man, her crowning feature of creation, she has endowed with judgment and reason, and has given him material wherewith to clothe himself. He has the products of all nature

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at his command, and, by appropriation, has proven himself to be an example of the survival of the fittest.

To polar regions waste and wan
Comes the encroaching race of man—
A puny, feeble, little lubber—
He had no fur, he had no blubber.
The scornful bear sat down at ease
To see the stranger starve and freeze;
But, lo! the stranger slew the bear,
And ate his fat, and wore his hair!
These deeds, O Man! which thou transmittest,
Prove the survival of the fittest!

Man being thus perfectly created, and endowed with ability to clothe himself, owes it to the Great Artist of his being to protect and harmoniously decorate this "temple of the soul." He is strangely and wonderfully made in God's image—more beautiful and perfect than any work of art.

Once, after years of hard toil, a great artist was found kneeling beside his finished work—a fine statue, a graven piece of art. His friend said to him: "Are you worshiping the little god you have made?" He raised his eyes, full of tears, and replied regretfully, "This is my life-work; and it is not well, because it has no life, it has no soul; it may be destroyed." "Yes," said his friend, "it is well; it is beautifully created in the image of God's work, and resembles life; none but God, who gives the soul, could do better."

An artist's work is dear to him. It would be impossible to imagine a sculptor who would allow the lines of his statue to be changed in order to place it in even a golden niche; or to find a painter who would permit the inventor of a novel design in picture frames to surround his creation with a discordant molding, or to clip off a bit of the azure-tinted sky and foreground in order to crowd his picture into a diamond-shaped novelty. Yet people are constantly treating with indignity God's highest work of art. They destroy God's design when they cramp and bend their precious bodies into clothes that are too small for their size, and into shapes that are out of harmony with their natural forms. Any attempt to justify this indignity on the ground of beauty proves that the ideals of beauty are incorrect. Beauty of person cannot come from veneering; it must be expressed in the movement and form, radiate from the true being within, and nestle in the decorations that harmonize with these qualities. A person to be beautiful must build, by exercise, diet and proper care, his body as far as possible into good form and tone. It takes time and thought to cultivate the body, select and provide the right things for dress. But this thought brings its own reward, just as a painter's thought brings his reward. Man, being the crowning feature of creation, dress becomes the highest form of decoration; and in just as much

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as the living being is superior to the cold marble and canvas colors, just so much are the cultivated, correctly dressed people superior to the artist's figure.

We educate for life, therefore, in connection with industrial schools, a great benefit could be bestowed upon mankind by the establishment of a practical department relating to the study of hygienic dress, a question which concerns every-day life. We need educated dressmakers, as well as competent carpenters; and I would advise that, instead of training the girls to join pieces of wood, as is done in some manual training schools, they be taught to cut, sew and design their own clothing. It gives one a sense of pride to wear his own handiwork, and therein is labor dignified. Tailoring could be taught with profit, yet I shall have little to say in regard to the male attire, because it is very nearly hygienically correct. This fact may, in a measure, account for the generally accepted belief, that man is superior mentally and physically to woman. It is true that, in the school-room, the study of the body receives attention from a scientific standpoint; the muscles, the blood and the nerves are carefully studied from books, charts and skeletons; but the body itself is turned out into the world to be caught by fashions, frivolous customs, and, in opposition to all the laws of physiology, anatomy and bodily expression, it is distorted in form, weakened in health, and incapacitated for the natural expression of the mind and soul. Thus human capabilities are thwarted by conventionalities.

In this department there should be taught a kind of dress economy, which would give due attention to every phase of the question. The first consideration would be, how to select goods and to buy with economy and discretion. This would require the study of fabrics; as to their cost, quality, durability, color and harmony of colors; the effect upon the skin of different materials, such as silks, linen, flannel, and their power to conduct heat or cold. This, in itself, would constitute a wonderful training in careful, thrifty management; a virtue so lacking in the American people.

The suitability of costumes to employment and occasion would teach discrimination and propriety, as to how and where to wear different styles of dress. If I had but two dresses to my name, I would have an "every-day dress" and a "Sunday dress."

Certain styles of dress are adapted to certain kinds of work. For example: In professions involving writing and drawing, the arms need freedom to perform the movements. The stooping, bending and moving around among furniture and utensils, incident to domestic duties, demand a plain short dress, while bicycle-riding requires a divided skirt or Turkish dress suited to wheeling. I would as surely have a business costume for a woman as for a man. It should be a dress unhampered by heavy trimmings, trains, and such

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styles as are only appropriate for the parlor. This business suit should be of plain cloth material, short and neatly made. Such a suit would give the limbs and lungs all the freedom that health and comfort demand. There is a proper place for the wearing of tea-gowns, wrappers, flowing draperies and beautiful trimmings, and this place is at home or on dress occasions, where they are appropriate and can be made very artistic. With scientific training, the sweeping skirt on the street, which gathers up filth and disease germs, the tight sleeve which restricts usefulness of the arms, and the heavy bands and stays which paralyze the muscles would never be worn.

I am glad that athletics and healthful sports demand freedom in costume, and that they are bringing about a change that will materially influence fashion in favor of health and beauty. The old fashion that says, "Lace your corset, pad your bodice, clothe your waists five times as thickly as it ought to be, and balance on high heels," is being left in the background by the healthy, sensible, bright-eyed girls of to-day.

The proper study of dress, based upon scientific principles, would help, in a measure, to solve the great social problem bearing upon the chastity and purity of character. It would lead to the wearing of plainer, and, in many cases, uniform costumes during the school year. This would bring about a kind of brotherhood or sisterhood which would at once put all of the young people, rich and poor alike, on the footing of equality in dress, during the years in which they are intimately associated in the same work; thus ending foolish and ofttimes bitter rivalry. This would establish principles that would bestow a lasting benefit on mankind.

This study would teach the kind of dress which would have regard for God's design of the human form, and would give physical comfort and mental serenity. It would discourage the motives of dress which lead to a desire to excel in expense, to fascinate with glamour and color, or to please a barbaric taste that admires an unnatural form. These motives are degrading; they bring about needless misery and place the "lust of dress" on a plane with sensualism.

The question of dress is becoming a question of political economy. It concerns the pocket-book of mankind. "The nonsense in dress is eating into the strength of the commonwealth." Husbands and fathers grow gray and broken-down in their efforts to provide for extravagant families. Men are forced to crime in order to clothe their wives in the latest style. Woman's love of jewelry and dress becomes almost as great an evil and extravagance as man's love of tobacco, and quite as injurious to morals and health.

"But woman's dress touches man more vitally than through his pocket-book; it concerns his muscle, his blood, his brain." The physical degeneracy of woman is produced in her sons as well as in

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her daughters. "Vengeance is mine, saith the Lord." Not only do people pay the penalty for outraged laws in their own person, but the sins of the fathers and mothers are visited upon the children to the third and fourth generation.

> Woman's cause is man's cause,
> They rise and sink together;
> Dwarfed or God-like, bound or free.

By the wearing of tight corsets, the whole contour of the body is changed; the soft flowing lines of the chest are rendered stiff and immobile, and its beautiful curves are made into straight lines and angles. The corset not only decreases the size of the waist, but presses the contents of the body upwards and downwards from the middle, displacing the organs and causing disease in various forms.

Dr. Kellogg says: "Women, according to physiological reasons and well-known anatomical facts, require, if there is any natural difference in proportion, a larger waist than a man. She has a larger liver in proportion to her size, besides the exigencies of motherhood require provision for an increased waist. The typical woman of the ancient Greeks, Venus de Milo, had a waist large and full." I wish that every woman would buy a picture of that beautiful statue and study it until it would become an ideal to her.

Tight clothing not only hinders the free circulation of the blood, but destroys the correct co-ordination of the muscles, and therefore forbids the expression of the body. However elegant a woman may be, she cannot be graceful with a stiff waist; the hand, so capable of revelation, becomes a wooden thing in a tight glove; all of the elasticity and spring, given by the many articulations, it naturally possesses, are destroyed when the foot is bound into one solid, stiff form; the high stiff collar arrests motion at the chin, and takes every particle of graciousness and sympathy out of what should be a bow.

We sometimes hear it said that woman thinks too much of dress; but this is not true. On the contrary, she does not think enough about dress; she has fallen into the way of letting other people think for her. She allows fashion makers to hastily throw her into some absurd article of dress; then, at another command, she just as suddenly lays it aside for something probably less becoming. She follows the changes of fashion and voluntarily (that is the wonder of her slavery) endures torture with a fortitude worthy of a better cause. These changes come because fashion has no permanent principles of art or health underlying it. If people could be taught the principles of real beauty and art, such as are found in Greek sculpture and paintings, which have held the admiration of the world for ages, they would not be attracted by fashion's follies. These are made in the interests of the trade-world, and take advantage of woman's blind

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instinct of beauty. They keep her trying experiments until, in the course of a score of years, she has appeared in every color known to the human eye, and assumed every shape imaginable, except her own.

Again, it is said that woman dresses to please man. Unless he is an educated physician or a man of non-conventional ideas, he will probably be a very poor critic. Fashionable men have fashionable women's ideas, and, as a general rule, they admire a woman whose dress, bedecked with lace, feathers, ribbons and jewelry, gives her an appearance which removes her as far as possible from a man's appearance. Why men should want women to dehumanize themselves into dummies for the display of style to please them is a mystery. It is the remains of barbarism only that prompts such a desire. For the sake of comfort they themselves dress with respect to the Creator's plan in regard to the structure of the human body. Men, as well as women, should have their ideals of beauty changed and elevated. However, to do the majority justice, it is only fair to believe that sensible men are willing to approve and indorse any improvements in dress that will tend to health and vitality.

I have no war to wage against the true and the beautiful. "Beauty is its own excuse for being," and it is the common ground upon which we can all meet in this correct dress movement. It is an inherent impulse of woman to dress herself as becomingly as possible. Then, let us grant that the love of dress, founded on sensible principles, is justifiable. In its proper exercise it is worthy, but, like every other gift, it should be based upon common sense and consecrated to noble purposes. Woman's love of beauty is God-given, and, therefore, right.

Someone has said: "If she have natural beauty, she ought to study how to preserve it in and through every period of her life—yes, even to the very last; for there is nothing more beautiful than beauty in old age. If she have moderate beauty, she should do her utmost to make the best of it. If she is positively ugly, she should, by every kind of justifiable supplement that will not destroy grace and health, transform herself into comeliness." She can do this in no surer way than by giving attention to exercise, diet and dress.

Tasteful dress is one factor of success. Even in the school-room, so forceful is the example and so natural is it for the young to imitate that which they admire, that the teacher ought to give special thought to her dress, both as to artistic color and hygienic construction. It is hardly possible to bring too much of warmth and bright color into the primary school, for the children love it. If dress is an educator, if it contributes to the children's training and happiness—and, therefore, to the teacher's success—then "How to Dress?" is not only a society problem, but an educational one.

Mrs. Jenness-Miller, with her good sense, ready money, and æsthetic taste, has done much to cause prejudice against hygienic

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dress to yield. Yet, the average woman of to-day is either too timid to give up fashion, or too stupid to understand that one-half of her disabilities are due to irrational dressing. In certain things one's habits become fixed; yet, if she be convinced of wrong she should change for something better. In this case, she can well afford to give up the corset for the easy waist; to leave off wearing the many bands and girdles, high-heeled shoes, and tight gloves. These customs of following fashion and yielding to suppression have been so long established by the people of social condition and wealth that it will require conviction and courage to take the first step toward reform. I wish that I could wheel into line of correct dress every teacher in the country. In taking this step let no woman think alone of herself, but of the great army of working girls and hard working women who have not the time to think for themselves, and who will imitate social leaders and educators. The teaching of hygienic dress will lead to the study of anatomy and physiology; it will permit better physical development; it will make possible better brain work and moral conditions, and will thus establish the relation between dress and education.

MANUAL TRAINING METHODS IN PHILADELPHIA PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

BY J. LIBERTY TADD, DIRECTOR OF THE PUBLIC INDUSTRIAL ART SCHOOL. PHILADELPHIA, PA.

In speaking on methods of manual training in the Philadelphia schools, I shall leave out all mention of the two special manual training high schools in Philadelphia, training about six hundred boys, my purpose being to show what is actually being done for the 100,000 children in Philadelphia in the lower grades.

The fact that ninety-four per cent of the children leave school before fourteen years of age shows clearly that special schools for the higher grades will not touch the mass, and if we are to do anything in education our duty plainly lies with these.

The public industrial art school receives pupils from the grammar grades, two from each division throughout the city, which furnishes us with about eight hundred pupils. They are not selected for merit in any way, but come by their own desire; attendance at the art school counting the same as in their own. The course extends through two years. Several tests have been made to find if it interfered with their studies, with the invariable result that it was found that it helped in every way—in deportment, in character and in

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intelligence. The sessions are from 2:30 to 4:30, the children being excused one afternoon each week from their own schools. A ticket is given to each pupil in the art school every afternoon to prove attendance.

From five to six each day after the children are dismissed the industrial art school receives the public school teachers, during the past term 740 having been in attendance. The course of instruction for the teachers is elective. They select the courses in drawing, modeling and carving, in some cases pupils taking two or three branches. My aim in forming this course is to give them in the shortest space of time the elementary, and therefore fundamental, part of the work. Experience with numbers and facilities for caring for them has developed a course of thirty lessons in drawing and thirty in modeling, lasting one hour each. Rational people will realize that in this period only a start or a disposition can be formed; that the work must be continued. The teachers, of course, get practice with the class in our method, and one of the best features of the work is the new energy with which the teachers attack the problems of their work in its application after being freed from the traditional formulas of the past. The freedom from schemes planned and charted gives them an opportunity to impress the children, and stimulates them in many ways, producing vital results.

These teachers' courses are attended voluntarily, the classes usually being crowded. The teachers are not as yet required to actually apply these methods, but in many instances they introduce them soon after starting in the course. They readily see its application to all the other studies, and how it can simplify their work and render easy some of the difficulties, and they are only too glad to introduce it as soon as possible. The whole work from the start should be considered in its elementary stages, not as an addition to the curriculum, but as a means of helping all the other departments—the art part, the doing, providing channels for expression in all directions from all things, not from a few set forms.

Is this the usual idea of manual training, judging from the exhibits at Chicago?

It is not fit that we should ask: What is manual training? To some it means an exercise for the muscles, like gymnastics, and to others a process for making boys merely handy. Others think it is a way of teaching trades to children, and nearly all confound it with mechanical training, and suppose a drill is necessary in sawing and planing, chipping and filing, wood-turning, plumbing, etc., while very few disassociate it from the use of machinery and from slow, tedious trade processes.

Manual training for education cannot be obtained by mechanical pursuits similar to carpentry, plumbing, chipping, filing, sloyd, etc.

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Manual training is not a matter of simply doing different things. It is the intelligent selection of modes from the many operations and pursuits most suited to produce the effect desired. Swinging dumb-bells or pushing a plane or saw produces muscle, but does not require the constant use of the intellect. The thinking powers are not increased in ratio. There are many exercises more fitted for our purpose. We must select for manual training purposes work and methods that, in addition to giving muscular activity, will exercise the peripheral nerves as tools of the senses. It includes all processes that train the muscles and the mind to work in harmony. In some of its applications it gives skill in planing boards and shaping iron, but just as legitimately does it make the hand cunning to dissect a nerve, to engrave an etching, or to finger a violin. As no school of manual training is obliged to teach anatomy, engraving and music, so no school of the kind must necessarily teach joinery or chipping and filing, or several other very mechanical processes. What it must teach are those processes that will make the pupil muscularly as ready to begin any kind of work when he is grown as the ordinary school studies make him mentally ready. Those who believe that such processes are inseparable from the use of saws and hammers, sloyd, paper-cutting, etc., have not looked all around the subject.

We feel here that we are able to speak with authority bred by experience, the mother of ideas. Though not known in many quarters, the Philadelphia Industrial Art School has been in existence for the past fourteen years. During all that time experiments have been made and various methods subjected to trial. No forms, plans, schemes or traditions have been accepted as right, the constant endeavor being to find and to formulate the best way. At the present date, we can safely say that real elementary manual training is now thoroughly established in the public schools of Philadelphia, and that, out of 3,000 teachers, 700 use manual training drawing and clay modeling, partially or together, as modes of expression in a vital organic way.

Manual training is that training of the hand that enables it to obey the mind as a mode of thought expression. It is the union of thought and action made vitally and mutually dependent one on the other. Thought being nascent action, and the mechanism of thought being motory, it is simply a method of evolving right action, righteousness in its true sense, action from right motive. This is the sum and substance of a true education. People who will not grant that the mechanism of thought is motory cannot escape the correlation that the mechanism of the expression of thought is motory. Manual training must, primarily, then, aim to produce facility and freedom of motion. As Professor Hailmann of Washington, one of the greatest authorities on the subject, and whose thought is far in advance

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of any to-day, states: "A mental act is incomplete unless through its feelings and thinkings and willings it reaches the corresponding deed. The hand is the projected brain, through which the directing thought achieves the heart purposes of man. The hand mediates inwardly and outwardly between man and his environment, makes him and his environment one and stimulates and establishes thought."

Scientifically stated, facility of motion from the complex interaction of the supreme ganglionic cerebral plexuses to the periphery in its inward and outward currents must be established, and, in many cases, be made automatic, to allow the will still higher freedom.

I have no sympathy with the manual training methods that make the use of tools and workshop exercises the main end. I observe a tendency to make the pupils use tools, instead of developing first the instrumentalities of the organism, the mind, the eyes, the hands. These are the primary tools; to these our chief care should be given. It is of little use that the pupil has built a machine by mechanical means if his own organism is not complete; if his hand is not sure, his eye true and his mind balanced.

I make a plea for this organic skill, first, because I have tested many pupils from various institutions, and have found, almost invariably, that, without instruments of precision, rulers, compasses, gauges, calipers, etc., they are powerless. In many cases, they are simply plan-followers and thoughtless mechanics, without the elementary facility that small children can get spontaneously in a few weeks' practice of rational methods in manual training. They have been trained, under traditional formulas, to do certain things certain ways, like pegs made to fit certain holes, without any endeavor to have them realize the immeasurable life possibilities and potentialities planted in each one.

Why should manual training be applied in the old traditional school ways? In the new education is not evolution chiefly changing the methods of instruction? Are not the old ways chiefly concerned in producing conformity to types, imparting information—cramming? Should not the new ways do the reverse of this? Should it not give the pupils a glimpse of the life within, teeming with possibilities far beyond the ken of anything in the past or present, with means and facilities to work them out? Should we not aim to produce original ideas and to carry them out in action, instead of the pitiable efforts represented by a series of fifteen joints, made after a conventional plan, following thoughtless rules? I assert, that, after a certain amount of rule-following and obedience to formulas and dogmas, the productive and creative imagination, with the inspiration to achievement and action that goes with it, is lost. The vital energy is diverted, and, finally, tied down, to certain well

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marked grooves and ruts. Life becomes a drudgery without the joy that should accompany every normal deed.

As at present constituted, the manual training methods in many schools are simply adding extra studies, making the already overcrowded curriculum more lop-sided, and helping to overbalance the organism. Our methods of manual training should be used rather as arts to relieve all other studies, to render easy the previous hard paths, the drudgery of unmeaning work, and to inspire desire for action through things. I have no sympathy with the teachers who speak of the need of discipline and tasks for strengthening the pupils. Life is full of this, but if we are ever to get willing and faithful service to the noblest of ideals it will be by inculcating the joy of service by making all the work pleasurable for the young. Later on they will need the help of instinct that comes from habitual well-doing.

Must we not consider heredity, environment and the instincts in formulating manual training methods?

If we know that some circumstances and surroundings will build up some organisms and entirely destroy others, just in proportion to their amount of, or lack of, motive power, self-control and self-government, must not our methods primarily aim to increase and strengthen these capacities?

I agree thoroughly with Aristotle, as quoted by Mr. Tracy of Clark University: "Whose whole ethical system is based upon the formation of good habits by constant training of the activities, and who has said that even as we learn to play on the harp by playing on the harp, so we become virtuous by doing actions of virtue and just and brave by doing actions of bravery and justice."

I have no faith in the morality that must come, as one great authority states, through the study of "historic literature" or by sermons, or through the intellect alone. Touching the feelings does not always inspire one to action, though it may tickle and please; too often the pleasure becomes an end, and ministers to self-indulgence. Self-reliance, self control, self-esteem, self-command, self-righteousness, must come and can only come by forming right habits until they become instinctive and automatic.

I sometimes think some of the old school methods cause mental waste, divert conduct from aims, induce the play of unhealthy and useless emotions, and breed the fear and worry that oppress the hearts of many grown people. Worry consumes vital energy very rapidly; right habits, made automatic, increase vital energy, or allow it to have issue. Many people worry themselves sick over things that never happen. Normal action and deeds will invariably rouse healthy thoughts; normal thoughts inspire noble deeds.

The creative and inspiring imagination is not troubled with self-consciousness. Self-consciousness, in many cases, is vital energy

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thrown back upon itself without any outlet. It is conspicuous in many grown people, the proper outlets of the life forces never having been provided for by the various modes of expression. Only the fool wastes his vital force in laughter; only the stupid babble all the time. What is in, must out by some channel. Let us see to it that they are unimpeded; not blocked up.

Strict conformity to conventional rules and traditions limit the spontaneity of the spirit and the movements of the body. Spontaneity is inspiring, for the instincts make it so.

The spirit must be guided, not curbed; allowed to well up in all fullness and freedom. Then it will seek its own channel and will lead out into a stream, ever broadening, until it reaches the ocean from whence it came. If forced along the narrow grooves and ruts of traditional mediocrity, the quantity and the quality ever decreases, until it gradually reaches the sandy desert of aimlessness and is lost and dispersed. The only safe rules to follow are those that well up from within; that inspired our sage Emerson to say:

> These rules were writ in human heart
> By him who built the day.
> The pillars of the universe
> Not firmer based than they.

In closing, I must claim, that, to get rational manual training, a reformation is necessary in the traditional schools. Manual training is not a mere method of using certain tools. It is, as I have pointed out (1) a mode of thought expression that must recognize the potential and creative capacities before anything else, and (2) provide for freedom of expression. This can only be well done during the nascent period of growth in structure, and during development of complexity in the organism, by physical co-ordinations, and (3) by making sense impressions organic—first-hand—by ministering to it at right periods right things in line with the instincts, heredity and environment, and no teacher should dare to deal with the subject who is not familiar with these three immense powers.

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DEPARTMENT OF ART EDUCATION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 1894.

The department was called to order at 3 o'clock P. M. by Miss Emma Johnstone of Bradley Beach, N. J., Chairman of local committee. After prayer by Rev. Dr. Spaeth, Miss Johnstone introduced Miss Christine Sullivan, the President of the department, who delivered an eloquent opening address.

J. Liberty Tadd of Philadelphia read a paper on "Art Education and Manual Training."

Mrs. Mary Dana Hicks of Boston, Mass., followed with a paper on "Color in Public School Education."

The following Committee on Nominations was appointed. R. E. Booth, C. M. Carter, Alice Broadwater, Emma Johnstone, Bloomfield Barr.

SECOND SESSION.—FRIDAY, JULY 13, 1894.

The department was called to order by the President at 3 o'clock P. M.

Miss Elizabeth C. Kent of Minneapolis, Minn., read a paper on "Elementary Art Education in the Public Schools."

"Elementary Art Education" was the subject of a paper read by Miss Bertha Hintz of the New York Normal Art School. The paper was illustrated with rapid black-board sketches. (This paper was not furnished for publication.)

The Committee on Nominations reported as follows:

President— Charles M. Carter, Denver, Colo.

Vice President—Sara Fawcett, Newark, N. J.

Secretary— Wilhelmina Seegmiller, Allegheny City, Pa.

The report was adopted by a unanimous vote, and the nominees declared unanimously elected as officers for 1894-95.

After passing a vote of thanks to the local committee at Asbury Park for many courtesies received through its Chairman, Miss Emma Johnstone, and to the President of the department for her efficient administration, the department adjourned.

MARGARET B. PAKER,
Secretary pro tem.

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PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS.

ART EDUCATION—ITS INFLUENCE: INDUSTRIAL, EDUCATIONAL, ETHICAL.

BY CHRISTINE SULLIVAN, A. M., Ph. D., PRESIDENT ART DEPARTMENT, NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, CINCINNATI, OHIO.

In reviewing the history of pedagogy one is impressed with the fact, that, although the educational standards of different nations involve such widely differing doctrines, methods and subject-matter, still, in one respect, they are alike. Their object is identical. Each includes the training that prepares the individual for his future duties, for his probable sphere in life.

The warlike Spartan provided a curriculum that developed athletic and military skill, because the State regarded every citizen as a possible soldier.

The fine speaking, beauty loving Athenians considered physical culture and the study of literature, oratory and music a fitting education for their youth, because bodily perfection and power of elegant speech were ideals in Athens. During the Middle Ages, religious conceptions dominated every department of human activity. Philosophy, art, chivalry and romance, all bore the impress of a common belief. In harmony with these conditions, children were educated according to religious and moral ideals. Their training was for the life to come rather than for this life.

The little Indian is taught to swim and shoot and practice feats of physical endurance, because, in his terrestrial role, these abilities were all important and all sufficient, while the most accomplished Australian was the one most deft in the handling of his boomerang.

The educational ideal of any people is the outcome, the epitome, of their religious, intellectual, social and political life. It shows us their conception of the ideal man, and reveals their ideal of his earthly mission.

In beautiful harmony with the free progressive spirit of our country, and our lofty conception of individual rights and of individual duties, the educational ideal is nothing less than the developing and training of children with the view of realizing their greatest possibilities, of making them the best they become.

Regarding education as "a universal right" and "a universal good," its benefits are reserved for neither class nor sex. Opportuni-

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ties are thrown open to all. Even woman, so long excluded, is called to take her place beside her brothers in the halls of learning.

Equality is our ideal, although existing social conditions place limits to the possibility of its realization. We may strive to give equality of opportunity; equality of mind and of body not even a republic can bestow. Our work is with the stupid, the perverse and the weak, as well as with the strong, the intelligent and the obedient. But whatever the capacities or limitations of a child, it is but just to start with the assumption that he is capable of complete development. With this aim for our goal, every step of his education is in the right direction. He is given the opportunity for the broadest culture and widest activity of which he is capable.

The school has an economic, an educational and an ethical purpose. While aiming to develop the intellectual powers and to equip with the knowledge and skill that enable one to be self-sustaining, it should, at the same time, strive to quicken the moral sense and to give standards of righteousness and nobility.

In this comprehensive educational scheme, what is the function of art instruction? This is the problem that presents itself to our department.

As a factor in economic results, we have already demonstrated its worth. Educators, statesmen and business men alike admit the influence of art education on our industrial welfare. They know that the ability to read and execute simple working drawings makes the intelligent workman. They recognize the commercial value of beauty, and also the fact that artistic manufactures are the work of skillful designers and of artisans capable of entering into the spirit of the design, and qualified through their art knowledge and skill to fully realize the artist's conception; and they know that if we would turn into the coffers of our own country the vast sum that Americans expend annually for beautiful things, we must make it possible for our own people to produce them. Utilitarian results are easily perceived; so we no longer need a plea for industrial drawing. The warm support extended us is proof that our work in this department is a success. Indeed, manufacturers are unanimous in their preference for the boy that has studied drawing in the public schools. They realize that he has a general training that is applicable to any trade that has to do with the production, the arrangement, or the embellishment of form.

The educational value of art study received a tardier recognition, because gains in the realm of mind are less striking and tangible than are utilitarian rewards. Educators called attention to the law of mind, that the doing of work that exercises a certain set of faculties increases the ability for any work in which these faculties are called into action. They demonstrated that the mental culture, se-

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cured through art education, increases the power to concentrate the attention, to observe comprehensively and to remember definitely anything that is the object of visual perception; that it enables one to translate descriptive passages into pictures of the objects or scenes described, thus taking into the mind facts instead of words merely; and that art education prepares one to find in nature and in art the beauty that is revealed to those only who have rendered themselves sensitive to beautiful impressions by the study and contemplation of all beautiful things.

It was made evident that these advantages exert a determining influence on any life; that to the student, to the artisan, to the merchant, or to the professional, they give a richer store of knowledge and a larger power of thought. The educational idea was added to the industrial idea and systems of art study provided for the development of both.

And now we are seeking to give the study of art a still larger influence in the educational field. We advocate the use of drawing and modeling by both teacher and pupils as a means of developing thought, of obtaining ideas, and of expressing them in connection with any subject in the curriculum.

I add modeling because I believe the scope of this illustrative work ought to be enlarged to include plastic as well as graphic illustration, and I believe in the use of color because this also helps to realize our purpose. Illustrating should be begun in the lowest grade and continued throughout the course. It is pleasing to notice the increased attention and appreciation aroused when picture-making is a feature of the lesson. Of course, these illustrations by little children are, from an artistic standpoint, simply ridiculous; still, educationally they are priceless. They reveal to us the child's conception of the fact we are trying to teach him, while ofttimes his words mislead us, giving the impression that he understands when he has entirely failed to grasp the idea. They show him the limit of his knowledge, and stimulate him to observe and to find out more. As a means of concentrating thought on the subject under consideration, of stimulating the imagination, and of fixing in memory the facts acquired, the value of these exercises is inestimable. The child's vocabulary and comprehension of words being limited, and his power to see form through verbal descriptions being undeveloped, the teacher will fail to convey in a ten minutes' talk an idea that a few strokes of the chalk place clearly before him. The value of these exercises is this: they bring the child face to face with the fact instead of leaving him with words and their (to him) shadowy meanings. His memory, instead of vague impressions and blurred images, holds a clear recollection of facts. He has the material for reason and comparison, and the impulse to acquire more, to find out the relation of

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his new idea to his stock of old ideas. This interaction between the new ideas and the old, called, in the parlance of recent educational reformers, apperception, is the very essential of mental growth, and is possible only to a mind stored with clear conceptions.

As to the artistic requirements in this illustrative work: Here we use drawing as we do language, as a means of developing and imparting ideas, as a medium of expression. So, if a drawing serves this purpose, no matter what its technical deficiencies, it has an educational value. We let the little child express himself in faltering, imperfect language, until he is able to use more correct forms, and we accept the drawing that is to him an equivalent of his thought, no matter how absurd it is artistically. However, just as we expect him to grow in fluency and correctness of speech as a result of mental development and of familiarity with standards of correct and elegant expression, so we expect him to embody in these illustrations the knowledge of the principles of representation that he has acquired in the drawing class. Each year his work must be better artistically, because the regular drawing course gives rules and standards, and induces a gradual development of the mental and manual aptitudes that enable one to represent correctly. Each year's work must embody the technical knowledge acquired in the drawing class.

How much of the study of children is absolutely fruitless, simply because they learn and remember words instead of facts and appearances! The absurd answers we sometimes receive from them show how completely they have failed to comprehend. One little boy writes: "A watershed is a stone shed built on the tops of very high mountains to make the rivers run the right way," and another optimistic little fellow says: "A watershed is a shed in mid-ocean where ships retreat in time of storms." One enterprising teacher has collected enough of such answers to make a funny book; and very funny it all is, or rather would be, were it not inextricably associated with thoughts of precious time wasted and of little minds confused. With a handful of clay and a cup of water the teacher can present a model of a watershed, and make clear the influence of land elevations on the direction of streams. And the children will not forget the lesson. She called their attention, not to words, but to the evidences of the working of natural law.

One of the best history lessons I ever witnessed was given by a backwoods teacher. Best in this: that it brought to his pupils' minds the facts he wished to teach them in a manner that gave them the impression of reality. With a pan of earth, secured from the roadside, he made a crude miniature of a certain section of country, and placing marks here and there to indicate the position and movement of the opposing forces, traced the war career of the Army of the Cumberland. It was a pleasure to watch the wrapped atten-

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tion of the children. When at one point he said, "Now, General Thomas and his men are on the further side of this mountain." Every neck was strained to catch a glimpse of the further side of the mountain, so enthralled were their imaginations.

I think we are not claiming too much when we say that, in the study of geography, history, language and the sciences, the abundant use of plastic and graphic illustrations leads the mind from the realm of words to that of facts.

The introduction of illustrating necessitates no recasting of programs. A little co-operation among the teachers enables them to work for a common end. Progress, success, depends upon the thoroughness of the work done in the drawing class, for it is here that the pupils must learn the rules governing correct pictorial expression, and standards of technical excellence. Unless they have the knowledge and skill that enable them to produce better work as they advance in school, they are disposed to abandon drawing as a means of expression, because their conception of what the illustration should be so far trancends their ability to execute that their work is to them unpleasing and inadequate. "Baby drawings," with their innocent disregard for perspective, light and shade, and good arrangement, are beneath the dignity of children of the seventh school year. Photographs, engravings, or indeed pictures of any kind, introduced into the history lesson, if historically correct, tend to give reality to the narrative. I recall a picture, "The Merry Monarch," that impresses the character of Charles II. and the influence of his court in a manner that no dozen pages could effect. And what can better express the natural antagonism between Cavalier and Puritan than pictures showing the finely cut, high bred features, the graceful hat and drooping plumes, gorgeous silk doublet, point lace collar and cuffs, flowing curls and wavy lovelock of the one and the solemn face of the other, his sober garb, stiff hat, severely plain collar and general air of seriousness and moderation. No matter how graphic the word description of the crusades, the reader must receive added impressions of immense hosts, religious fervor, reckless determination, carnage, agony, triumphant joy and thanksgiving from the study of Dore's illustrations. They breathe the very spirit of the scene and action.

Inexpensive reproduction processes have brought to our hands pictures in such abundance that the earnest teacher will find no difficulty in securing black and white prints illustrative of the people and events of any era, giving a correct idea of their architectural styles, their customs, costumes and ceremonials.

The æsthetic delights that come as a gift with art education must claim their share of importance. The individual that has sought and found a beauty and a meaning in the forms and moods of nature,

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that understands the messages that painting and sculpture hold, finds pleasure and solaces that enlarge the scope of living. He has the key to an enchanted realm, where, leaving behind the hurting, belittling cares of existence, he meets and holds converse with the joyful, the wretched, the noble, the heroic; laughs with the merry, weeps with the grieving, thrills with the brave. He is initiated into lofty feelings, that every-day experience might never awaken. Each one tells him some secret, some truth that bears upon life's mysteries. For the time being, he is endowed with "the larger vision of the artist." He sees with him, feels with him, moves with him. "Who walketh with wise men shall himself become wise." This ancient utterance of wisdom holds the secret of the ethical influence of art.

As a means of expressing the truths of nature and of life, art offers almost unlimited possibilities. Not didactically does she impart her lessons. She impresses by awakening in us the feelings that have inspired and guided the artist in the production of his work. Our quickened imaginations make us sharers in his experience. We escape the narrow limits of our own lives, gain other standpoints, see other horizons. This enlarging life, by assimilating the experience of others, widens the sympathies and the understanding, and lays the foundation of a broader, more correct judgment. One of our seers has said, "The secret of morals is imagination," and surely this is true, for how can we be just, how judge fairly, unless we can go outside ourselves, imagine the feelings of others and form an idea of their temptations and their needs? We may wish to be just, but without the enlightenment that comes through a sympathetic nature we cannot be just. The development of sympathy, of that ability to feel the feelings of another, to "put yourself in his place," is the profoundest moral influence that art education can exert. It is said that the pathetic picture, "The Poacher," impressing sympathetic hearts, led to the abolition of the game laws in England. How many have been quickened to the most exquisite feeling of tenderness and helpfulness for the orphan by the sight of that touching picture, "The Mitherless Bairn," and who can look upon Munkaczy's terrible "Last Hour of the Condemned," and not feel himself earnestly called upon to say, whether the law for capital punishment shall stand? The ethical influences of art education answer a need of every human soul. Shall these benefits, these delights, be reserved for the few? Our educational ideal, "Equal opportunity for complete development," dictates that the public school furnish the elements of this culture, because it is a part of the human birthright—the right to the opportunity to become the most, the best we may.

What means may be employed to secure this culture? From earliest years, direct the child to seek beauty and meaning in every form of nature; guide him in his work to give expression to the im-

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pressions of beauty of which he is aware. Show him the best he can appreciate; what is suited to his stage of intellectual and moral development. Let him give verbal expression to the thoughts and feelings that come to him when he studies a picture attentively. All this will give him the knowledge and the habit that enable him to progress in the understanding and enjoyment of nature and of art long after he has passed beyond the direction of the teacher. And this understanding and enjoyment will be to him an educating, humanizing influence as long as life lasts.

Our ideal of man is not the present type; but instead, a being of keener perceptions, more comprehensive power of thought, firmer will, broader sympathies and subtler spiritual insight; the product of an education based upon a deeper knowledge of the laws of life, and more particularly of the laws of mental growth; the product of an education that, calling into harmonious activity the whole round of faculties, inspires and guides to a higher plane of endeavor and achievement. As educators, we strive toward the realization of this ideal. Keeping in mind the larger issues, we study to gain a deeper understanding of our mission, and to discover the means by which we may accomplish it. No effort should seem too great, if it promises to accomplish it. No effort should seem too great, if it greater than the consciousness that our efforts have made the ideal seem less remote.

ART EDUCATION AND MANUAL TRAINING.

BY J. LIBERTY TADD, DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC INDUSTRIAL ART SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

The time is past when it is required to prove that art education and manual training are necessary and desirable in the public schools. All teachers worthy of the name are agreed on the subject. The question now confronting us is: What kind of training is best? If we have manual training that is not artistic it is a delusion. If we have art work that is not manual training it is a snare.

Is it to be the art training of the commercial exploiters desirous of selling their copy-books and materials and adding another meaningless study to the already overcrowded curriculum, or is it to be the simple working out of thought in deed as its name implies, making all other studies easier by the outlet it provides for the expression of various ideas?

In addressing teachers on this important subject, glittering generalities are to be avoided, and the most valued contribution one

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can make to this discussion is a relation of personal experiences. I find a tendency in all the addresses at the last international congress to avoid the question of methods and ways of work.

In all my experience, of nearly twenty years, I have never yet found a teacher educated by the book methods or by normal art schools where systems are taught, able to draw. This seems an incredible statement, yet from my point of view it is correct. By drawing, I mean thought expression, the power to express ideas of all form on surfaces, and in things; not the feeble imitations of certain models, conventional forms, with labored application bit by bit, dot by dot, but to have organically the power to at once delineate balance, proportion, grace, beauty, fitness. By drawing, I mean the vital union of thought and action that gives definite expression to individual thought through the hand, the power to reproduce mental images just as we express them by speech after assimilating certain sense impressions, creating and designing nature anew.

The methods I advocate are not new. For the past ten years they have been in operation in Philadelphia. Ambidexterity, psychophysical co-ordinations, memory work, and other features peculiar to our course, have received the test of time and application to large numbers.

Could any sane person walk around the ten acres of school exhibits last year at Chicago and be satisfied with the work going on under the name of art, of drawing, of manual training? Could any one for a moment think that it represented the work of individual child life, of growing organisms—each one alive? Did it not all seem fashioned from the same mean lack of thought exhibited by some plan or system-maker? Did it not show, in its very similarity and endless repetition of the same things, the hand of trade? Did it not show from its very constant and feeble ringing of the changes on cubes, blocks, cones, prisms, definitions, the reiteration of terms, construction, representation and decoration the shallow minds, wading in a morass of second-hand thoughts, words and phrases; able to talk parrot fashion, but not able to do; able to see, but not to feel; able to preach, but not to act. In short, to dogmatize; that is, literally, to assert with undue confidence and to advance with arrogance? Did it not show, from end to end, the commercial element, the spirit of greed for money at the expense of minds? There were only a few green oases in the desert represented by work like that of our president, in whose school I actually found real autumn leaves drawn and colored by the pupils; also, that of Superintendent Hailmann of La Porte, Ind., who has surely incarnated the spirit of Froebel. Verily, the sacrifice was awful, the hundreds of miles of paper, with soft, grey lines, represented thousands of minds distorted and drawn out of shape and life.

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I state without fear of contradiction that no one who is unable to draw should attempt to teach drawing. If they do, they act a lie of the deepest dye. Yet, without one exception, I have found the presenters and representers of all commercial systems unable to draw, and, what is far more saddening, none of their pupils could.

No one should presume to say: Think so and such, do and be so and such. It is an impertinence. The mind of the child is sacred, holy, not to be bent into shape; to be approached, not with forms, copies, imitations, but with life. Feed the mind with nature, things, experience, according to its capacity, but do not try to make it work in your way. All we can do is to present the food to be assimilated, create a desire, make a thirst, a yearning for action that results in deed, in some product for good, to the welfare of the individual as a unit of society.

I pin my faith on the superintendents, if we are going to better the schools in this direction, not in the crank artists, art directors and supervisors. Superintendents are usually men of affairs; teachers, who have been selected generally for fitness and merit; men who have been taught by experience. They will have to realize, however, that, just as there are many ways of teaching language, reading, geography and arithmetic, some good, some bad, so there are many methods that go by the name of art and of manual training and drawing. They will have to demand that their art directors, supervisors and teachers should be able to draw. I do not mean that they will simply take their word for it, or a portfolio of drawings of objects, casts, cubes, blocks, or a certificate of this or that normal art school or mill; but, being rational men, that they will have to see that they can draw, knowing that drawing is a mode of thought expression, not simply a familiarity with certain graded steps of a tradition or dogmatic thoughtless plan. They will have to say: "Here is paper; express yourself; draw a house, a cat, a scroll; anything." Performance should be the great test in our business; not words and assertions. I have actually known some teachers when confronted this way to say: "Where is the model for me to copy?" Surely, these are not teachers, but imitators, copyists.

Is the fair heritage of the young American, the god that is to be, to be but a faint echo of the past, made up by coming in contact a few times with the traditions and the petrifications of the past, or is he to burst like a sun through the clouds of nature, revealed through the creative faculty always creating anew? Then we get the divine, revealed in organic vital reproduction, produced with joy, not with labor, part of one's being and spirit, revealing both, two sides of one fact. We must see that art comes into every step of the elementary or fundamental work, using the word in its fullest meaning—*ars, artis*—"skill in joining and fitting." "The employment of means to

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accomplish some desired end." "Human labor regulated by design." In every stage of the work the instrumentalities of the pupils should be set at work—the hands, the eyes and the head—first-hand. There should be no instruments of precision, no copy-books to save labor or avoid skill. The art part of a great deal of work is the part that cannot be measured, weighed, marked,—it is the vital part. Science compels observation and reflection, but does not always result in action. Art compels observation, reflection and action, and makes them mutually dependent on each other. Science is the knowing, art is the doing. It, therefore, makes vital and alive the connection that should exist between the inner thought and the outward action.

Book-bred people do not have the impulse for action that is so essential to the well being of society. Book information usually and in itself dissipates a certain amount of vital energy that in most cases, and excepting in exceptionally constituted minds, indisposes one to action and makes more feeble the impulse to doing. It also tends to form the habit of sitting more, and doing less. This kind of disposition is also well illustrated in the production, under our present systems of instruction, of fluent speakers who have nothing to say—the natural result of any system that teaches words instead of things. If we help the organization to yield thought and ideas without dictating how and what it shall think and ideate, we will succeed in producing normal organisms. If we make the vessel complete, nature will add contents. I hold that information methods stultify because they satiate the organism. Our desire should be to develop and continue the natural disposition to thirst for information, to make it earn and yearn for its truths. The creative instinct must be developed. The more one does the more one receives. The more one copies and imitates the less one receives. It is a natural equation.

Take any system you know, and is it not all thought out, mapped out, planned and charted and similar in lack of thought from first year to last? It is not made up on an entirely false, illogical idea of child nature? Does it not violate all rules of psychology and physiology? Why should children be teased by type forms (lies), abstractions, definitions, words, rules? Why should not children draw elephants or chickens or fish, if they can, in the first grade? Why should they be chained to cubes and hemispheres—abstract forms or some other traditional system? Why should they not think for themselves? Why should definite results according to a system be expected from individual minds, each one created on a different plan for some special purpose?

We must bury the false ideas circulated in the copy-books and so-called complete manuals, the vicious instructions as to pencils, kinds of line, etc., type forms, "units based on the kite shape," bilat-

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eral symmetry, modification of units, construction lines, blocks, definitions, "construction, representation, decoration," "geometric, decorative, pictorial." These various methods are advanced in many cases on the specious pleas that it saves teachers the trouble of being able to draw—saves them thinking, saves labor. Another fallacy common in many of our schools is the juggling with stained papers. We must quit these color crimes. Deity is now giving us a sixth sense. It is being formed by nature, and some teachers would, if they could, have it come a certain way to suit them and their theories, overlooking the fact that function makes capacity, that use and habit shape the organ and limbs of the body, and, of course, necessarily, the mind. To the little children they would give the abstractions first, which are built up on artificial, and sometimes false, premises, and which they have devised, charted and mapped out; by this means producing a result in the children like a row of bricks—one idea instead of a variety of ideas, a similar spirit narrowed down to a certain narrow channel, instead of a spring welling up, ever broadening and deepening like a river, until it reaches the ocean from whence it came.

If we are ever to get art expression of any kind it will be by making certain fundamental qualities organic.

1. Facility of hand during nascent period of growth.

2. Balance, proportion, grace, beauty and fitness, to be made vital and organic.

These qualities cannot become of value until they are part of the organism, working automatically, just as speech or writing is valueless until the sounds and signs are co-ordinated automatically and the mind gives attention to the expression of thought and ideas. Is this the case in drawing, as usually taught in schools? I claim the children never get the first principles, and usually are so deadened by theories, false information, endless repetition of wrong ideas, that, long before the expiration of the school term, they have lost all interest in art and produced nothing but leaves—sheets of paper.

If we are ever to get graphic art expression, it will and must be by giving up the traditional and conventional methods—the imitative methods—and allowing the vital energy, usually consumed and wasted in these directions, to be enlarged and developed by using the natural instincts; immense forces for good if used at the proper time on the right things and by right methods.

The sense of beauty, the sense of color, the sense of touch, the sense of sight, the muscular sense, must be trained and ministered to during the period of growth while the child is still impressionable. Why bother a child with abstractions, type forms, at a time when its hand and mind are expanding to grasp and apprehend physical

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material things? When I am anxious to get my complicated organism developed, why trouble me about the product of the organism?

The nerve structure is to be built up by certain plexuses becoming vitally connected with other plexuses, the connections are to be made mutually dependent, one arousing the other by automatic action, formed movement by movement, until we have actually made mental action. The word "intelligence," "*inter lego*," "inter-lacing," conveys a good meaning of the process. Lines of transit must be opened, and by repetition actual structural connections must be made in the special nerve centers, both centrifugal (outward) and centripetal (inward).

I have little faith in the goodness or moral quality that comes from belief or the force of intellect alone. Habit is one of the strongest forces in nature, energy will follow the lines of least resistance in the organism. The will itself is simply the sum or resultant of the complex interaction of the complicated mechanism of the organism, and it is made up partly of the actions, feelings and thought, compounded and embodied.

Ten minutes a day for six months given to psycho-physical coordinations in the child organism will produce more results for good drawing and manual training than all the feeble copying and imitations of the usual eight-year graded course, without loss of time and dissipation of vital energy; without doing what the one invariably does, that is, destroy all joy and delight in work and partly kill power of expression.

I think that all will admit that our children do not leave school with a thirst for art that is spontaneous and that must come out; they do not leave school with a vital love for beauty. Usually they drop the work with their books with pleasure and settle down into the narrow grooves and ruts of business for which they have been partially prepared.

Is this right? Is there anything more tragic than to see the blasting of children's lives, the subduing and narrowing of their spirits that goes by the name of education. As Mr. MacAlister stated at the opening of the Drexel Institute: "The right enjoyment of life—that is, the exercise of the higher capacities—is a function of life as much as earning one's daily bread." Is it not a crime to close these channels to the children?

The main function of art in the schools being to develop and exercise the higher faculties and capabilities, both utilitarian and æsthetic, is it not essential, that, before leaving school, as so many children must do at or before fourteen years of age, they should learn to turn a few pages of the book of books, the book of nature? Is it fair that they should leave school before they learn the lesson printed and painted on each side of every leaf, embodied in the archi-

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tecture of every shell, and that shines forth from every crystal and flower? Is it fair that they should leave school before realizing the joy that is planted in every natural thing as deep, as broad, and as high as space? How can we expect them to be self-reliant, well-balanced, thinking and acting beings, unless we develop a thirst and a desire for beauty and right action organically and vitally, not superficially and by imitation. This can only be done by ministering to them at the right periods the right things; by taking advantage of the powers of the instincts, and considering also heredity and environment.

Should we not, in the very nature of things, do more in this direction than has ever been done before, aided by the light of past ages, with our vast resources and wealth? With the aid of science, must not our art work, our actions, our deeds, be a living, potential, spontaneous force in shaping thought, until all can enter into the spirit of Emerson, when he says:

> Ever the rock of ages melts
> Into the mineral air,
> To be the quarry whence is built
> Thought, with its mansions fair.

COLOR IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

BY MRS. MARY DANA HICKS, BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS.

[ABRIDGED BY THE AUTHOR.]

My subject is announced as "Color in Public Schools." This subject must necessarily be treated from the standpoint of art education.

The inquiry at once arises, What is art education? For we have the art education of the studio and of the art school, in which the main purpose is the development of the ability to produce works of art, and which is intended for those specially gifted; and we also have the art education which is now claiming its place in all education and which is intended for all. Color in the art education of the studio or of the art school is indeed an important and delightful subject, but this afternoon we have to consider color in that art education which is now coming into the education of every child. I might have said better that art education which is now in the education of every child. For art covers all that is finest and best in human life; it covers music, and poetry and physical culture, as well as form, drawing and color. So, that, for a long time, art education has been constantly gaining ground in the schools. First, it came in the general

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introduction of singing into schools, a recognition of the humanizing and harmonizing element of music. Along with music came poetry, and memory gems became another humanizing and harmonizing element. Physical culture, rapidly advancing to recognition, is not mere physical training, but leads to grace, ease and beauty of movement.

The children are taught to sing and to love music, they are accustomed to repeat, to hear and to enjoy poetry, they are learning graceful and free movement.

If you think of these—of music, of poetry, of physical culture—you will see that these are modes of expression of the highest thoughts and emotions possible to man, and that they may all be ranked in art education.

The range suggested by my subject is wide, but in its consideration there are four especially important points which present themselves.

1. What color is.
2. Why color instruction should have a place in education.
3. The necessary basis of color instruction.
4. The methods of color instruction.

There is no color outside of ourselves. Color is purely a sensation, the result of the impact of ether waves upon the retina of the eye, just as sound is a sensation, the result of vibrations caused by the impact of sound waves upon the drum of the ear.

The recognition of the sensation of color is called the color sense. This color sense varies greatly in different individuals, because of heredity and because of the greater or less degree of cultivation.

The connection between sound waves and color waves seems also to be greater than that of analogy of sensation. The study of color audition is one of extreme interest. There would also seem to be a marked connection between magnetism and color. It is evident that we are only on the borderland of the great field of color.

It is interesting, also, to study the color perception of poets. Gladstone conceives the people of the time of Homer to have had very little color perception. Although Virgil dealt so largely with outdoor scenes, he shows very little color feeling. Among early English poets, Chaucer and Shakespeare delight in color. Upon later poets—Pope, Cowper, Akenside, Young, Thompson, Gray—color does not seem to have made as much impression. But the more modern poets are full of appreciation of the presence of and delight in color, notably Keats, Shelley, Wordsworth and Tennyson. Wordsworth's fine poem, "The Daffodils," is a delightful instance.

But these outlooks "over the fields and far away" are alluded to only as showing the possibilities that open to the special student of color. Our present purpose is rather to consider, in the next place, the importance of giving color instruction a place in education.

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The child delights in color, and seeing it alone does not satisfy him. He wants to handly and to use it. This would be a sufficient reason for its study, but educational reasons go back of this delight.

In early education the essential aim is, or should be, to make the child acquainted with his environment. He is surrounded with objects of which the chief visible characteristics are form and color. Through form and color objects become appreciable to the mind. Hence, through the study of color the environment of the child is becoming more and more real to him. Froebel recognized the power of color over the child, and provided for it early by giving as his first gift six colored balls, showing six leading colors, in connection with the most simple type-form, the sphere.

The child should learn through his senses. He must make his observations and then express his observations in some way. Any subject that will furnish this opportunity for observation and expression is essential in primary education. Color is a subject ever present, to be observed and to exercise the sense perceptions and furnish the concepts that can be ultimated in color expression; and it thus becomes a powerful means of mental development.

The uses of color in industry and art are so numerous and so great that it would hardly be necessary to allude to them were it not for the apparent unconsciousness of many educators, as well as of the public in general, of the prevalence of color and of the part which it plays in human affairs. The industries which call for the use of color include nearly the whole round of manufacture, as well as of the industrial arts. All wallpaper, all tapestry, all textile industries, the tailor, the dressmaker, the milliner, the decorator and furnisher, depend for success in no small degree upon the right use of color. The influence of color upon the eye is not only for pleasure or for pain, but it is also for the higher spiritual effects. A report recently made to the Public School Art League, Boston, by a distinguished physician, stated clearly the effect of various colors, not only upon the eyes, but also upon the minds of children.

Color instruction, then, answers to an apparent need in the child, acquaints him with his environment, furnishes a means of mental development as it gives him opportunity for observation and the resultant expression, cultivates better possibilities for usefulness through enlarged capability of expressing thought and feeling by use of color materials, opens new avenues of thought and enjoyment through finer observation of nature and of art, and awakens, through cultivated sense activity, the higher spiritual powers.

Seeing thus the importance of color instruction in general education, the natural inquiry is: How can this instruction be carried on? What shall the basis of the instruction be? The study of color hitherto has been mainly that of the physicist, who has been busy

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with the study of physical color forces as they present themselves to him. The results of this study are of great scientific value, but they contribute very little to the solution of the problem before us, which is the cultivation of the color sense.

The need of standards of color upon which to base this cultivation is apparent. Where shall this standard be found?

The color spectrum is the most perfect type of a scale of color found in nature, but there are colors in nature and in pigments which cannot be found in this spectrum.

The solar spectrum gives no pure red (the red of the spectrum being distinctly yellowish) and shows none of the colors intermediate between violet and the spectrum red. Again, the various colors of the scale change in appearance according to the time of day, the spectrum at sunrise differing considerably in general color from that at noon, and again from that at sunset.

Therefore, as nature furnishes no complete series of color and no stability of its types in the spectrum, this cannot be accepted as a unit of color. Nature furnishes no ideals; these must always be the creation of man.

The true unit of color is formed by an idealization of all the color forces embodied in the wave of pure white light. The ideal unit of color requires a complete physical series, forming a circle of bands of colors unbroken by missing links or hues. This ideal unit may be divided into any convenient number of equal intervals, these furnishing the types on which a nomenclature can be based. For practical use, these ideal types have to be represented and fixed materially by the use of pigments.

The types of color can be presented for school-room use by colored papers, which afford the means of regular sequential study of color. The nomenclature must be simple and easily comprehended. If six leading colors are taken, red, orange, yellow, green, blue, violet, six more can easily be added as intermediates, taking the names of the colors between which they stand, as red-orange, yellow-orange, etc., making a band of twelve colors, and to these intermediates may be added inter-intermediates named "R. R. O.," etc., as the points of the compass are named "N. N. W.," etc. Then would follow the grays.

Here would arise a question with regard to the artist's nomenclature of primaries, secondaries and tertiaries. In this nomenclature, red, yellow and blue are considered the primaries because of their three pigment colors; all others may be compounded, red and yellow making orange, yellow and blue making green, and red and blue making violet. Thus the secondary colors, orange, green and violet, are produced. These secondaries are combined and the tertiaries, russet, citrine and olive, are produced. The scientist, however, intervenes, and says that red, yellow and blue are not primary phys-

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ical colors. This is claimed on account of some experiments with the color wheel, which seem to prove that yellow and blue do not make green and that yellow is a compound color. These experiments are, however, accompanied by so many conditions that are not fully understood that the inferences do not seem fully justified. Many color scientists who accept the results as stated above do not, however, agree as to what the primary colors are, Hunt giving five, Helmholts sometimes giving five, Hering six, Maxwell three, Benson another three, Rosenthal two, etc., so that the experiments do not reach uniform conditions, even among those who accept the experiments as proving what they seem to prove. There are others like Mr. Hunt of Edinburgh and M. Leconture of Paris and Mr. Louis Prang of Boston who believe that these experiments lead to false inferences, because the conditions which surround them are not completely understood. However, this discussion concerning the primary physical colors may result, it is not disputed that the primary pigment colors are red, yellow and blue. The recent experiments in color printing give fine illustrations of the results of using only these three colors.

In discussing the subject of primary colors it must also be remembered that the study of physical color force has place only in classes of advanced physics. The cultivation of the color sense must be the object of color instruction in the school-room. The color sense is not cultivated by the optical study of color, and can only be cultivated by the sequential study of color presented by color material in the hands of the children. Moreover, all color used by the children in any way must be by means of pigments applied either in a colored paper or a brush. The brush is an admirable means of expression of color, although colored papers conforming to good standards of color are preferable for the study of color.

We now approach the method of color study, which will bring us to the consideration of child vision. As color is so essentially the result of the action of the color-sense, the method of instruction should follow the method of sense-training. It is a singular fact, that, while we all know that children's powers are in a rudimentary state, we have proceeded for many years in our color training on the assumption that all eyes, whether of child or adult, whether trained or untrained, could see all colors equally well—at least, all of the simple colors; for example, the six leading colors. Not until within two or three years has it been realized that the color-sense faculties of children or untrained persons are in an undeveloped state, and that only by wisely directed exercise can they obtain power.

The method of color instruction should, like all other good educational methods, consider first the capabilities of the pupils. It should

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be developed only after careful study of the power of color perception possessed by those who are to receive instruction.

It has been found by numerous experiments that little children do not perceive the darker colors as well as the lighter or bright colors; that the color-sense is with them, as with many adults, in an undeveloped state; and that some colors have for them no distinct character as colors. Hence, investigation as to the color sense perception of pupils becomes an important factor in the course. The charts exhibited show the result of some extensive experiments.

I began systematic investigation as to the children's power of color perception in March, 1891. In this investigation I had the cordial co-operation and assistance of Mr. C. E. Meleney, superintendent of schools at Somerville, and of Miss Elizabeth Herrick, supervisor of drawing at Somerville. The investigation was carried on from the first to the sixth grade in schools, where (from locality) it was supposed that the color perception of children would not have been influenced to any considerable degree by direct or indirect cultivation of the color-sense. The experiments were made first in the lowest primary grades and continued in order in the other grades.

The regular sequence of those colors in the color unit in the spectrum order is red, red-orange, yellow-orange, yellow, yellow-green, green, blue-green, blue, blue-violet, violet, red-violet.

In order to have the relations of these colors before us, it will be necessary to bear in mind that the investigations described in this paper have all been based on the Prang standards of color. A series of twelve cardboard tablets, half an inch by two inches, showing the twelve colors of the color unit according to the Prang standards was prepared. To each child a complete set of these tablets in an envelope and a piece of gray cardboard, eleven inches by fourteen inches, were given. The children were asked to take out the color tablets and spread them on the gray cardboard. Color material had never been distributed to them before. It was beautiful to see the delight of the children over the bright colors. After they had looked at the tablets for a moment each child was requested to take up the tablet that he or she preferred and lay it at the back of the desk and then arrange the others at pleasure. A careful record was then made of the colors that had been placed at the back of the desks. It was soon seen that the preference of the children was decidedly for the colors, red, red-orange, orange, yellow-orange, yellow, yellow-green, thus showing a decided inclination to the colors tending toward yellow. It will be noticed that the colors just mentioned occupy the left half of the color unit given above. The general results are tabulated below—the colors preferred being divided into two classes, A and B. A signifies that the colors preferred were in the

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left half of the color unit; B signifies that the colors preferred were in the right half of the color unit.

School Year.	Number Examined.	Preferred Colors A.	Preferred Colors B
First	142	108	34
Second	82	52	30
Third	131	80	51
Fourth	47	28	19
Fifth	33	22	11
Sixth	46	32	14
Total	481	322	159

Out of the whole number of children, ninety-seven preferred yellow, but six preferred green and but four preferred blue-green. Up to the sixth year, but twenty-seven in all preferred red; but in the sixth year the preference for red was marked, eleven out of a class of forty-six preferring red. This investigation showed that the great preference was for yellow and colors containing yellow.

An investigation made in the kindergartens of Boston showed a similar result.

The next point was to discover, if possible, whether the children saw all the colors with equal distinctness. A large chart, showing the twelve colors of the color-unit with distinctness, was hung where all the children could see it, and they were asked to lay their tablets just as they were in the chart. Many children laid the left half correctly, but laid the right half indiscriminately, giving green or blue the place of violet, and *vice versa*. Blue-green, blue-violet and red-violet shared a like fate. One little girl laid aside her blue-green and said there was no place for it. This experiment was tried in three classes of the first and second years each, numbering 250 children in all, and but 11 succeeded in laying the whole unit correctly. The experiment has been tried repeatedly since. The inference is that the colors in the right half of the color-unit are not perceived by the children as readily as those in the left half, and that a cultivation of the color-sense is necessary for the clear perception even of the twelve simple colors of the color-unit.

The first experiment showed the preference for the left half of the color-unit, and especially for yellow and colors containing yellow. The second experiment showed that the children could almost universally discriminate between the colors of the left half of the color unit, while very few of them could discriminate between the colors of the right half of the unit. The conclusion was drawn, that, in the majority of cases, the study by children of individual colors should begin with yellow and should be continued through the study of orange, red, violet, blue, green, according to the power of color-perception in the children.

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The next step was to discover whether children would, of themselves, discover color affinities; as, for instance, that red-orange partook of the color nature of red and of orange, that orange partook of the color-nature of red and of yellow, etc.; or whether it would be necessary to tell the children these color facts. For this experiment, entirely different children were taken from those who shared in the previous experiments. The tablets were given to the children and their preferences recorded. A pleasant talk with the children ensued about brothers and sisters in a family; the children were led to tell that brothers and sisters looked alike, and the children were asked to arrange the color tablets in a family, placing those brothers and sisters next each other that looked most alike. The result was anxiously awaited, for if the children could see for themselves these affinities, the development could be from within and this color knowledge need not be imposed from without.

Experiments were first made in one school as to making families of twos and threes, with considerable success in the colors of the left half of the color-unit, but not in the colors of the right half of the color-unit. Finally, the experiment was made in another school, where the children had not handled or seen the color tablets at all, of having the children arrange the twelve tablets in one family, placing those nearest each other that looked most alike. Many laid the left half of the color unit correctly, and two in a class of forty-one laid the whole color-unit correctly. Subsequently experiments produced similar results.

The results of all the experiments seemed to show:

1. That yellow should be the starting point in the study of individual color.

2. That the order of individual color-study should be yellow, orange, red, violet, blue, green.

3. That children have the power of discovering color affinities, and can, through proper cultivation of the color-sense, attain to the perception of color compounds.

The interest awakened by these color experiments was so great that I prepared blanks with directions for experiments. Investigations were made, and the results recorded in these blanks in Newburgh, St. Louis, and other towns, and in single schools—notably the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute and the Carlisle Industrial Indian School. Experiments were also made by Earl Barnes, professor of education at the Leland Stanford University, with Chinese children at Oakland. These experiments produced very interesting results with regard to race preferences, and confirmed the conclusions drawn from previous experiments.

During the last year Miss A. L. Balch, supervisor of form, drawing and color at Somerville, has made an exhaustive investigation of the

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public school children at Somerville, the results of which are shown in the charts exhibited. These results agree with the results previously obtained. The results at St. Louis show more of an inclination toward the darker colors than is seen in Somerville.

The experiments with Indians (from eight to eighteen years of age) show a decided inclination toward blue, while those with colored students of about the same ages show an inclination toward blue and violet. The Chinese preference (the children being from eight to fourteen years of age) shows the main colors to be red-orange, yellow, yellow-green, with the greatest inclination toward yellow-green.

The charts illustrating the results of the last investigation at Somerville bring out very decidedly the inclination toward yellow, red-orange and blue, as the three favorite colors up to the seventh year. In the seventh, eighth and ninth years, red takes a prominent place among the favorite colors. During the last year, Prof. Earl Barnes has examined 1,000 children in California, without reference to grade, ranging, therefore, presumably from six to sixteen years of age. The results show a greater tendency to yellow than in the seventh, eighth and ninth years of Somerville; a result which might be expected, as the examination included younger children.

Professor Barnes also made an investigation during the last year with regard to the colors which children would prefer in combination, which brought out some interesting results shown in the charts exhibited, and are well worthy of careful study. Professor Barnes has made from these charts some very important deductions.

A series of experiments were also instituted in the anthropological department of the Columbian Exposition by Herbert Nichols, Ph. D., instructor in psychology at Harvard University, with regard to color preferences and color combinations. These investigations it is proposed to carry farther, as to race preferences and as to preferences of artists.

It will be seen, therefore, that a foundation is being laid for color instruction being given according to the power of color perception in the child. This is a good step forward from the method of giving color facts to be learned.

Hugh Magnus believes that the color-sense is the result of the development of the race, that in very early times men perceived only the light and dark, and that gradually there came slight perception of color, as the eye attained greater sensibility through the law of evolution. Mrs. Christine Ladd Franklin, fellow of Johns Hopkins University, believes that the eyes of infants go through stages corresponding to the race experience, and she is now making a very careful series of experiments with infants, in regard to their power of color vision.

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But color instruction must not only take account of the state of color perception in the student; it must also proceed according to educational method. The color sensation must be recognized by the teacher as something distinct from the color name. Investigation in this line shows that children may associate a color name with some particular colored object, and yet fail to recognize the same color sensation in another object. Hence, it is necessary to study the sensation as produced by various objects having the same color. It will be seen that what the child needs is association with, and close observation of, various colored objects to awaken his color perception.

Still further, color instruction must be given according to art principles. To lead children to the most acute perception of color in its different tones would be very little. To the art educator, the study of the physiological effect and psychological influence of color is of primary importance, as all art creations in color are the result of ideal conceptions intended to influence the senses on the lines of educated color perception.

Not only standard colors must be studied, but also color in nature and art. At every stage the pupil's mind should be led upward. The beauty of leaf and flower, of bright winged insects, of birds, of land, of sun and of sky, of fabric and of tapestry, of ornament and of picture, through its color, should all contribute to his development.

For growth in æsthetic feeling, he should study the polychromatic decoration of Egyptian, Greek and Roman; of Saracenic and of Gothic art; for, in their art, these people expressed their lives. He should study and learn to produce harmony of color. Color in its highest sense is spiritual. Harmony of color, the reconciliation of divine elements through mediation, exemplifies the brightest harmony of life.

He must learn, too, of the qualities of color which lives and breathes; of glowing, throbbing color of clouds and sky, of color which expresses and color which controls mental state, of glad color and of sad color, of color which is inspiring and of color which is subduing, of color which is exciting and color which is soothing, of combinations which are debasing and of harmony which is exalting; for color is the purifying and sanctifying element of material beauty.

MODELING IN PUBLIC SCHOOL WORK.

BY MRS. E. M. KENT, SUPERVISOR OF DRAWING, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

President Eliot is quoted as saying, the real object of education for all classes, without exception, is very plain. We want to train all children to the keen, alert, accurate use of their senses, to have them

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make an intelligent use of what they see and touch, and make them so they can use comprehensively the records that others have made. And another writes: "The school is the preparatory institution which is to initiate the child into the world of institutions and the spiritual life of his fellows. Its first business, then, is to form the character of the child in accordance with those principles and to acquaint him with those ideas which lie at the basis of society and the language in which they are expressed." Resultant character supposes the mind prepared to think the truth, the heart to enjoy it, the will to purpose it, and the hand to perform it. The recognition of those ideas which form the basis of society, gives a guide to the family, and a valuable member of society, an enlightened citizen of the State and guardian of liberty and a loyal subject to the divine will. This is what we understand by public school work.

With the axiom that mind is educated, made known to itself as it were, only through the senses, and with the line of Browning's "Not a soul helps sense, the more than sense helps the soul," we compass theoretically the triune personality that we meet in our schools in all its individual manifestation.

The teaching of to-day is more and more on the psycho-physical basis. We would be brain-builders, as science says we may, developing its areas separately and conjointly until the organ is perfect in all its parts. The continued compelling of thought on any subject develops, as we know, ability to know along that line. The result is knowledge.

As we consider knowledge we find overflowing hands of giving. One holds the substance of things definable, the other the evidence of things not caged in definitions, free as air and as illimitable. Professor Royce calls the first the descriptive aspect of knowledge.

As the foundation of all knowing, appreciative knowledge is the real and essential. Truth is but embodied in descriptions. We must know truth to understand it. Behind all form is the animating thought. We must grasp it or form is meaningless. Instance Thoreau's exclamation, "What a thought it was when God thought of a tree!"

For our acquisition of knowledge, and resultant brain-building, what is it that modeling gives?

First, as to descriptive knowledge, for the greater part of the energy in school work is demanded by it.

The study of form is the study of facts. Exact thought apprehension is demanded, and the equally exact phrasing of the expression of the thought. From the whole to its parts, step by step, until the last edge or corner has been considered, the mind is led. This is the child's first experience in analytical thinking, and its value as a thought habit is inestimable. It proves its permeating power in the readier grasp of other studies, especially those that deal with wholes

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and parts, as number work. It is the study of form in the concrete, the logical precursor of drawing, the study of the representation of form in the abstract. The acquired ability to see and state facts in logical sequence, implies power in logical thinking.

We take for especial study in the first three years the type solids, and approximate forms as found in nature, interesting to the child.

He finds curved and plane surfaces and faces, and evolves corners and edges in their making. He notices resemblances and differences in the forms, and they classify themselves into families the rectilinear, curvilinear and mixtilinear. Then, insensibly, form about him becomes classified, as he seeks resemblances in the world without. And this linking, step by step, the work at school with the child's world is most important.

Given clay, modeling is the natural expression by the child of form. He grasps it as a whole, and his expression would show how far short of the truth his comprehension was. The teacher's guiding leads to accurate conception. With the truth realized, the perfect representation must follow sooner or later, as sight and touch work in harmony. They are called into mutual action in modeling as in nothing else. Sight must be keen as to form and measurement, and touch delicate and accurate to translate sight and to determine the character of surface in its minute variations, in order to produce it exactly.

This takes for granted that there is a model, and that the pupils are led to the earnest, sincere study and faithful copying of it. In some cases, I have known it to be omitted, and the results might be considered designated with charming exactness by the small boy who begged his teacher to "Please come and see my muddle."

Aimless work is too often the cause of unsatisfactory results in modeling. There is nothing so interesting to a human being as the consciousness of growing power, the knowledge that he is succeeding in doing that for which he tried. "The faith in one's ability" which is "half the battle" is engendered, and action and perseverance are pleasurably incited. In the primary grades, even, when type forms and approximates are studied, there is always the forward step to take for knowledge, or power, or skill. There is no place for half-way work for such tangible results.

We hold it a truth that accurate imitation is an essential stepping-stone to the representation of that which is beyond imitation.

Original thinking depends fundamentally on clearness of conception gained through the senses.

Milton says:

> Among these Fancy next
> Her office holds. Of all external things
> Which the five watchful senses represent,
> She forms imaginations, aery shapes.

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She can but combine, in ever varying forms, that which her servants supply.

The mind must be fed, must digest and assimilate, before growth manifests itself in what we call originality.

We get its first unfolding, valuable educationally, when the child attempts to "make something." There is clearly shown his dependence and limitation, by the inevitable combination of what he has seen or done, and usually what he has seen or done at school.

The more accurate or beautiful forms become familiar, and fine lines are studied and wrought (for practical application is the best mordant), the greater and richer become the stores of the mind, and the truer and more beautiful will be its expression by-and-by, as imagination's power transmutes and transforms into new organic wholes, and the sixth, the artistic sense, has been evolved.

We would cultivate, too, the divine faculty of seeing what everybody can look at. How patiently we wait for that power to develop through the constant demand we make on it! And here the especial utility of the type solid is realized. There is no possible equivocation there. In modeling the leaf, or apple, glaring inconsistencies are complacently viewed because "Mine was like that." In the geometric forms, sight is compelled to do accurate work, where proofs and corrections are so self-evident and capable of mathematical tests. Demand exact seeing. When once gained there are no backward steps. Objects from nature and art will be seen correctly. The law is ever the schoolmaster. What we can see we can represent.

The sight-training in absolute measurements gives ability to see measurements accurately. If the child sees the vertical edge of the upright square prism on his desk is twice the length of the horizontal edge, can he not also compare the edges of the upper square face in regard to apparent length, and by this power determine the shortening of the retreating edges? His discovery that those edges appear to converge leads to another phase of his study of form. Here sight leaves touch and walks alone for appearance's sake.

Yet is there not stronger work even here by him who holds the object in its entirety in his mind, who has acquired the associative linking of the three dimensions, and an appreciation of surface differences that could be obtained in no other way than actual making? It is a psychological fact that a sculptor's drawing is always strong. It never lacks the feeling of the third dimension. Finger-wit will express itself, for "brains in our finger-tips" is nearer physiological truth than poetic fancy, and subtle gradations of light and shade mean more, and are more quickly apparent to one who has made surface.

The objection, then, sometimes raised, that modeling hinders accurate seeing when appearance drawing is begun, seems not alto-

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gether well founded. I doubt not the pupil would see just as inaccurately had he never modeled, for a knowledge of the third dimension, which seems to be the great stumbling block, will come to eyes that see. But then it does not seem the especial province of modeling to make absolutely smooth the path for appearance drawing. They are inherently different, the basis of sister arts, and both educationally important. The only remedy seems greater development of the connecting fibers 'twixt the brain cells, I fancy, and that means good work in both directions.

History proves the fact that for healthy and truthful work all the arts must advance and develop side by side, and we emphasized our acknowledgment of the truth when architecture, sculpture and painting made fair the "White City" in our midst, and preserves her memory, the admiration of all nations, as the perfect flowering of the people's thought.

While sight and touch are being trained, mental habits and character are being molded. Discrimination, judgment, thought, choice, are being exercised, the realization of cause and effect comes to the child, and the absoluteness of rightness becomes objectified. While the psychological claims of modeling are great for its place in our school work, still more securely it rests on its own peculiar power to give.

As modeling is taught in most of our schools we have but the alphabet. It is never formed into words even; still less for the expression of an idea. As an illustrator of the highest order, facile in expression, yielding readily to the will of the user, it is unequal, and almost unused. We consequently miss much. Design should first be taught in the concrete. It can be used in the first years. If the child can model form he can apply it in design. It is so easily corrected and modified that its superiority is at once apparent. We have stick-laying and paper cutting, but are they fitting illustrators of all forms of designs? Is it a rational thing to construct the Greek echinus or the astragal from colored paper, as we are sometimes directed to teach the children? We have led them to think of the ovoid as the solid and the oval as the plane face found in bisecting that form. Does it not seem a contradiction of this essential difference we have taught, to construct the echinus and astragal with the oval and the ellipse? Is it a possibility, strictly speaking? And then we must apply color, independently of our opinion as to its use by the Greeks. When completed, accuracy in cutting and neatness in pasting may be commended in our border, but that is all. From his work, how nearly will the child's conception of the echinus or astragal approximate the reality? What thought would they objectify? How could we at all intelligently study the derivation of term and form? What connection is there between the sea urchin

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and the color oval to impress the child? Why not model the real thing? As to time, it would take no longer than the cutting and pasting; as to material it would be cheaper; as to results, would they not be more interesting, more instructive, more educational? "Truth is the strong thing." Let us work for that, though we miss some of the color decorations for our school-rooms. Others will be plentiful in legitimate line of study, for there are designs for cutting and color in abundance.

Study and model the simpler scrolls and ornaments, the echinus, the astragal, the antheminon and beautiful curves, symmetrical arrangement, and balance and rhythm will be unconsciously, intuitively grasped, as it is the only way they can be.

In the study of language, we carry it to its art, literature, and give the child an introduction to our authors, excite his interest and awaken love and appreciation through our own love. Is it not as needful that modeling and drawing be studied for the same results? That our children come to know the names of the masters in those arts, grow familiar with their greatest works, by photograph at least, and experience an ever growing desire to know more and more, when time shall give them opportunity, should be one of the results for which we work.

In the modeling of the chosen forms let that which is symbolized be manifest through the sign, in order to "use comprehensively the records that others have made." Art is distilled history, and in plastic art the heart-throbs of the ages seem imprisoned. Let the children know the meaning they gave the circle, and what the fret typified; the protection of the winged globe and the signification of the scarabaeus. Show them the sea waves' likeness in the scroll, and where the anthemion got its curves. The mysterious Nile and the lotus flower tell of people wise in art and rich in tradition. Give them bit by bit the history that "survives and finds echo in all hearts and lives." Faith and hope and high courage speak in these signs. Not that we would give exhaustive lessons in historic ornament or archeology, but simply that a sense of the meaning might be joined with the symbols. Ever view history through art's eyes for true proportions and for human interest.

Model to illustrate your geography and history lessons, your botany and general lessons. Demand like work from the children. Have your clay-board as ready for use as your black-board. The understanding of many facts would then be clearer than words could make them. As you model your relief map for the mountain systems and river courses, associate with the countries and places some of your modeling. The pyramids, Bunker Hill monument, the old mill at Newport, Fort Snelling, the obelisk at Central Park, in a strange country, with its story cut in stone, lend themselves readily to such

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work, and are not only illustrations of type forms, but are of historic interest. For Mexico, we might show the temples of the Aztecs, the totems with their strange carvings of the little people of Alaska, the huts of the Eskimo, the utensils of the Mound Builders. Would not the archeological collections begin to have a little attraction for the children if only when searching for illustrations at first?

The growth of leaves from the stem and the many facts of botanical study objectively wrought, would mean much, and could a child easily forget the action of a ball-and-socket joint which he saw modeled and articulated? Illustrations multiply as we consider the subject, and how it may supplement or precede the excellent illustrative work already being done in drawing.

For the study of the applied form, our schools should have their collections of casts, as large as may be, that the children may become familiar with them; for with the senses must be grasped the central truth written in ornamental form, as well as by the intellect. Let the children know, that, from the temples and palaces of antiquity, the crumbled civilization of the East, with sculptured triumphs of Greece and Rome—from their theaters, shrines and homes—are taken the forms we study. They will prove an open sesame to jewel mines of interest.

But casts for the school are few, and the supply scanty, you say; and possibly there is no art collection to which your pupils have access. But photographs and magazine illustrations are plentiful, and will give us material sufficient to make broad the foundation. From their modeling of ornamental form—or study, if modeling is impossible—send the bright-eyed seekers about the city on quests for the decorative forms on and within our public buildings and churches. Let them see how the old forms are repeated and varied. And while the connection is real and vital, let them illustrate to the class something they have found by modeling it as nearly as they can. Let this be done, not once or twice, but often, and you will be surprised at the growth in power of expression.

Apart from its study for form, and for the meaning men wrought therein, the mere opening of the eyes to the existence of beautiful ornamental form would be a priceless boon. You will then find keen appreciation of your photographs of the Alhambra's exquisite tracery, or St. Mark's "embodied music," as it is styled, "rich, mysterious, splendid, harmonious, solemn, pathetic, dignified, grand." The Campanile, the gates of Ghiberti, should become known, and cathedrals and towers and castles, as you will. Bits of architectural beauty will be noticed and enjoyed. The beauty of form in its entirety will grow upon them. Lead them to study churches and towers, or any beautiful building, in the late dusk or the early evening, when details are lost. Seek the beautiful in natural forms as well. Study the bare

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trunks and branches of trees against the winter sunset, or with the silvery background of snow and moonlight. Stems and leaves and flowers give their beauty of form. It is everywhere.

To the highest form of art, sculpture—the crown of the work modeling begins—the child should be led. In the spirit the teacher presents the thought will the children feel, even though they may not comprehend. Yet there is much that they may enjoy and thoroughly appreciate. The attitude of teachableness that leaves the mind open and expecting that more and more of appreciation will grow with knowledge, is our ideal result. When the beauty of absolute form knocks at the door of consciousness, "sense helps soul" a great step onward. How that is, perhaps Landor expresses, when he makes Vittoria Colonna say to Michael Angelo: "The beautiful in itself is useful, by awakening our finer sensibilities, which it must be our fault if we do not carry with us into activity." We call it the moral effect.

Sweeping the arc from Vittoria Colonna to Professor Gage at Washington, and from the past to the inquisitive present, that would chemically test emotions and measure thought, we have the physiologically tested laws on which we may build if we will. It seems no visionary vagary. The beautiful, seen and loved and contemplated, does fill the mind with finer thoughts working a corresponding refinement in the whole nature. From whatever cause, if the mind may be led to cherish noble, beautiful thoughts for a sufficiently long time, or successive times, there is a physical change resultant in the brain structure. The cells which receive and give high ideals are enlarged to the corresponding diminution of those which would think other thoughts not so admirable. One can follow such a course of psychophysical treatment to the practical obliteration of the bad, the overcoming of evil with good, in a most practical way, for the benefit of the individual and the nation. This is Professor Gage's conclusion. Still, like Michael Angelo, our designs must ever be modified by the shape of the block, I fancy. We see from this standpoint the vital, economic value of beautiful surroundings for our children. The school should be made beautiful with fine pictures and exquisite statuary. On this ground we cannot afford not to do it. Art is the language of ascendant ideas, be it literature, music, sculpture or painting. Sight impressions, being the most powerful, the two latter are therefore highly important.

The love of art must grow with a child's growth; it cannot be engrafted in maturer years. We put in the subordinate place what the clear-eyed Greeks put first, the results giving social conditions which made Greece great, and even the slaves, writers of wisdom. Guido, Donatello, and our own Shakespeare, were the natural products of the times in which they lived, and, that considered, we may

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cease to wonder at their ability to produce such works with apparently so little special training.

"The children of to-day are the sovereigns of to-morrow." How they shall rule depends upon their fitting. A love for art in the child will make art's opportunity as the man has power. And how shall we make the children art lovers? We can never teach art, we know. We teach its science only; yet from the reverent, earnest, sincere spirit of the teacher in the mysterious realm, where thoughts keep step and spirit answers spirit we know not how, the inspiration is passed along. The child knows that art is lovely and desirable, worthy of patient seeking and earnest endeavor and loving sacrifice to gain the benediction of its touch. Given the ideal, growth toward it is inevitable.

One other consideration. As modeling led to analytical thought in the acquisition of descriptive knowledge, I would notice the synthetical in its application to appreciate knowledge.

The habit of thought of the child should be such that it need not be revolutionized, when, as a self-conscious being, he reaches out to deep truths. Truth is not necessarily literal. There is for all arts and most study a vanishing point where the real merges into the ideal—the spiritual. Like the garments the children of Israel wore out of Egypt, our thought habit should grow with our growth unconsciously to us.

We have classified form, found our type which gathers to itself all of perfectness and completeness, and have found many of its modifications, each developing a separate character, each equally admirable. And following this thought, is it too much to claim that it holds within itself the power to render more comprehensible, more easily grasped, the greatest fact of appreciable knowledge in the world's history, the visible manifestation of the perfect type, "When the Word was made flesh and dwelt among us?" And will it not make the broad charity, which appreciates the fact that likeness to that type will be infinite in variety, individual in expression, seem most reasonable?

We have found, I think, that modeling in our public school work trains senses to be keen and accurate, gives exact conceptions of form in its entirety and of component parts by analysis. It is valuable on sound psychological grounds, and because it embodies the science of one of the greatest of arts, sculpture. This becoming appreciated in degree, awakens the desire for further knowing. It makes vivid the records of the ages, wrought in form, sign and symbol. It opens the eyes to the beauty of form, and we come into vital connection, like an awakening to new life, with the beautiful in form as expressed by art and with all the half-concealed beauty

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which lies around us. It leads us to noble thought, and gives aspirations which are joys forever—a fortune whose revenue can never be exhausted while imagination lasts and "eyes are made for seeing." It teaches that law and order are fundamental to liberty of life and expression. It gives thought-life that bridges from descriptive to appreciative knowledge with sweet reasonableness, and makes its learner "sharer in the spiritual life of his fellows." It would build character symmetrically.

That is what modeling, lingering on the threshold of our educational temple, holds potentially for our taking.

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DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC EDUCATION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 12, 1894.

The opening session of the department was called to order at 3 o'clock P. M. by the President, Mr. N. L. Glover, Akron, Ohio. Mrs. Bennet of Asbury Park was introduced and sang Dudley Buck's "Bedouin Love Song."

The President then delivered the opening address.

Mr. David M. Kelsey, Saratoga Springs, N. Y., presented a paper on "Music in the New Education."

The discussion was opened by A. J. Gantvoort, Piqua, Ohio, who was followed by C. C. Congdon, St. Paul, Minn.; J. C. Broekhoven, Cincinnati, Ohio; C. R. Bill, Salem, Mass.; and W. S. Twichell, Paterson, N. J.

Mr. Bryan, Hartford, Conn., entertained the audience with Bartoli's "The Dying Flowers."

Mr. Frederick E. Chapman, Cambridgeport, Mass., read a paper on "Is as Much Time Devoted to Instruction in Vocal Music in Our Public Schools as Its Importance Demands?"

The discussion was opened by E. W. Newton, New York, who was followed by others.

The session was closed with a paper on "Defective Hearing of School Children," by Dr. Ephraim Cutter, New York City.

SPECIAL SESSION.—FRIDAY, JULY 13, 1894, 10 A. M.

This session was called by the President with a view to interchange of experience in the various lines of work.

A long and interesting discussion was held on the character of the songs ordinarily available for use in the primary grades. By common consent, upon comparison, it was admitted that no good collection of songs, in which both the text and the music was suitably adapted, had yet been published.

Mr. Broekhoven, Cincinnati, moved that the President appoint twelve representative instructors in music, each one of whom should compose a song suitable for the primary grade; each song to be submitted to this department at the next annual meeting for criticism and comparison.

Unanimously carried.

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Mr. Newton, New York, moved that each member of this department should name some song, which, in his or her judgment, was adapted to primary grade pupils.

Carried.

Mr. Gantvoort and Mr. Glover each sang an original composition.

The President appointed the following committee for the purpose of securing the personal interest of one representative in each State and Territory in the Union: Mr. A. J. Gantvoort, Piqua, Ohio; Mr. Newton, New York; and Mrs. Jordan, New Brunswick, N. J.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Session opened with a solo, "Sweet Charity" (by Jordan), rendered by Mr. Newton, New York.

Mr. N. Coe Stewart, Cleveland, Ohio, read a paper on "Some Helpful Things Concerning Music in the Public Schools."

Miss Meeker, Asbury Park, rendered a beautiful "Lullaby" at the close of Mr. Stewart's paper.

The nominating committee, consisting of Mr. Johnson, Ohio, Mr. Jordan, New Brunswick, N. J., and Mr. Congdon, St. Paul, reported the following named officers for the ensuing year:

President—N. Coe Stewart, Cleveland, Ohio.

Vice President—George Carothers Young, Salt Lake City, Utah.

Secretary—Miss Mary E. Grandy, Sioux City, Iowa.

Mr. Congdon moved that the Secretary be instructed to arrange for a Music headquarters for next year.

Adjourned.

GEO. CAROTHERS YOUNG,
Secretary.

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PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

BY N. L. GLOVER, AKRON, OHIO.

Since our last meeting, held at Saratoga two years ago, we have attended the great world's congress held in Chicago last year, and any persons present that were so fortunate as to be in attendance at the meetings of this department, will, I am sure, concur in my opinion, that the meetings were both interesting and profitable in many ways. There were two assemblies of the musical profession which were similar both in kind and purpose, that known as the National Educational Association, which was under the direction of this body, and a similar one conducted by the Illinois State Music Teachers. I was in attendance upon the occasion of the meeting under the supervision of the National Educational Association. The discussions were full of practical suggestions, and were participated in by people from many parts of the world.

There was no business of special mention transacted by this department except the passing of a resolution which reads as follows:

Resolved, That this Department of Instruction in Vocal Music heartily indorse the appointing of a committee, to be composed of one from each State and Territory, to take measures to influence the several State legislatures to take such action as will place the study of music in the curriculum of required branches of study in all schools of the State, and that we earnestly co-operate in efforts to this end.

We believe this to be an important step, and would recommend its fulfillment.

As it occurs to me, one of the most vital questions relating to our department to-day is: How shall we secure better teachers—teachers with broader views, with better general education? At a recent meeting of the Ohio teachers, to which was added a Music Teachers' Department, this prophecy was made by one of Ohio's most prominent educators and a man that might be termed an enthusiast on the subject of music in the public schools. He said: "Unless there is a better qualified, better educated and more proficient set of music teachers forthcoming, there will be a reaction, and music will get a back-set that will require much time and labor to overcome." These are not the exact words, but the thought is implied as I understood him, and I believe his position a rational one, and that time will verify the prophecy.

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I am not qualified to state what the condition of things is in States outside of Ohio. But I think I can speak with some degree of authority with reference to the Buckeye State. A small percentage of our music teachers have certificates from the State board of examiners. A small percentage have been examined by city boards of examiners, a few by county boards and a small number by special examiners, while many teachers are given certificates to teach without having taken an examination at all.

The prevailing idea among boards of education and boards of examiners seems to be, that, if a person can sing a little, he is, as a consequence, sufficiently competent to be entrusted with the musical education of the youth. I have even known a writing teacher, who had a little extra time at his disposal, to be appointed as a special music teacher without being able to read a common psalm tune at sight, and with no musical training whatever, simply for the purpose of economy. Now, if he fails, and it is but little short of miraculous if he does not fail, music will get such a back-set in that city that it will take years to overcome it; for it is difficult to convince boards of education that the trouble is with the teacher and not with music itself. I should like to hear from teachers of other States with reference to this important matter at some convenient time during this meeting, for you can easily see, that, if such a state of things exists in general throughout our country, it does not require a great gift of prophecy to predict the outcome.

Let us use every possible means to bring about a better condition of things. We want broader, better educated musicians; musicians who have had normal preparation. A thorough knowledge of what is to be taught and the best way to teach it, is a necessity. We want men and women who are broad enough to be charitable to their fellow teachers; teachers who are willing to consult with each other as to the best way without that diminutive jealousy that precludes the possibility of advancement.

Let us educate, and let us be willing to assist others, letting the best interests of music be paramount to an elevation of self at the expense of our profession.

MUSIC IN THE NEW EDUCATION.

BY DAVID M. KELSEY, SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.

There is a little incident, which, though it happened a long time ago, pricked itself so deeply into my memory, and has such a vital bearing on what you are about to hear, that I must begin by relating it.

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One day, in my early student life, I happened to discover that a rapid speaker could utter 10,000 words an hour. Soon after, before I had lost the impression this fact had made on my mind, coming home from a lecture, reflecting, as I walked, that the speaker had not uttered one really valuable seed-thought, or made any impressions I could recall as valuable, and carelessly referring to my watch, I happened to notice he had been speaking just an hour. Like a flash, this fact recalled the one about the 10,000 words, and putting these two with that of his fruitless utterances, I exclaimed: "Is it possible that a person can utter 10,000 words and not say anything?" It must be. Therefore, from that and subsequent bitter experiences, I reason that nothing written or spoken is of real value except as it comes from the living experience of someone. Hence, so little is of value, and hence so many empty words. And, as theory-spinning should have no place in a teacher's mind, I shall say nothing for the sake of saying it, or to coax dull teachers into sympathy with, or interest in, what I have to say. To speak what needed to be uttered has alone been my thought, and to say that in a quiet, solid way, assuming both interest and intelligence on your part.

You read the title, "Music in the New Education." Even here I cannot go on till I am sure you know what ideas the terms, music, education, etc., bring up in my mind. You cannot go along with me in this little walk or path of reasoning safely until I am permitted to define, from my point of view, these terms.

Following Ruskin's advice, I dig for the root of this word, educate. If you will divide the word as follows, e-duc-ate, we shall find the meaning. E means "out," duc means "to lead;" hence, e-duc-ate, "to lead" or "draw out," and educated means "led out" or "developed."

Ex-President Hulbert, in his excellent lecture on "The Destructive Idea in Education," says: "An educated apple seed is an apple tree, and an educated apple blossom is an apple."

Then school is a garden—kindergarten—and the word school teacher means gardener, and his field is not unlike the philosopher's garden, of which you have read. When he was accosted by one who had come from far to view this garden, of which fame had told him, yet who could not restrain his disappointment at its meager bounds, the philosopher reverently replied: "It is narrow and it is not long, but it is wondrous high, and it is wondrous deep." What more mortal thrust could have been given at the many unskilled and careless, who see only the surface area and its bounding fence, who so often and so mistakenly exclaim, as did one of Scott's teachers: "Dunce you are and dunce you will ever remain," while there does lie in every child a depth of soul and a height of aspiration, simply boundless and immeasurable.

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I might well stop here and leave you to digest this startling thought, undisturbed by my efforts at explanation, yet permit me to give direction to your reflection and say: One of the various lines or directions of growth, educating and important, but nearly ignored, is the development of expression. What do I mean by this? First, that the pupil be trained to know that he feels and thinks. Second, that he be helped or trained to be able to make us know that he feels and thinks and what he feels and thinks. For instance, if I have been rightly trained or educated in expression, I shall succeed in making you—every one of you—understand my thoughts and feelings on the subject before us. But we must narrow our line of study still more.

Among the various forms of expression let us take the vocal. Now, divide vocal expression into sound and speech and we are face to face with our topic, and I may proceed in a single sentence to my definition of the other word of the subject—music.

Music is the expression of feeling, as words are of ideas; and I would that all future musicians, so-called, could be made to understand this: that their art is made for this purpose—and for this purpose wholly—to express feeling.

This, then, is music, the expression of feeling by the most æsthetic, acoustic forms. This, then, is music in the new education. Aid at growth or unfolding of the embryos of feeling in the young human soul, and the term "Music in the New Education" is used merely to call your attention to the possibilities of Froebelizing this truly kindergarten subject, both in spirit and in subject-matter.

But right at this point we begin to experience the difficulties of the work, and I know of no other subject which is surrounded by so many discouraging circumstances.

For years, I have been convinced that the great defect in school music work in this country is caused by various combinations of the following difficulties:

First, and worst, dense and complete ignorance, on the part of the regular teacher, of practical methods of presenting and teaching the subject-matter in this study.

Second, special teachers in the same condition, usually plus their publisher's cant to some one idea, as the "National System" to rote, Holt's to intervals and harmony, Jepson's to sight reading, others to time, and the latest, "The American," to enunciation.

Third, the whole mass of the people, including all educators, so actually illiterate in music that there is no standard, no taste, with which to purge out the vile in either matter or methods.

We Americans have been digging and building for three hundred years, while tortoise Europe has crept on toward this goal of joy, till to-day, the low and humble in England, Germany and France or

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Italy sing as naturally as they speak, and could teach the American millionaire. Our paths have been antipodal. We have forbidden music in our churches and forgotten it in our homes, while they have fostered it at every turn, even by royal patronage and subsidy, quite beyond our reckoning.

Now, our stumps are pulled, our fences are built, our houses and barns are up, and we have *pro tempore* houses and roads. Now, we are at peace, and, pausing to take breath, are confronted by the tremendous work of educating the masses up to keep pace with their freedom.

We all agree that the place for this educating is in the public schools. Now, education means the development of the whole man, and not the fashioning of his mind to the neglect of body and soul, nor yet of mind and body to the neglect of the soul alone. We develop the body; we also zealously overdo the mind work. But who is charged with over-developing the soul of his pupil?

Shut your eyes and slowly pronounce the little word "I" a few times. It is not your body nor your mind which you mean. It is that undying reality within, which the conscientious teacher of the future will reach and mold by such studies as develop memory, feeling, emotion, and their expression, of which studies music is the pioneer.

There are also many difficulties, in the form of unsettled questions, about our work, which both keep us from unanimity, and so-called "systems" from becoming effective; some of which questions let me here and now recommend that these meetings, as a deliberative congress, begin to take up and grapple with.

But, friends, some things are beginning to be settled; and I will now mention one or two of these.

First, the order of importance of the various branches of this subject in education. It is this:

First, training of the ear (sense); second, training of the voice (muscle); and, third, training of the thought (brain). After this matter, follows sight-singing, then theory and harmony, and, last of all, real instrumental study; for my topic certainly covers instrumental education.

Now, teachers, mark the order. Ear, first; voice, second; thought, third; and, after these, sight-singing, theory and harmony. "What!" you say, "The subject, sight-singing, fourth in the relative order of importance?" Let us see.

Here is a person who wishes to express his feelings in singing. For the sake of a simple illustration, let us suppose he is in a prayer meeting. But his singing teacher has not believed in the order of importance we have mentioned, and his ear is not well trained, but his voice is loud and rough and he can read notes, and, made bold by

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these facts, he bawls through every tune his ideas of music. Would not any one of us vote him a bore? Had you not rather his teacher had taught him nothing than music in this order?

Sight-singing first? Never! Sight-singing minus ear training (even though plus voice training and mind training) equals an out-of-tune nuisance; so sight-singing minus voice training is not music, and minus mind training, not possible!

Ear before voice, and both before, or at least in advance of, anything else in musical education!

If you now conclude that ear and voice do come before sight-singing, let me hasten to convince you that just as surely does the subject placed third, *i. e.*, the training of thought in music. By thought I mean that trained ability of the mind by which we may think in tones, as we are all able to in numbers. For instance, I dictate to you, either by voice or instrument, a little melody. You of trained mentality in music can reproduce this, and not only in your own mind, but record it, so that others may do so. Supposing I am distant, and wish to tell you by letter a little melody I have conceived; then, first, I must resort to characters and symbols, and, second, do so, assuming your ability to reproduce in your mind the same melody from those symbols. This, if you do it easily, sitting at your desk as you read the rest of my letter, wholly without audible sound, I call "sight-singing;" and leading educators declare this to be the test of any actual education in music. Now, the beginnings or rudiments of this—that is, actual acquaintance with tones, by an action of the mind—should come before sight-singing is taken up as a separate subject. The pupil should be able to mentally grasp tones and their meanings. Then sight-singing, as just defined, comes naturally, normally and with an educating effect. He is able both to reproduce tones from written melodies or characters and to record tones or melodies by use of characters with the same facility and correctness expected in our language of words. And this mental ability should not only come before much sight-singing drill, but must be kept ahead of it all the way. That this is separable from that subject, you may prove for yourselves by reflecting that a blind man might be educated in music up to this point.

It is fast beginning to be the test: "Teachers, is your instruction provable in psychology?" First, or earliest, train the sense; second, muscle; third, brain; and lastly, their combination, in sight-singing.

Further, do you not see, that, with sight-singing as this combination, the branches I name to follow it, theory, harmony, etc., come naturally, as a growth or broadening of what we have already grasped, and, lastly, that all these should come before machine music, the so-called instrumental?

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This, then, is music in the new education. This, then, is music in its natural growth and order. And, I repeat it: that this order has been settled upon by the leading educators, and, following it out, let us take up the first subject—ear training—and see what is settled in that branch.

The babe in its cradle is, practically, an idiot, and he runs great risk of remaining so, for the only communication between his embryo soul and the outer world which is to educate or unfold it are his five senses. Deprive him of these and an idiot he will remain. Deprive him of any one, and he will forever be so much less the image of his Creator. Do not take my word for it. Test it for yourselves. Study nature. Give the baby a plaything. Instantly he applies every test of his senses. He feel it, tastes it, turns it round and round to get acquainted with it by sight tests, using the nose at the same time, nor ever fails to pound the floor with it or shake it to get audible effects. Teachers, through these five senses—keys to the avenues of your approach—you reach, inform, educate and fashion your pupil. His "life to be" is in your hand, as wax. Can you afford, then, to neglect one of your five chances to succeed?

Retain this thought in mind a moment while I go back and repeat something from a former lecture. It is a curious fact that every distinctive age in the history of mankind has been characterized by the special cultivation of some one sense over the others. Those of the remote past were touch and taste, and riotous living was the harvest.

Later on we find men running wild over the sense of smell, until the spices of the East were caravaned into all the world. To-day, the sense of sight is the shrine at which we worship, and beauty of form and color must delight us at every turn. No matter how horrid the din a busy street or a train produces, if it is surrounded with or composed of artistic form and color, it must be beautiful. We easily tolerate the wretched, whining, cackling voice of our Anglo-Saxon, so he receive us in a drawing-room which delights the eye. Fifty paperhangers and decorative painters will thrive in a community where a piano tuner would be starved out. The gaudy pageant along our street to please the eye will attract a throng in the rain, but a poor traveling minstrel trying to please our dull ears is kicked from the curb and no one cares. When we say a thing is beautiful, we mean to the eye. We borrow every useful adjective to describe the pleasure we derive from seeing. That of hearing is too slight; we need no modifiers.

I repeat it. Sight is the shrine at which we worship to-day, but there is one sense left for the future, which, when fully realized and developed and wedded to the others, will yield the acme of cultivated pleasure and educate us more truly. When we have obeyed the command, "He that hath ears to hear, let him hear," hearing and

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sight which are mental shall put down the other senses which are carnal, and thereby the fashion of our souls shall be bettered.

These words were first uttered before a body of teachers in 1890, but that you may see that others are now thinking along the same lines, I beg leave to read a short extract from an address delivered a few months ago by the eminent historian, social science lecturer and metaphysician, John Clarke Ridpath.

This is what he said in prophecy for the twentieth century, or one hundred years from now:

Among the greatest changes which the fifth Columbian centennial year will discover, will be the substitution of aluminium for iron in the industries, and of sound for sight in the work of learning. These things civilization demands and will find in the twentieth century. Both of these substitutions imply a striking change in the relations of man to the laws of his environment, and of these the second, the substitution of sound for sight, will be greatest. It will be the restoration of the human ear to its rightful office as the organ of enlightenment and learning. The sound wave is to be substituted for the light wave as the vehicle of all our best information and intercourse. The ear is to take place of the eye for the interest and instruction of mankind. A most unnatural thing has happened in human development. The life of all ages has been instructed by sound.

All mothers, from the mother bird to the mother woman, teach their offspring by sound, by utterance. But, instead of continuing this natural process of instruction to the complete development of the mind, an abnormal method has been substituted. The youth at a certain age is led into a world of science and there dismissed to acquire, if he can, the painful use of meaningless hieroglyphics. There he must study with the eye, learning the sense of crooked marks which can at most signify no more than words. Alas, how much of energy and life and thought have been wasted in the instruction of the mind by characters and symbols! How the eyes of mankind have been dimmed and eclipsed and the faculties overheated by this unnatural process of learning!

Man begins his acquirements of knowledge with words, and he ends with words. But an unnatural civilization has taught him to walk the greater part of his intellectual journey by means of arbitrary systems of writing and printing. The fifth Columbian year will see him untaught—a hard thing withal—and retaught on nature's plan of utterance. Nature teaches by sound only. Artificiality writes a scrawl. Nature's book is a book of words. Man's book is still a book of signs and symbols. Nature's book utters itself to the ear, and man's book blinds the eyes and overheats the imagination. Nature's method is to teach by the ear and to save the sight for the discovery of place and beauty.

The fifth centennial of our discoverer will bring us the sound book in some form, and with that the intellectual equipoise of mankind will begin to be restored. The use of the eye for the offices of learning in place of the stronger ear has destroyed the equilibrium of the human mind. That equilibrium must be restored. The mental diseases and unrest of our race are largely attributable to the overexcitement of the faculties through ages of seeing.

The age of hearing is to come with the twentieth century. That age will restore the balance. Memory, almost obliterated, will come again. The perceptions will cool. The imagination will become calm, and the eye itself will recover from the injuries of overstrain and regain its power and luster. Man will see once more as the eagle sees and will know Shakespeare by heart. He will remember all knowledge, and will see again, as of old, from Sicily to Carthage!

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Know Shakespeare by heart? Certainly, know everything by heart. We have no memories to-day. When I say to a man: "Memorizing your lecture of 4,000 words!" he replies by a derisive laugh, and we think each the other a fool. But the pedagogy of a few years hence will laugh at our sand-writing methods of to-day, with a reason. Do not our pupils see too much, think too little, and remember almost nothing?

Are we teachers not actually writing on the sand, instead of preparing the mind of the pupil as a piece of parchment, tough and retentive, by such exercises as require thought processes and memory —by music, that invisible reality, which can be grasped only by the mind and whose retention is so permanent? Surely, this is the way to better things, had we but better cultivated the sense of hearing. Almost every chronic case of pupil's headache I ever knew was traceable to an overstrained eye nerve or weak ear nerve.

What is to cultivate this neglected sense? Again, music. But it is a source of growing wonderment, that, in the face of the fact that music is rapidly spreading, entering home, school and public place, it is not better understood. I say this, not in the way of fault-finding, having discovered that musicians themselves suffer this lack almost as severely as the masses; *i. e.*, they have never solved the mental enigma, music. They look very wise when they compare the terms, "classical music" and "trash." They try very hard to enjoy a concert by an acknowledged artist. They practice for hours at any difficult composition, cheered by the fact that in its title page is an unpronounceable German name, eleven letters long.

Not many years ago this sort of thing might have been tolerated, but to-day the capacities and peculiar adaptabilities of music for every condition of the human family have been established. We must therefore, hasten to rescue the intellectually blind and deaf lovers of music, till they can, at least, "see men as trees walking," and hear voices, though they fail to interpret what is expressed. And this is a teacher's work.

In saying that music is a mental enigma, I do not mean that the object of this paper is to expound it. Dig its precious ore for yourselves. There is a golden key to all mental listening. If you were enjoying a reading from some classic author, you would not remain utterly incapable of telling that author's name, his subject, his plot or style. Could you not tell blank verse from prose, and whether the language was well chosen or not. But such is the contemptible laziness of listeners to music, that they never put forth sufficient effort to learn to follow the composition. They stare at the performer or his instrument, listening with their eyes; they look with their ears, or with their mouths; they think with their nerves, and feel

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a sort of a drowsy joy which they flatter themselves is the effect of the well performed composition on the well educated listeners.

One of the greatest needs in the art culture of to-day is education in the art of listening to good music. It is singular how so many persons, who would not admit that they had seen a painting if the vision were so fleeting as to leave the impression only of a mass of colors more or less harmoniously combined, are yet willing to permit a musical composition to pass before their senses like a sort of audible phantasmagoria, void of everything save a vague, formless, purposeless something, which occasionally makes a pleasing impression upon the ear. Let me denounce unsparingly this prevalent habit of indulging in the art of incomplete thoughtlessness, listlessness, laziness! But enough; another point has been settled. There has been a prevalent idea that, if a child sings false, is unable to sing the whole scale, or fails to sound the tone called for, his voice is at fault. Almost never! Only in a few cases have I noticed a non-singer, under twelve years, whose voice was the cause of his trouble. The exceptions are usually hereditary cases of chronic throat or bronchial affections. The rule is, that the ear is at fault; is dull, is imperfect or undeveloped. And where the child sings a part of the scale and then goes monotone, the ear, usually, is merely partially developed.

These difficulties of the little folks are frequently found to be parallel to so-called "color-blindness," and are as curable by a rational exercise of the organ of sense found to be imperfectly developed. Of course (carrying the parallel a little further), as long seated color blindness is often incurable, so are rare cases in the wanting ear.

But in nearly every case, with the ear, if taken in time, all trouble disappears in a year or two. This is especially true where these cases are dealt with in the public school, for there their ear is daily compelled to listen to correct tones, and, being young, soon yields.

Now, assuming that most of the prevalent non-singing is due to untrained ears, notice these figures: By rough estimate twenty-two per cent of our present adult population can correctly sing the scale. In the best school, ninety-four per cent. This shows the ear to be the trouble, and that, taken early, and kept at it, as in school, non-singing, except in the few cases in a hundred where the voice is really affected, will disappear.

Further, it is interesting to note the progress of these dull, neglected ears, and their slowly yielding, in spite of themselves, as it were.

Again note these figures: In the first two weeks of school life eight per cent to fifteen per cent of the little folks are found able to

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sing correctly some of the tones of the diatonic scale. At the end of two months from twenty-five to forty per cent will be able to sing the entire scale correctly; at the end of the year's work, seventy to eighty per cent; and this number is increased until ninety to ninety-five per cent is reached in the fourth or fifth grade. So surely will this compelling the ear to listen to tuneful music accurately train it, that, in one instance which came under my observation, a boy, whose vocal chords had always been in health, yet who went through into the high school grade unable to sing the scale, in two short years mastered it completely, and is to-day a fair bass singer; this triumph over a naturally dull ear on his part being the result of persistent mental effort, after he was old enough to understand the *rationale* of his case, as now explained to you.

There are, also, one or two settled points regarding the training of the voice, and I should like to go on and name them. But as I am already on record on this point, let me pass it with a word of appeal only.

First—Keep voice training in its proper class, which is with physical culture. It is but muscle training, guided, first, by a trained ear, the tone sense; and second, by the mind or will, which gives volition to muscles.

Second—Remember no healthy child has a real chest tone before the eighth year, and usually not before the tenth or twelfth. Train him first in the F scale; never lower. The five tones, F to C, should be the first learned. Hence, never pitch any work on middle C. Keep out of these chest pitches. They had better sing the scales in A, or B-flat, than any scale lower than E.

Third—Teach both right and wrong tone production from the first. When children know good tone, then they will choose it naturally, as they do the beautiful in everything else.

Passing this subject, the matter of thought training in music, mentioned as third, opens up a wide field. Let me only say what I would add in speaking of any of the subjects I have placed as following the one discussed, that I believe along all these lines we are but on the threshold. Our star of promise has but just risen on the subject of education in any of its great departments.

Fie upon the self-satisfied teacher who deems our work near its climax! To be sure, the teacher is in the vanguard of all human progress; co-worker with Christ himself, yet not with the greatest battles won. We are in the throes of a transition period, not unlike that from the stage coach to steam. Our present efforts but a few years hence will seem to have been clumsy, like the old hand-press of Franklin or the quaint De Witt Clinton engine at the World's Fair.

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Be warned, teachers! The eyes of all are on the educator of to-day, by whatever name he may be called. Second only to the church of God, in him lies the hope of the race.

I have said that nothing written or spoken is of any real value unless issuing from the living experience of some one. I wish to repeat it now, and add to these thoughts a growth from my own actual experience. Yet, let me add, that no other person's experience can become to you valuable, save by the alchemy of your working it out by and for yourself, and thus making it a part of yours. For on paper or in the mind it is still dead, dull and valueless.

Do not receive my assertions point blank, but do take them into your consideration. They will stir you into investigation for yourselves. If I have treated extraneous subjects, convince me that there is any subject to which applied pedagogy will not lead the thinking teacher, so he will treat his work psychologically. Learn a few things minutely, and you will see their relation to, and leading towards, all others.

To conclude. If a child's faculties are not developed with pleasure to himself there is something wrong in the process. Does not this arraign our present school system, which, as a rule, is conducive of anything but pleasure to a child, and is not the indictment a true one?

How to make knowledge desired is the problem that confronts every teacher, and it is one that Froebel's methods help to solve. But original investigators in education were never so many, never so enthusiastic, as now. The morning of a better day advances.

The eastern sky is rose-tinted with promise. Our sun is rising in a blaze of splendor upon an educational world where progress, though often interrupted, can never be stopped.

As I look along the vista of our future—our great national future—which is rolling sunward like the earth itself; as I scan the horizon of an ocean, whose peaceful bosom seems but layers of liquid pearls, my heart bounds with unshaken faith in the future of our ship of state, and responds to the call of Webster on Plymouth shore: "Advance, then, ye future generations! We would hail you as you rise, in your long succession, to fill the places which we now fill, and to taste the blessings of existence which we are passing. We bid you welcome to the healthful skies and verdant fields of New England, to the grain laden prairies of the West, to the sunny slopes of the South; to our endless chain of emerald hills and boundless shores of inland seas. We greet your accession to this great inheritance of ours. We welcome you to the blessings of good government and religious liberty. We welcome you to the treasures of science and the delights of learning and art. We welcome you to the transcendent sweets of domestic life. To the happiness of kindred, parents

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and children. We welcome you to the immeasurable blessings of a rational existence, the immortal hope of Christianity, and the light of everlasting truth."

DISCUSSION.

MR. A. J. GANTVOORT, Piqua, Ohio, who opened the discussion of this paper, objected to Mr. Kelsey's classification, especially with reference to the training of the ear, mind and voice, and held that the mind follows the ear in the order of development. He would not command the monotone vocalist to desist from singing, but to struggle on. He did not believe that a child is an idiot, but an undeveloped possibility, and argued for the study of the child nature.

MR. C. C. CONGDON, St. Paul, Minn., thought that too many difficulties were presented at the same time. Develop sight-singing as early as possible. Train the ear, and, above all things, train the child to think in music in the same manner that he is trained to think in language.

MR. J. C. BROEKHOVEN, College of Music, Cincinnati, Ohio, entered a plea for teachers, both regular and special, who were fully equipped for intelligent instruction in music.

MR. C. R. BILL, Salem, Mass., called attention to the fact, that increasing ability on the part of public school children in the study of music is very marked, and held that many publishing houses were doing much towards the attainment of real results in this regard.

MR W. S. TWICHELL, Paterson, N. J., stated that much of failure was due to the lack of qualification on the part of musicians themselves. He would have musicians know vastly more than music alone.

MR. KELSEY closed the discussion by saying that training in the study of music meant the comprehension of the training of all the mental powers.

IS AS MUCH TIME DEVOTED TO INSTRUCTION IN VOCAL MUSIC IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS AS ITS IMPORTANCE DEMANDS?

FREDERICK E. CHAPMAN, CAMBRIDGEPORT, MASS.

When the National Educational Association met at Saratoga in July, 1892, a very interesting and convincing paper was read on "Music as a Means of Mental Culture."

In this paper, answers to four questions on the importance of musical instruction in the public schools, which had been previously sent to superintendents, committeemen and directors of music, were read. All of these authorities agreed as to the importance of the

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study of music in the public schools. I was then quoted as saying: "I believe no study can claim superiority over music in developing mental activity, and, if the circumstances attending its thorough teaching are perfect, its influence is at once apparent in all other studies, stimulating the mental faculties to wonderful attainments."

We hear a great deal nowadays about the multiplicity of studies in our public schools, and that they are constantly increasing in number. I often wonder how many of us take into consideration the fact, that all studies are more or less co-related, and that each in its proper place and time helps the other. How many actually believe in the old Pestalozzian tripod-form, number and language. It is true that as yet the "three R's" claim pre-eminence, and justly demand much time and careful attention. But they do not touch the ethical side of child life, and therefore only affect him in calculations connected with general business transactions. There is, however, in the study of the divine art of music a potent element which, while it is not of so much prominence in business, nevertheless, I believe, enters into and helps to ennoble and soften a disposition so as to lead men to live rightly, deal justly, and, in consequence, is a subject that demands attention.

I have therefore taken for my text, if you please, this query: Is as much time devoted to instruction in vocal music in our public schools as its importance demands?

As I have already said, the author of the paper to which I referred emphasized the importance of music as a means of mental culture, and brought to bear upon the subject the thoughts of many of our best instructors. It therefore remains for me to say some things regarding the importance of the study, and to give a few facts as to the time used in instruction.

Public school education is chiefly directed at the boy's mentality. We should, therefore, realize the necessity of reaching his center—what he really is.

That music forms a potent factor in education we all may agree, and in this only accept the ideas and beliefs of the times when Plato, Aristotle, Quintilian, and other great philosophers lived. Yet do we altogether indorse their beliefs? No, because we do not fully realize the importance of music in education as they did; and emphatically, no, because we do not give one-eighth the time to its teaching as was their custom to do. Are we not, then, behind their time? They were such thorough believers in the value of music in education, that they not only sanctioned it as a study, but did everything possible to forward it by their personal attention. It is well-known among you what they have written on the subject, and the strong arguments they brought to bear in its favor.

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We find fault, I have said, because of the many studies we are obliged to teach. I believe we can base them all on Pestalozzi's "tripod;" and, to illustrate, I have in mind a city where they have recently introduced into the primary grades the studies of botany and calisthenics. The latter had been taught before, but not by a special system under particular supervision. The teachers objected and said, as many others say: "We have more than we can teach now; where are we to find time for these new studies?"

The director of music of that city went into a primary school one afternoon, and found there the directors of drawing, botany and calisthenics, all, ready, as he, to give their lessons. What did he do? Not asking any questions or waiting for the others to begin, he went about his work, took his usual time, had a most delightful lesson, and left the building.

A short time afterwards he met these directors when one remarked: "What did you do to the children when you were in the primary school the other day? We had a charming lesson." Is it necessary for me to tell you what he did? Not at all. It was evident what music had done. The children saw more clearly the tiny roots, the delicately shaped leaf, the faintly expanding buds; went through their gymnastics more rhythmically and in better time; their lines were straighter and curves more accurate in drawing, because the perceptive faculties had been stimulated by music, and only fifteen minutes had been taught—shall I say music alone? No, no; the music lesson was plainly visible in every lesson taught in the building that afternoon.

Again: I attended a masters' club dinner not long ago. The studies of geometry and physics had been introduced into their schools, and were the subjects about which we were expected to talk after dinner. As I sat there listening to their pros and cons, I thought: "Now, gentlemen, you may think you have a subject with which my special hobby has no connection." I was called upon to speak, and said: "I believe, gentlemen, that geometry and physics are both connected with music. Geometry—the staff, lines, spaces, bars, double-bars, stems and flags of notes, all kinds of angles. Physics—sound, wave upon wave, now a crest, now a trough:"

Thick rushing like an ocean vast
Of bisons, the fair prairie shaking,
The notes rush heavily and fast
As surfs on-plunging, while the last
Draws seaward from its foamy breaking.

Do you ever think of the mental process connected with reading a piece of music at sight? Think of the rapidity with which the mind must work. The note, its sound, time, accent, words, expression, movement, etc.; tell me, can mathematics, with all its boasted glory, claim superiority over music?

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We cannot divorce music from mental process, and yet there are those abroad in our land who seem to think we can. They say anybody can sing in his own way, without giving thought to it, while reading, writing and arithmetic require serious, careful attention. I have in mind a representative to the legislature, who, when I asked his opinion on this subject, said: "The 'three R's' are good enough for me, and I have represented my district in the legislature for three years now, and I did not have to learn music, either. Why not let well enough alone? I cannot see any benefit to be derived from it." I told him the story of the man who, after giving twenty-five dollars towards buying a town hearse, complained because, personally, he had never received one cent's worth of benefit from it.

I believe music enters into and does more for other subjects which are being taught in our schools than we are aware. It not only prepares the way for other studies, but, as I have shown, stimulates the mind to greater efforts, and does for the child what no other study can do. It reaches that something within him that all the activities of the mind and muscle, through mathematics or any other study, could not touch, be they trained upon superior scientific principles universally accepted as the best methods of instruction or by the best gymnasium tactics that ever existed. It is in everybody to do good, and if we can reach the abode of that faculty, and bring to light the best that is in man, it is like the blackened pebble, which, having been polished by the same elements of which it is composed, becomes the brilliant gem visible alike in light and darkness.

"The snowflake," says Professor Tyndall, "leads back to the sun;" so intimately related are all the subjects we teach.

I will only mention music as a disciplinary agent, for I hope everybody here has seen its practical working in that particular. Singing is also a physical exercise of wonderful power, relieving the more serious work of the school-room. "Down, down beyond the far-reaching influences of the schools," says Mr. Tomlins of Chicago, "deeper than what he does or thinks, at the very heart and soul of the boy, are latent tendencies for good and for evil of which even he himself is ignorant. This music alone will reach. Music, the voice of love, heaven-born, God-given! It searches out the flower-gems of the soul, awakening them to response; stimulating them to largeness of growth that leaves no place for weeds."

And now that I have spoken of music as co-related to other studies, let us consider it as a distinct branch of education.

We can force a child to recite tables, and exercise him in reading and writing, but we cannot force him to sing. He may growl for fear of punishment, but won't sing; he must be led. It is in this respect—use of the voice—that the study of music is totally different from the study of other branches.

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The human voice! What an instrument! The greatest, and yet the most fragile. All others if injured can be repaired. Can we not recall cases where a beautiful voice has been ruined, and years spent in trying to restore it, but without success?

How much depends upon the human voice. We cannot possibly estimate the value of its quality in encouraging, stimulating, sympathizing, warning, entreating, praising; everything depends upon the quality of tone. How often misunderstandings arise simply on account of the tone of voice. How much real pain can be caused by it. I tell you there is more stubbornness caused in our schools because of the improper use of the voice than in any other way. And yet, by its proper use, the over-wrought are relaxed, while the depressed are lifted up; to each equilibrium is restored; and, in the general response, fraternity is developed.

It is said we waste time in singing. A great German writer said: "The secret of success in education is to waste time wisely." Happy is he who knows how to do this. Count the minutes—aye, the hours—which have been wasted by miserly withholding time from the study of music in every school curriculum.

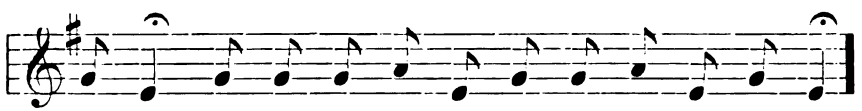
Horace Mann said: "When your children are restless, uneasy and tired, do not scold them; sing to them." And I add, have them sing to you. To scold, would be to use the voice to the worst advantage and be a loss of time. To sing would be a blessing in disguise, and a gain of time.

How careful we should be in the use of our speaking voice as well as in singing. Remember, a gentle voice is a power greater than the forces of nations.

When we read and recite tables in mathematics, little, if any, attention is given to the use of the voice. Class recitations are usually left to the caprices of the children, in so far as the voice is concerned. In this connection, a director of music in one of our large cities was telling me that, passing a school building one day, he heard a class reciting in a sing-song style. He stopped and listened. They were spelling; the teacher gave out the word "Thunder," and their way of spelling was so unique he wrote it out. This is the way they spelled:

Teacher: "Thunder."

Children:



Thunder; T H U N Thun- D E R der, Thunder.

This, in the key of E minor, as you perceive, will, no doubt, recall to your minds the hymn-readers of long ago.

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It is not generally expected, however, that we can give much, if any, time to the cultivation of voices as we come in contact with them in the public schools; however much we try, we cannot do as we would like. Only a word of warning here, and a little admonition there. If we could always have musical experts in all of our regular class-room teachers we could do much better work in this particular; but we could hardly expect much of them, either, even though they were musicians, the time for music is so limited.

This matter of the use of the voice, too, is of great importance in reading. How much better readers we have in those who sing, and how much depends on the tone; yet the difference between reading and singing must be kept in mind constantly. Professor Bell said: "Where speech ends, song begins." You may remember Cæsar's criticism, after listening to a class read: "If you are singing," said he, "you sing poorly. If you are reading, why, do not sing." What would he have said to the class in spelling of which I have told you.

Realizing, as I hope we all do, the value of the study of music in our public schools, its co-relation to the other branches taught; and seeing the advantages to be derived from the proper use of the voice in recitations, conversation and general teaching, let us consider the time devoted to its teaching in some of our larger cities, and see whether or not this important branch of education is neglected, or if as much time is given to it as its importance demands.

I will begin with Cambridge, Mass., my own city. In the primary schools, ten minutes each session is devoted to music. In the grammar schools, fifty minutes a week. In the high schools, forty-five minutes a week. In the primary and grammar schools the director's time is not considered, and the regular class-room teachers supplement his work by devoting the regular time for music to practice. In the high schools this is not so, and no time is devoted to music-teaching outside of the forty-five minutes during which the director is present, once a week. We have a carefully-planned course of study, which includes as much as it is possible to teach in the time allowed to music, but the scope of the work seems comparatively insignificant.

In Boston, sixty minutes a week is devoted to music, and the director's time is taken out of that, he usually giving fifteen to thirty minutes to the work, according to grade, when he is present. In the high schools they give no time to music outside of that allowed the director. In Springfield, Worcester, Salem, Lynn, Chelsea, and other large cities in Massachusetts, the rule is practically the same. If there is any difference, less time is devoted to music than already named. In Providence and Newport, R. I., New Haven, Hartford, Bridgeport, Danbury, and other large cities in Connecticut, the same

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rule holds. In New York City "ten minutes each day" is the rule in all primary and grammar schools.

I might go on and enumerate cities throughout the country, and, where music is taught at all, the rule seems to be, on an average, not over sixty minutes a week, and, in nearly every instance, the director's time is taken from that.

America is setting out upon a most stupendous scale to educate her heterogeneous population gratuitously; everybody has an equal chance.

England does not offer to all, free, the same advantages as does the United States, but her belief in the importance of music in the school we know she emphasizes; and, while her schedule is not systematic —that is, she does not stipulate just how much time shall be devoted to any particular study—yet every grade has a standard, and every teacher knows what that standard is, and is examined semi-annually in music, as well as in everything else. Indeed, her continuance as a teacher depends upon this. After reaching the required standard in all branches, she may devote as much time to any one as she chooses. I am told, that, in a large majority of cases, this extra time is devoted to music.

Greece has planned for free education to all, even through the university, though her basis seems questionable and egotistical.

France has yet a small fee for education, and Germany—how we strive to imitate her in many educational directions! I sometimes think in everything but music; and yet, in each of these named, more than twice the time is devoted to this study that is given to it in the United States.

Switzerland and Austria, too—but I would that we might adopt their reasoning in regard to music in our public schools. Then we would devote two hours a week to our music, where we now give less than one hour; and in our normal schools—as in the case of each of the above-named nations—we would devote six hours a week to the study and teaching of music.

In Paris, they give two hours a week to the study of music in school, with "occasional singing every day."

In comparison with these facts it is hardly worth while to think we devote any time to music study in our schools. And now, on the eve of our launching out on such a stupendous scale of education, with all the splendid advantages of our own great country, let us think twice before we assign the teaching of the divine art to any inferior position.

Somebody has said that the true American is yet to be made; that, as each one comes to our shores, and looks into the great camera of our world, the plate is moved and moved and moved, as each takes

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his look, so that, out of many, is formed one perfect face, and that face is to be the typical American.

We must also bring them to believe that our flag is the best flag; that our form of government is the best; our public school system is the best. But how can we do this if the subject I have been trying to have you regard as extremely important, and which they, too, have learned so to regard, is neglected; and by withholding from it necessary time for teaching, the good intended is lost. I reiterate, there is a spirit of good in everyone, and as we try to make all this constant influx to our country homogeneous with our people, this spirit of good must be cultivated as well.

By what better way or by what better means can this spirit of good be reached than by devoting time liberally in our schools to teaching the greatest and most ennobling art, by which we make better men and women, and by which our great and free country is improved? Are we not doing a work which, though we are debarred by lack of time from giving to it the attention it demands, yet will, if time is allowed us, eventually be a potent element in making our nation—which indeed, under God, our ancestors intended it should be—the greatest and best nation of the universe?

Charles Lamb wrote: "I am sentimentally disposed to harmony, but organically incapable of a tune;" but for him to say that his heart never melted at the "concord of sweet sound," would be self-libel.

It matters not to me what is said about an "ear for music." There never was an ear so heavy but that the heart could be affected in some measure by the wonderful charm of sweet sounds.

We are constantly looking for improvements in all educational work. We search and compare, and quote this and that nation as having superior educational advantages. We say we believe in this, and not in that, way of doing things; and yet, with all this straining for the best, we do not act as though we really believed music—God's own provision for ennobling and elevating mankind—was of anything more than of minor importance. When we wish some material to help in teaching music, we approach the committee in charge cautiously, and with fear and trembling—our very hesitancy the best evidence that we believe music second, or third, to anything else. Here is a chance for improvement. Let us identify ourselves more closely with our noble profession, and boldly defend it.

He who would be a great teacher of any subject must keep himself in the way of far-reaching investigation, and whatever subject he may choose he should be wise enough to see in its methods opportunity for reform, and so give it to the world that they may reject all humbug. We do not any of us mean to be failures, but we can

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be easily, and that, too, by underrating our profession through the laxity with which we hold our opinions upon the subject.

Therefore, hold high to the public mind the standard, by giving to it a special sanction ourselves, using our peculiar weapon for the greatest good to the greatest number; this will discourage quackery, and the public will soon see that we builded better than they knew.

This change will become contagious, until it shall reach from north to south, from east to west over this broad land of ours, and what now suffers from the want of time for proper development, will, by the rounded-out measure of its superiority, bring all enemies to its feet.

DISCUSSION.

MR E. W. NEWTON, New York, opened the discussion. It should be remembered that the condition of the pupil with reference to music is not the same as to other branches. Supervision of music ought to be in the hands of well-rounded scholars. Music should be taught as a regular branch. Develop ability to teach; then teach music. Educate public sentiment, and recognition will come. The speaker advocated legislation, if other means did not reach the desired result.

MR. CONGDON, St. Paul, Minn., urged the teachers to be persistent in their efforts to promulgate the study of music as an essential part of the daily work of the school-room.

MR YOUNG, Supervisor of Music, Salt Lake City, stated that music in his city received due recognition, and that it was put upon the same plane with the other branches of the curriculum.

MR BILL, suggested the adoption of some resolution to go before the authorities of the Association.

MR. N. COE STEWART. Cleveland, Ohio, closed the discussion with some helpful remarks, concerning what might be done towards the recognition of the Department of Music, if the right means were adopted to that end.

PUPILS' DEFECTIVE HEARING.

BY EPHRAIM CUTTER, M. D., NEW YORK CITY.

Since four-fifths of the instruction of primary pupils is oral, their hearing is important. In a late report to the Paris Society of Professional Hygiene and Public Medicine, Dr. Gelle insists that it is not without surprise that one ascertains the part which defective hearing plays in the production of faults in school work; that pupils with defective hearing show inferiority, not in play nor at meals, but

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in the class; that an oral pupil should hear what is said by the teacher in the usual place, and not vary according to the exigencies of hearing; that vowels are prolonged sounds, easy to hear; that consonants are short sounds, hard to hear; that the perception of associated consonants and vowels alone give intelligible sounds, and that if the consonants are not heard there is no understanding, but the speech becomes noise to the addressed. Hence, when a pupil is apparently inattentive, does not progress well, is dull, hard to comprehend, lagging and possibly obstinately stupid and indifferent, it is best to see if that pupil has defective hearing or sight before condemnation and discipline. It is sad enough to be deaf, but sadder to be punished because of deafness.

Our school system takes it for granted that primary pupils have good ears, and all pedagogic arrangements are made for such and not for defective ears.

PREVALENCE OF DEFECTIVE HEARING.

Sexton of New York reports 13.33 per cent of 570 school children and Worrell of Terre Haute, Ind., 25.49 per cent of 491 school children with defective hearing. (Letter of Prof. Oscar Chrissman.) Miss C. V. Dix, Brooklyn, N. Y., reports June 14, 1894, one case of defective hearing in her school. Col. H. B. Sprague says he has rarely met with a case of defective hearing among his pupils; this for America. For France, Dr. Gelle reports twenty to twenty-five per cent of school children, seven or eight years of age, whose hearing interferes with their school work. He also avers that deafness increases under the influence of children's diseases, particularly with girls at puberty; that from birth to maturity there is a slow increase of deafness, and that those who are partially deaf at birth become wholly so at the age of twenty. This is not surprising, when it is considered that the development of the ear in its bony shell is not completed until the age of five or six years, and the bony system does not get full development until twenty-five years of age. For Germany, Wail of Stuttgart reports thirty per cent of defective hearing in like school children.

A FEW WORDS ABOUT THE EAR.

1. The external ear includes the outside cartilaginous sound condenser shell or auricle, along with the auditory canal to the membrane of the drum or tympanum.

2. The middle ear includes the membrane of the tympanum, the hammer, the anvil and the stirrup bones, which communicate air vibrations to the internal ear; also the eustachian tubes communicating with the throat or upper pharynx, through which the middle ear fills with air. The tubes usually open at the upper and outer quadrant of the posterior nasal openings.

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3. The internal ear or labyrinth comprises the vestibule, the cochlea, the three semi-circular canals, otoliths or ear-stones and auditory hairs. The auditory nerve divides into two branches, of which one goes to the three semi-circular canals and the other divides into filaments distributed to the base of the cochlea. The vestibule contains fluid media and stony bodies. For a minute description see the monograms recently issued.* The wonderfully delicate mechanism of the ear should be impressed on teachers, in order to give them a realizing sense of the important organs they deal with.

RELATIONS OF THE THREE PARTS OF THE EAR TO PEDAGOGY.

1. *External Ear.*—The cause of partial deafness here is found to be, not so much in the auricle, whose deformity or absence would appear at once, as in the auditory canal. Anything which diminishes its caliber may diminish hearing by obstructing the sound waves of the air. The walls may be thickened by the results of colds and inflammations; by fibrinous deposits due to food improper in its physical nature, which food, fermenting in the alimentary canal, produces gases and partially paralyzes thus, not only near, but distant parts; by accumulations of wax; by bony growths; by the introduction of foreign bodies, as beans, slate pencils, insects, etc. In other words, the air must have free access to the exquisitely delicate mechanism of the middle ear in order to have good hearing. These needs are based on scientific grounds, but it is enough for our purpose to point out that an incapacity of conduction of the external ear interferes with pedagogy.

2. *Middle Ear.*—The membrane of the drum may be thickened or inflamed. It is a serious misfortune to lose the curious chain of mobile bones; still, though this loss may not be followed by complete deafness, it will be partial. But the more or less complete occlusion of the eustachian tubes is probably the most frequent cause of partial deafness and needs more explanation. Under the rhinoscope the openings of the eustachian tubes in the pharynx (of course, the middle ear ends are invisible) are seen as oval openings about one-third of an inch in diameter, the large part of the oval being upwards. The edges are rolled inwards like the auricles. Inside they are of an ash color.

I have seen the eustachian opening to be at the middle of and also at the lower quadrant of the nares; hence, I have thought that the rules for catheterizing the eustachian tubes which leave out rhinoscopy were liable to error, as they take it for granted they always open at the same point of the pharynx.

The eustachian tubes are cartilaginous at the outer end and bony at the other, analogous to the auditory canal and nares.

*"Physiology of the Senses" McKendrick J. Snodgrass, "University Extension Manuals."

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The office of these tubes is to convey air to the middle ear on the principle of the holes in military drums. On this view, so long as the eustachian tubes are open, other things being equal, the hearing will be good and no liability to rupture the membrane of the tympanum, as it is said the skin of a military drum would burst but for the holes provided. This doctrine is practically accepted.

Theoretically, the following professional differences are found:

(1) That the eustachian tubes are closed during swallowing.

(2) Open during swallowing.

(3) That they are open all the time.

3. *Internal Ear or Labyrinth.*—By its very protected location in the petrous part of the temporal bone, the stony hardness of which comes next to the teeth, it is to be inferred that injuries or diseases of the vestibule, semi-circular canals, auditory hairs or cochlea, result in complete deafness. A pupil with lesion of the internal ear would be a deaf mute so clearly as not to come in the range of oral teachers; for a parent or guardian who would send such would be most obtuse. It would not do to class a diseased internal ear as entirely incurable, but it would be safe to consider them practically so. Octology has made great advances, but it does not handle the internal ear successfully. It is not to be wondered at that a most wonderful instrument of precision, as the internal ear must be to detect vibrations of air 42,000 to the second, if diseased, is hard to heal. Indeed, when we think of its complexity, not yet wholly explained, this internal ear ranks as one of the most remarkable organs made by God, which deserves more care than it receives, and which, when injured, makes its subjects objects of divine compassion such as Jesus Christ manifested, when he made the deaf to hear, and spoke of it as one evidence of his divinity. If we would follow him, we must not neglect the deaf.

Resumé.—Partial deafness is caused (1) mostly by the occlusion of the eustachian tubes; (2) by the obstruction of the auditory canal; (3) more rarely by the diseases of the internal ear.

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS AS TO THE PARTIALLY DEAF.

First—Place the scholars near the teachers so as to be sure they hear by proximity.

Second—Place them with a good, bright scholar so that they can see what the hearers are doing. By looking on they can keep up with the rest. It is astonishing what keenness the partially deaf acquire when put on the right track.

Allowances should be made for their defect in making up the statement as to their scholarship.

Those who are incapable of management by these means should be sent to the special schools of training.

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Third—Tests need not be applied to all the pupils, but, before condemnation and punishment, to those who appear indifferent, uninterested, stupid, vacant, possibly obstinate and rebellious. Such should be tested by the blackboard method alone, since the deaf are apt to be suspicious and distrustful. The pupil should face the blackboard. The teacher should stand behind and dictate some familiar phrase or word from a distance half the usual one. If this is twenty-four feet distant, the station should be twelve feet distant. If the pupils do not comprehend, take a position of six feet or three feet. Such pupils will be sure to have defective hearing, and if retained should be placed close to the teacher. Ears often will vary. One ear may hear twice as far as the other according to the amount of trouble in each ear.

In all cases of defective hearing the parent or guardian should be notified to have the pupil examined by an aurist, who should relieve the difficulty or certify to it, as is done with vaccination.

Fourth—The teacher may test the amount of deafness, and, in addition to the blackboard method, add the watch or lock method. A watch is ever an attractive object to a child. The teacher could show a watch to the child and touch it to his own ear. It is supposed that the teachers have ascertained the distance this watch or clock, run with a spring, can be heard to tick from their own ears. This will be a gauge unless they are themselves hard of hearing. After touching the watch or clock to the child's ear, it can then be withdrawn slowly to the vanishing point. Comparing this distance with that previously obtained on the teachers or on sound-eared children, an estimate will be found which will be satisfactory to the aural expert. Both ears should be tested.

Fifth—If it is supposed that there is wax or some foreign body in the auditory canal, put the pupil so that the sunlight (best when its rays are horizontal) falls directly on to the ear shell; the obstructing bodies if present will be generally manifest, as their color differs from the walls of the canal, which also may be straightened by elevating the top of the auricle with the left thumb and fore-finger. The lobe directly in front of the canal opening may be pulled forward by the right thumb or better with the loop of a hairpin bent towards the pin at an angle of forty-five degrees.

This device called "Cutter's ear speculum" has been found preferable to the cylindrical ear specula, as these take up room in a space of small caliber. Should wax be found, soak it over night with some bland oil and syringe with lukewarm water the next day. Same procedure for foreign bodies and insects. Oil will kill insects in the ear. Should the obstruction not come away with syringing in a half pint of water, soak again for a new trial the next day. Care must be taken not to injure the ear by rough usage.

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Fifth—If there is perforation of the membrane of the drum suspected, let the child hold the breath, close the nostrils and exhale. If the eustachian tubes are pervious the air will escape with a whistle through the puncture. This process, also, will test the closeness of eustachian tubes and make a crackling noise by the outward pressure of the air against the sound membrane of the drum. A proper examination of the middle ear includes rhinoscopy, which is difficult to make and too much neglected. Besides thickening of the eustachian opening, there may be obliteration by a granular or roughened condition of the post-nasal space, glandular overgrowths, tumors, catarrhal congestions, infiltration, denudation and wasting of the mucous tissues, to name no more; but these all are out of the teacher's reach save by diet.

Sixth—Believing in the idea that deafness comes from improper feeding, I feel it a duty to suggest to teachers that they could do more for partial deafness by diet than in any other way. I am sure from experience that a diet of two-thirds animal food to one-third of food by bulk from the vegetable kingdom gives healthy children, and if their ears are diseased during suckling that they will recover best on this diet.

The excess of starch and sugar in the conventional diet long continued produces gases in the alimentary canal which partially paralyze, not only the parts near, but also those that are remote, the throat and ear for example. This defective diet is usually the cause of colds, catarrhs, thickening of fibrous and glandular tissues, and excessive secretions from the air passages. In other words, we take cold, not so much from drafts of air, as from bad feeding—as is shown by those on the diet suggested not taking colds so often when exposed to drafts. Teachers might inform those interested, that palatable food is not always nutritious; that candy and the carbo-hydrates do not have elements enough to make good tissues, save the connective fibrous tissues; that in excess, the carbo-hydrates cause the fibrous or glue tissues to increase, and thus cause the disastrous thickenings which in time produce deafness; that common white flour is a food not to be depended on as sole diet, because the normal proportion between the starch and mineral elements is too much reduced in order to make bread pleasant to the eye; that entire wheat flour, whole wheat, cracked or rolled, form better foods than common flour, and when it is sixty cents and less a bushel wheat is the cheapest vegetable food; that wheat, milk and meat are healthy diet for partially deaf children; that Boston brown bread is good; that the best foods for human beings are beef, mutton, game, fish for animal food, and wheat, rye, rice, hominy, potatoes, sago, with lemons, salt, pepper, mustard and fruits as relishes; that plenty of good water and air are essential, and that coffee and tea should be sparingly used for children.

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SOME HELPFUL THINGS CONCERNING MUSIC IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

BY N. COE STEWART, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

[AN ABSTRACT.]

The topic confines the discussion of the hour to no particular line nor branch in music study. It does specify "helpful things," and "things most helpful" are clearly implied when the present condition of music study throughout the country, the importance of this branch in the education of children and young people, and the far-reaching influence of this national gathering are considered.

The legislators who make school laws; the boards of education, who, acting under law, exercise their prerogatives; the school superintendents and other executive officials who would do the best things, and to whom, after all, so much discretion is conceded; the teacher who is shut up day after day the year through with her forty to sixty active boys and girls who must be directed rightly; the boys and girls, upon the character of whose school training depends very largely their success, true happiness and real usefulness in life; all these need help. The strongest ones in these several classes realize most that they need help. With this sense of need resting upon us; with the belief that "light is let in upon us" when efforts like this to understand are honestly made, we enter upon the discussion.

Without further elaboration you will agree, that, before we can profit most from the discussion of any feature of music in the public schools, we must come to some similar ideals. Then the terms used will convey to all a like meaning.

Have you in mind, as an ideal, a family in which every member sings; whose solo and part singing of songs have meaning, sense and heart in them? Have you in your mind as an ideal a neighborhood gathering, and a church in which everybody joins heartily in the worshipful and religious musical service? Do you have in mind, when singing in school is mentioned, a school in which each pupil, with earnest countenance and hearty will, joins in the song as though he loved it, and was only heartily expressing his own sentiments? Moreover, when "understanding music" and "singing new music at sight" are mentioned, do you think of all children and people of fifteen years and over who have had thorough public school training as being able to sing as readily at sight a melody or a part in a song as they would read a story in the newspaper? Do you think of them as being able to write any music that comes into their minds, or that they hear as readily as they could write a letter or

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something dictated? Do you think of young people discussing as intelligently the merits of a piece of music; giving, in their estimation, the strong and the weak points, the beauty and consistency of the several parts and of a whole, as readily as they would discuss the president's proclamation, an account of an excursion, or the latest novel? Do you think of this music of which we are speaking as being the work of the best composers, and of an educational standard comparable with the best literature of the day? Do you think of these people as using their voices correctly, and as producing thoroughly musical tones, and of having a fluency and a spirit in their singing to which it is delightful to listen? Do you reflect that the training which will produce all this gives health to the entire body, quickens the mental faculties as nothing else will, and gives mental development in every way as will the mastery of any other science? Do you think of the proper study of songs as developing systematically patriotism and all noble virtues as nothing else will?

Now, it may seem to you that these are ideals which it is not possible to attain in real life. But there is not one ray of artificial coloring about them. There are glimpses here and there all over the country, which show, that, under conditions which it is quite possible to obtain, such ideals can certainly be realized. While proper music study cannot do everything necessary to inculcate purity, good morals and a generous education, yet it can be proven that no other agency is as potent in these directions; and there is none other which aids all other studies in school so much, conduces more to the enjoyment and good government of the school, and is so helpful in all the occupations, employments, social organizations and other conditions where right sentiments and right emotions are concerned. Hence, I say, study to have higher ideals of the functions of music than you have at present; believe that "now we see through a glass darkly," and that there is a much higher plane which can and must be reached, and which it is the bounden duty of every educator to strive to attain.

To bring the matter directly home, let us suppose a teacher, at the beginning of the year, in school with her class of forty or more children, which she is to pilot through the year, and with them to live the greater part of each day. If the class is of the first year grade they are to make a beginning; to establish the right use of their voices; to sing their little songs correctly and with right expression and spirit; to obtain correct notions of the first thing, in tone, pitch, in pitch-reading, in time and tone-length reading and in putting all the above things into one general thought and act called sight-singing.

If it is a grade above the first, it must be seen to that the fundamental things have been understood rightly, and proper ways of

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thinking, of study and of practice have been established. If there is fault in any of these things, it must be corrected, and the children put upon the correct way. Then the specific work of the grade, whatever it is, must be taken up and prosecuted, until the close of the year finds the pupils able to master more difficult music, both in sight-singing, writing, song singing, and with a larger repertoire of songs, or pieces which have been studied.

Now, in accord with the first part of this paper, I desire to emphasize the points: (1) That the parents have a right to expect that the child can do this work alone if he is supposed to be doing it in school; (2) that every child can do it, if he has been well taught, and has done his part of the work rightly; (3) that this is the ideal which each teacher should have of the outcome of her work, and to which she must rise, and to the accomplishment of which she must make herself capable before she can be ranked as a first class teacher. I may add by way of parenthesis that singing alone in school, each pupil thinking and acting independently when singing and practicing with the class, are just as easy things to accomplish as are the thinking and doing in anything else, if the practice is begun and continued in the right manner.

I repeat, this is a possible and not an imaginary ideal for every well taught school, and one to which our American schools must and will come.

Permit me to mark out certain lines, which, if apprehended and faithfully followed, will lead certainly to the desired end.

First, you must have in mind, in each general division of your subject, as sight-singing, voice-training and study of musical pieces, a correct ideal of what the outcome is to be.

Second, these several things are to be analyzed until the individual things which compose each are apparent. Then teach these individual things objectively, whether they are things for the ear or the eye, until, with proper attention and effort, the pupil grasps the thought, and, by right thinking, makes it his own. Then, with what the pupil is to become able to do clearly defined in your own mind, and, as far as may be, in his, he should set about trying to do it.

You, realizing that his mastery can only result or be built up by continual and systematic trying, keep him, cheerfully and hopefully, at his practice day after day. The ability to do a given thing can be built up in no other way. After attaining considerable ability in one branch of the subject, take up another branch, and adhere to that until a like proficiency is obtained. Then combine the two. Then take up another. Then combine; and so on. Now, it is the proper appreciation, classification, analysis, correct teaching and persistent practice, day after day, with all possible cheerfulness and

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right incentives thrown in that are to enable you to attain the end desired.

If you do not understand this subject, and cannot do these things yourself, set about it, and by following the same line of study and practice as above described, you will certainly succeed.

Great care should be taken in selecting a teacher and methods. For the way must be correctly pointed out.

There are a good many things that touch this subject so closely that a few must be mentioned: (1) The regular school teacher is the one who must become prepared, if she is not, and must teach the music if it is done best. (2) "A Treatise on Teaching Music," or "A Set of Music Books in Course," are not sufficient, even if they are Mr. Stewart's. This requires competent and trained music supervisors to instruct and to train the teachers and to direct them in their work; at least, until they are qualified to do it alone. (3) This makes it imperative, that there shall be schools in which these supervisors can become qualified, musically and otherwise, for this important work. Finally, it is obvious that educational, musical and other journals, as well as teachers generally, shall continually agitate the matter, until a desirable condition of things shall exist.

DISCUSSION.

MR. C. R. BILL, Salem, Mass., put special emphasis on the fact that music is no longer taught as it was years ago, but is conducted, in the main, by the regular teacher under intelligent supervision. The whole question of teaching music must be considered from an educational point of view.

MR. TWITCHELL, Paterson, N. J., held, that, though the highest point had not yet been reached, the time was coming when children shall be able to read music as readily as they read an ordinary reading exercise.

MR. CHAPMAN discussed the methods employed in the schools of Cambridgeport, Mass. Reviewed the requirements of the regular teacher—the manner of presenting the study of music through teachers' classes—detailed the essential features of the entire work.

MISS IRWIN, Chicago, asked Mr. Chapman what he did with boys who would not sing. Mr. Chapman replied that such boys were not allowed in his school.

MR. FORSMAN, Chicago, took the ground that teachers do not get all the help they need; urged the bringing of the child's mind into contact with what the child sees.

MR. GANTVOORT gave his experience with the regular teachers. Persistent demand will eventually bring the desired results.

MR. BURNS, Canton, Ohio, asked what should be done with boys who say they cannot sing.

MR. BILL replied, that much depended upon the special teachers; suggested the employment of tact.

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DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS EDUCATION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 1894, 3 P. M.

The sixteenth annual meeting of the Business Educators' Association, the second as a department of the National Association, was called to order by President R. E. Gallagher of Hamilton, Ont., at 3 P. M.

A motion of W. E. McCord of New York, that a committee of three be appointed to revise the Constitution of the Association, to adapt it to the new Department of Business Education of the National Educational Association, seconded by Frank Goodman, was passed.

Frank Goodman, Nashville, Tenn., offered the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the business educators here assembled heartily approve the merging of the Business Educator's Association of America into the National Educational Association.

J. M. Mehan, Chairman of the Executive Committee, reported the plan of the meeting as published.

Treasurer McCord reported as follows:

RECEIPTS.

Cash on hand at last report	$82.93
Membership Dues for 1893	310.00
	$392.93

DISBURSEMENTS.

For stenographer's report	$87.50
For expenses of Executive Committee	61.40
For printing report of 1893	144.77
For postage, express, etc	4.35
For printing membership cards	2.50
Balance on hand	92.41
	$392.93

The President read his address.

S. S. Packard moved that the President's address be received and referred to a committee for future use.

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S. S. Packard read a paper on "The Religion of Morals as Applicable to Business," which was discussed by various members.

A motion to omit discussions during the remainder of the afternoon was carried.

Col. George Soule read a paper on "Higher Accounting."

W. C. Isbell, Terre Haute, read a paper on "Learning a Thing Through the Doing of It."

W. J. Amos, Stamford, Conn., read a paper on "An Ideal Business College."

Mrs. Sara A. Spencer, Washington, D. C., read a paper on "Symmetrical Training in Business Colleges."

The President appointed as a Committee on Revision of the Constitution, S. S. Packard, H. T. Loomis, A. S. Osborn, W. E. McCord and Frank Goodman; as an Auditing Committee, Col. George Soule and E. E. Childs.

A Committee on Introductions was appointed, consisting of A. S. Osborn and Mrs. E. E. Childs.

SECOND SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 12, 1894, 2 P. M.

The Committee on Revision of the Constitution reported as follows:

CONSTITUTION OF THE BUSINESS EDUCATORS' ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA.

Adopted at Its Organization in New York City, 1878. Amended in Chicago, July 1880, in Milwaukee, July 20, 1887, and in Cleveland, 1889. Revised at Asbury Park, July 12, 1894.

PREAMBLE.

Forasmuch as there are a large number of business colleges and commercial departments in the United States and Canada, and as there seems to be a want of clearness in the public mind as to the mission of these schools and the place they occupy in the educational field, it is agreed by the proprietors, principals and teachers of commercial schools to organize an association to be known as the "Business Educators' Association of America," the object of which shall be to promote fellowship and fraternity among the teachers, to draw together in social feeling and intercourse the employer and employed (thus giving the employer a personal acquaintance with those adapted to help him in his work, and to the employed a personal knowledge of those likely to need his services), to canvass and discuss methods of teaching and courses of study, and generally to promote the cause and elevate the standard of business education.

Anyone engaged in teaching, or qualified to teach any branch of business college education, who is a member of the National Educational Association, is thereby a member of the department.

OFFICERS.

The officers of the Association shall be a President, three Vice Presidents, Treasurer and Secretary, and an Executive Committee of three, to be elected annually and to serve until their successors shall be appointed.

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DUTIES OF OFFICERS.

The duties of President, Vice President, Secretary and Treasurer shall be such as are ordinarily performed by such officers. The Executive Committee shall have charge of the business matters of the Association, such as the auditing of all bills, the revision of Proceedings for publication, the calling of special meetings, the preparation of a program of exercises for all meetings, and generally to perform any duty not otherwise provided for by these articles of Association.

MEETINGS.

Meetings shall be held annually, during the vacation period, at such time and place as the Executive Committee shall designate.

ORDER OF BUSINESS, ETC.

In all other matters the Association shall be governed by the rules laid down in Roberts' "Rules of Order."

AMENDMENTS.

Any of these articles may be amended by a vote of three-fourths of the members present at any meeting.

The report was adopted.

The Auditing Committee reported:

July 12, 1894.

Officers and Members of Business Educator's Association of America:

Your Committee on Finance respectfully report as follows:

1. That they have examined the books and vouchers of the Secretary and Treasurer, and find the same correct.

2.

Cash on hand July 18, 1893	$82.93
Received since	310.00
Total	$392.93
Expenditures as per vouchers	$300.52
Balance July 12, 1894	$92.41

Respectfully submitted,

GEO. SOULE,
E. E. CHILDS,
Committee.

A committee consisting of Messrs. Packard, Saddler and Mehan reported the following resolution in memory of the late Dr. Ira Mayhew:

Whereas, It has pleased divine providence to remove from our midst our honored co-worker, Ira Mayhew, who was the first President of the Association, and who, for more than fifty years, has given his time and talents to the promotion of our common cause, first as a teacher of rare gifts, and next as an author of undoubted merit; and

Whereas It becomes us to put on record for permanent reference the virtues and the services of our eminent associates, both while they are living and after they have passed to other scenes of usefulness and activity; therefore

Resolved, That as the sense of this Association we recognize in our departed brother an eminent teacher, a genial companion and a true man.

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Resolved. That in his life and services we have an example of fidelity to principle, of intelligence, patriotism and efficiency that reflect honor upon our profession and American citizenship.

Resolved. That a copy of these resolutions be published in our Proceedings. and sent, properly engrossed, to the family of our deceased brother, and also a copy of the Proceedings of the National Educational Association, containing the resolutions.

S. S. PACKARD,
Chairman Committee.

Resolutions were adopted by a rising vote.

The Auditing Committee's report was adopted.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

President—J. M. Mehan, Des Moines, Iowa.

First Vice President—A. S. Osborn, Rochester, N. Y.

Second Vice President—Mrs. E. E. Childs, Springfield, Mass.

Third Vice President—J. E. King, Rochester, N. Y.

Secretary and Treasurer—W. E. McCord, New York City.

Chairman of Executive Committee—Frank Goodman, Nashville, Tenn.

The selection of the associate members was left to the Chairman.

THIRD SESSION.—FRIDAY, JULY 13, 1894.

J. M. Mehan, Chairman of the Executive Committee, moved that a vote of thanks be extended to Hon. A. J. Rider, Trenton, N. J., for his assistance in arranging for the meeting. The motion was unanimously adopted.

The Secretary read greetings from A. D. Welt, Dayton, Ohio; Enos Spencer and J. T. Fish of Louisville, Ky.; and H. E. V. Porter, Jamestown, N. Y.

The Secretary was authorized to solicit absent members to connect themselves through him with the National Educational Association.

Mr. Osborn offered a resolution that the Secretary be authorized and instructed to secure each year, by direct correspondence, a complete list of all commercial teachers in the United States and Canada, that announcements may be sent to them.

Howard Champlin, Cincinnati, Ohio, was elected Third Vice President of the Association in place of J. E. King, resigned.

A. S. Osborn read a paper on "The Disciplinary Value of a Business Course."

Mr. D. T. Ames, New York City, read a paper on "The Handwriting of the Future," which was discussed by Mrs. H. C. Spencer and Messrs. Lyon, Smithdeal and C. W. Robbins.

J. M. Mehan, Des Moines, Iowa, read a paper on "Business Training—Good and Bad."

J. P. Byrne, Erie, Pa., read a paper on "The Teaching of Writing," which was discussed by W. J. Amos, Mrs. Spencer, E. E. Childs, Frank Goodman, D. T. Ames, Howard Champlin.

On motion of Mr. Goodman, Colonel Soule and Mr. Ames were asked to escort the President-elect to the chair.

Mr. Mehan, being conducted to the chair, thanked the Association in a happy speech for the honor conferred upon him.

W. E. MCCORD,
Secretary.

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PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

BY R. E. GALLAGHER, HAMILTON, ONTARIO.

I extend you hearty greeting upon the occasion of our sixteenth annual convention. We meet this year under auspices different from those of any previous gathering of this organization. It is the first time we co-operate with the National Educational Association as the Department of Business Education, and from this union we are led to hope for higher usefulness and better results. The hearty manner in which we were received as a department of the National Educational Association is an evidence of the cordial recognition, by other departments of education, of the work in which we are engaged, and whatever prejudice or antagonism between representatives of other departments and the one in which we are engaged may have existed is to-day a thing of the past. The fact alone is a just cause for congratulation, and an encouraging sign for the future.

It is gratifying to notice that the business colleges of the country have, notwithstanding the general business depression that has prevailed, been fairly successful during the past year. We are encouraged to believe that the coming year will make a marked improvement in all departments of trade, and that commercial schools will share in the renewed prosperity. In many respects, this year has been one of substantial progress for business education, begun in an auspicious way by its timely and appropriate exhibit at the World's Fair; an undertaking which has done more than any previous single effort to establish business and commercial education upon the same high ground as that occupied by any other department of education. That the exhibit was a success appears to be the unanimous verdict. I question if the business college people of this country fully realize the enormous amount of work required and the anxiety experienced by those who thought it out, equipped it, and carried it through to a successful issue. Too much cannot be said in praise of the men who unflinchingly and unselfishly undertook the responsibilities of making it what it was. No more interesting, unique or effective exhibit was to be found in the great education court, and never before was the American business college so truly and so effectively represented to the world.

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The business college idea in education, which has taken so firm a hold upon the popular mind, is not a sudden growth, but is a natural development of the industrial conditions and requirements of our time. The fact that our ordinary schools and colleges did not prepare for practical business life gradually became apparent, and thus the business school grew up to supply the deficiency. It is a creation of the last half century, and its remarkable growth has been in keeping with that of the development of this country. Fifty years, however small an arc in the cycle of the ages it may seem when it becomes the history of the remote past, is yet sufficient to furnish some data, in any educational movement, by which the success or failure of the undertaking may with some degree of assurance be predicted. Business education has served her period of probation, and has earned and gained her right to full recognition as an indispensable department of education. These fifty years of the life of this country have been years of vigorous growth, boundless expansion, marvelous activity and great individual progress. They have witnessed changes in the conditions of business and the modes of production which amount to an economic revolution. Contemporaneous with these came the social and industrial changes which have affected education. The invention of machinery and the rapid advancement of trade and commerce caused the decline of the apprenticeship system. Business men found it impossible to receive boys into their offices and teach them the routine methods and principles of commerce, as had formerly been the custom. Ambitious young men who were anxious to enter commercial life were confronted with the demand for trained men, and in seeking places where such preparation could be made found none. Every avenue to business was closed to them. No system had been evolved to meet the requirements of the times; no curriculum embodied these special subjects peculiarly adapted to the special preparation of the young for business life. From the counting-room, the insurance office, the bank, the exchange, the merchant marine, from every city and town in the land, came the demand: "We want young men trained and skilled in accounting, and in the most approved methods of transacting business, who shall be our immediate help, and our future partners." To meet this demand is the peculiar mission of the business college; and its promoters are the pioneers and exponents to-day of practical training in this country. In fact, nowhere in the world is the special work of business training being done more practically and more directly than on this continent. That the business schools are the most popular private educational institutions of the day goes without saying; their total attendance is larger than that of the literary colleges and universities. They have, without endowment of any kind, without State or Church aid, without fear or favor,

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grown into public confidence and public recognition, and are meeting a demand as truly great and as essential as that of any other special field of educational work. The great law of supply and demand operates as truly and as surely in the province of the humanities and education as in the realm of economics. No element of education not really needed, and not really essential to the requirements of the fullest and best development of human achievement, could be permanently established in public opinion or arbitrarily forced to the front by enthusiasts and specialists. For fifty years the business colleges of this country could not deceive the public into believing that they were getting something, if, in reality, they were getting nothing.

In order to emphasize the work and the usefulness of the business college, it is not necessary to belittle or depreciate the schools of broader culture and wider scope—the colleges and universities—without which no country could attain to power and distinction among the nations of the earth. There is no warfare, not even competition, between the business colleges and those just named, but there should be a spirit of well adjusted co-operation. Each line of effort has its distinct sphere and uses, and together they compass the great work of education.

It may not be inappropriate for me, at this time and on this occasion, to give a short synopsis of the history of the Business Educators' Association. Dating back to the time of its organization in 1878, the first meeting was called in the City of New York, and at that meeting it was given the name of the "Business College Teacher's and Penman's Association." Its first president was the late Hon. Ira Mayhew of Detroit, who, within the last few months, has passed to his final reward, leaving the legacy of a noble character, the example of an unselfish career, the inspiration of a broad, generous, pure, Christian gentleman. The second meeting of this association was held in Cleveland, Ohio, with Mr. S. S. Packard of New York as president. The following year, 1880, no meeting was held. In 1881 the convention met in Chicago, Dr. Thomas May Pierce of Philadelphia presiding. At this meeting the name of the association was changed to that of the "Business Educators' Association of America." The convention of 1882 was held in Cincinnati, Ohio, in the month of June, with Mr. R. C. Spencer of Milwaukee as presiding officer, at which meeting the Hon. A. D. Wilt of Dayton, Ohio, was elected president, and officiated at the meeting of the following year held in Washington, July, 1883. The meeting of 1884 was held at Rochester, N. Y., Mr. C. E. Cady of New York presiding. In 1885 the convention went to Jacksonville, Ill., the late H. C. Spencer of Washington being the president. The following year, 1886, the association held its meeting a second time in the City of New York, with the Hon. A. J.

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Rider of Trenton as president. At this meeting Mr. W. H. Sadler of Baltimore was unanimously chosen as president for the following year, and occupied the chair at the meeting of 1887, held in Milwaukee, Wis. In 1888 the convention met in Minneapolis, Minn., Mr. L. L. Williams of Rochester, N. Y., being the president. The following year, 1889, the association met for the second time in Cleveland, Ohio, with Mr. G. W. Brown of Jacksonville, Ill., as president. The two following years the convention was held at Chautauqua, N. Y., Mr. E. R. Felton of Cleveland, Ohio, presiding at the meeting of 1890, and Mr. L. A. Gray of Portland, Me., in 1891. In 1892 the convention met at Saratoga, N. Y.; the president, Mr. Enos Spencer of Louisville, Ky., being absent, the first vice-president, Mr. R. E. Gallagher of Hamilton, Ont., presided. As the result of action taken at this meeting the Business Educators' Association became a department of the National Educational Association. In 1893 the convention met for the second time in Chicago, with Col. George Soule of New Orleans, La., as president. In connection with and immediately following this meeting, a congress on business education, in conjunction with the World's Educational Congresses, was held, at which gathering Mr. S. S. Packard of New York presided. Thus, in the past sixteen years, we have held as many profitable and inspiring meetings, into which have entered a large degree of social enjoyment, and it is to be hoped that that element shall not be found wanting to the association in its new environments. While it is fitting that we should allude to these matters of the past, it is more fitting that we should now look forward to the future and perform our part so that this association shall go forward in its usefulness. Its mission has ever been to promote the higher purposes and achievements of the business college, through a free exchange of ideas and a comparison of methods and experiences in a deliberate, business-like way. There is education and inspiration in such a gathering of men and women, all engaged in the same profession, all pursuing the same high purpose, all filled with the same aspirations, and yet, all preserving and presenting those varieties of individual opinion and sentiment which are a safeguard against monotony, and which give to public utterances and social contact their great educative power. We owe much to the grand men and women who have been pioneers in our association work; to those who have organized and aided it financially, intellectually and otherwise. Who could have attended the meeting of any one year without being benefited by the many grand ideas obtained and the enthusiasm inspired? We should endeavor to perpetuate the association. The hopes of the future success and progress of the cause of business education depend upon it, and the honor and dignity of the profession is at stake. Business education would not occupy the position it does to-day if it were not for this

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association. While the older members may and will be relied upon, the younger commercial educators especially should not lose sight of these important facts. The heritage is ours; the foundations have been well and truly laid; let us continue the building. For our own sakes, for the sake of the colleges which we represent, for the sake of the communities in which we are located, and for the sake of the work which brought us here, let us perpetuate this organization. We need unity of effort to advance the best interests of our profession, so that it may achieve for us the best results both collectively and individually.

One of the most pleasing duties which I have to perform as the presiding officer of this association, is that of extending a hearty welcome to those of our co-laborers who may meet with us to-day, for the first time, and also to our fellow-workers in other departments of education, all of whom are cordially welcome to a seat in our councils.

I have to congratulate you upon the excellent program prepared for this occasion by our executive committee, and I bespeak for you an interesting and profitable session. We are here for the grand purpose of lifting still higher the standard of business education, and to thoughtfully and wisely consider how best to make our schools and colleges accomplish their difficult double duty as fitting and finishing schools, so that the great army of young men and women who attend them may be rightly prepared and thoroughly equipped for the duties of business life and good citizenship. I trust that your deliberations may result in wise and practical conclusions. Let there be the utmost freedom in the exchange of thought and conviction, together with an earnestness of purpose in discussion, and a warmth of friendliness and good feeling which will enable us to return to our respective fields of labor with broader views, clearer conceptions and increased enthusiasm. If these results shall have been reached it shall indeed be a happy conclusion to a most profitable gathering.

THE RELIGION OF MORALS AS APPLIED TO BUSINESS.

BY S. S. PACKARD, NEW YORK.

For more than fifty years I have listened with what patience and understanding I could command, to sermons and lectures and familiar talks on moral duties, until I have not the slightest doubt that honesty is best, as well as the "best policy;" that virtue is the chief adornment of man, as well as of woman; and that if the meek do not "inherit the earth," it is because somebody else pre-empts the claim.

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As a teacher, it has been my duty, as well as my pleasure, to enforce moral lessons by precept, and to see that they are carried out in daily conduct, as far as can be done with the machinery at hand. And during all this time I have seen charlatans in the pulpit, vile men on the bench, roués in congress, and confessed thieves in the highest municipal offices.

And I have seen these very men riding on the crest of popular favor, held up for the admiration and emulation of young men, and seemingly blessed of God in all their public acts. Even as I write these lines, on this 18th day of June, 1894, I read in a New York paper of this date a glowing account of "religious services" held in the Tombs yesterday (Sunday) for the self-gratification, comfort and glorification of a distinguished criminal, who awaits sentence for one of the gravest crimes. The account fills nearly a column of one of the leading dailies, and is impressive as showing the sympathy of a notable clergyman with the condition of Erastus Wiman, who was an inmate of the Tombs, and who was specially designated as the recipient of this service of comfort, in which he was extolled as a man of wonderful genius and as deserving of the community for the services he had rendered. The clergyman was accompanied by a choir, who, under the direction of the leader, gave expressions of sympathy in the hymns that were selected, and in which the distinguished criminal joined with a zest, having, as the report says, "a no mean baritone voice." The sermon itself, if it may be called a sermon, was simply laudatory of the criminal, likening him to Jesus Christ, who suffered persecution, and saying that even the judges who had found him guilty would some day stand before the bar of the Almighty. Among other things, telegrams were read from sympathizers in all parts of the country, one from Montreal saying: "Words cannot express the deep sympathy we feel for you and yours;" another from a broker in Wall street, saying: "Only a line to let you know you have my heartiest sympathy. I should infinitely rather be in your shoes than in those of Dun or Douglass."

Now, let it be remembered that this man, seemingly so happy and so greatly honored, had just been convicted, after a fair trial, in which he was defended by the best legal talent in the country and before a carefully chosen jury—some of whom were his personal friends—of the crime of deliberate forgery, which, in a moment of contrition, and for the purpose of obtaining mercy, he had humbly and fully confessed; and that all these facts were known, not only by the Rev. Mr. Johnson, who held the service of comfort in the Tombs, but by the eminent millionaires and brokers on both sides of the continent who flooded the distinguished and happy criminal with the sympathetic and congratulatory dispatches that I have read.

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Let it be remembered, also, that this much-to-be-envied gentleman, who may soon be wearing the unique costume provided by the State, is also a teacher of morals with us, and even while he was signing other people's names to his checks was in the habit of lecturing before the schools and colleges and publishing books for the guidance of young men who wish to succeed. Let it be remembered, too, that the reputable journals that published these glowing accounts are seized upon by the young men who have so long envied the distinguished career of this eminent promoter, and who have been taught to think it brave and plucky to give their sympathy and aid to the under dog—and see how easy it will be for them to underscore the broker's sentiment: "I should infinitely rather be in your shoes than in those of Dun or Douglass."

I have no desire to make a sensational use of this notorious case, and possibly might be disposed to look leniently upon this misuse of a bright man's opportunities, could I see any inclination on his part to recognize his undoubted crime as anything more than a pardonable indiscretion. Except in the servile letter of confession, which he wrote merely to avert the legal penalty of his crime, there has been no word of contrition or of self-condemnation for the crime itself. He even justifies the act as one way—not the best, perhaps,—of getting his share of the great prosperity which he has helped to create, and speaks of a possible new trial as a vindication of his honor.

And the same paper contains the continuation of the monotonous proceedings of the Lexow Committee, whose "surprises" no longer surprise, but who are riveting into the public conscience, day by day, the cumulative evidences of a vile and reeking city government, every department of which seems to vie with every other in shamelessness and debauchery.

I know, of course, that these exposures betoken, in some degree, an awakened conscience, and that they lead to the hope of retribution, which may, for a time at least, arrest the crying evils which they disclose; but I doubt very much if even the energy of Dr. Parkhurst and the Gerry Society, aided by the various committees of safety and vigilance, or the sensational diatribes from the pulpit—sometimes resorted to as a device to fill otherwise empty pews—will do much towards enforcing morals as a rule of life.

So long as churches uphold or condone shameless criminals because of their wealth or power, so long as the people themselves look lightly upon crime when it becomes familiar or they can share its emoluments, what hope is there that such exposures will work a cure or that the words of a professional moralist or teacher will be greatly heeded?

It is not so many months since the awakened susceptibilities of the Brooklyn public demanded the trial and punishment of the great-

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est political criminal of modern times, and it is a fact which can never be spoken of without a deep sense of shame, that, while the preliminaries of his trial were in progress, and after the fact of his guilt was well known, he was permitted to continue his services as superintendent of his Sunday-school, and was even promoted by his fellow-criminals to the presidency of the board of supervisors. He is now doing the State some service at Sing Sing, but so far as the public is aware, still holds his membership in the church.

I confess to you, my fellow teachers, that the more I look at the question of our responsibility for instruction in morals the more perplexed I am. And I am, by no means, a pessimist. In a general way, I believe that the world is growing better every day, rather than worse; nor have I less confidence in my friends as I grow older. The neighbors of my mature life seem possessed of as many and as strong virtues as were those of my boyhood days. I see men and women living happily together—in families and in neighborhoods, and I witness, almost every day, acts of altruism and devotion to the right that would not pale in the light of the Sermon on the Mount.

I can even see some hope in the political outlook; and have faint glimmerings of a far-off day when honest and incorruptible men will hold the high offices, and when it will not be necessary to apologize for having been a member of congress, a city alderman, or even a policeman. And I believe, too, that this better era will be brought about greatly by education, and that no man or woman who has to do with the shaping of the young mind can avoid his or her share of the responsibility and the labor.

The question does not come to us whether, as teachers, we have anything to do, but what can we best do to meet just expectations and satisfy our consciences?

Let us concede at the outset, that, if the world ever grows better, it will be because those who are coming into it and will manage it better understand their relations to it, and have greater courage to do the things which, in their judgment, should be done. It is not that one cannot discern the difference between right and wrong, not that there is any question as to abstract duty under given conditions, but whether the individual is able to so withstand adverse environments as to do the thing which he knows is right.

Perhaps I cannot better illustrate this point than to call attention to the present congress in its attitude on the revenue bill. There may be those who, on the final passage of the bill, will satisfy their constituents by their vote; but it is as well known now as it ever can be that the great majority of the final supporters of the bill will vote contrary to their convictions and to their sense of what the country requires. That is, from pressure, or policy, or weakness of one kind or another, they will yield their best judgment and do the thing that

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their consciences cannot commend. Of course, there may be certain mental reservations covering the act, which will enable some of these men to sleep of nights—such as choosing the least of two evils, or doing evil that good may come; but the devil has made such free and open use of these salves for lacerated consciences that they deceive nobody.

The average congressman desires either to represent or to hoodwink his constituents so that they will send him back, and it is often easy to discern, in his speeches and his votes, that "lively sense of favors yet to come" that takes away his manly independence, and makes him a hanger-on for revenue. Take another view: The senate of the United States is supposed to be so far removed from immediate contact with the people that its members are, in a measure, independent. It is known as the "deliberative" branch of congress; and its members are supposed to have a sort of reverence for each other, founded, as we have the right to infer upon a sense of inherent virtue. And this reverence, or mutual admiration, is carried so far that it is considered in bad form for one member to oppose another in any matter which may affect his personal interests, until the "courtesy of the senate" has grown to be a phrase of wide and portentous significance. To the ordinary mind, and if applied to ordinary men, it might better be expressed in the catch phrase, "You tickle me, and I'll tickle you," and under any circumstances it is only the sentiment of standing by one another, such as animates the trades unions and gives backbone to ruinous strikes. For instance, when was there ever a more palpable "strike" than in the case of the senate refusing to confirm the appointments of Hornblower and Peckham at the nod of Senator Hill? Here was an object lesson that even a child could understand. Senator Hill had a personal grievance against the president which he wished to settle in the most public manner, and, availing himself of this unwritten law, he had no trouble whatever in bringing into his private quarrel his distinguished associates.

When we know that these things exist in their fullest strength in our most dignified and exalted deliberative body, why should we expect our inexperienced boys and girls to be governed by higher motives? And so it is not strange that we are brought face to face in our schools with this "courtesy of the senate."

Not many days ago, I summoned into my presence six of my ordinarily good boys, who had entered into a conspiracy to have a half-holiday, and, if questioned about it, to lie out of it. Each one, in my presence and in the presence of all the others, deliberately denied what I knew was the fact; and even when I intimated that I knew, they all defended themselves under the senate rule; each one, with the greatest solemnity and emphasis, repeating what he knew

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to be a deliberate lie. Of course, they were, in time, brought to confess the truth, but even then sought to uphold their course under the plea of school-boy "honor." I studied this case very thoroughly, and although I openly commended the one boy whose confession was the break in the chain, I am not at all sure that I did not have a greater respect for those who held out longer, according to the senate rule of "courtesy." I gave the required lecture on "The Sin of Lying," but put special stress on the greater sin of agreeing to lie.

There may be people in the world who never tell a lie; but I should hardly know where to look for them. And this brings me to the query whether there are not degrees of turpitude in lying. From childhood we have heard of "fibs" and "white lies" as a sort of innocent recreation, and I'm sorry to say most of us have practiced them. There is scarcely a mother in the land who has not softened and sweetened the life of her darling by a helpful lie. Often, the "dear child" cannot stand it to be told the cold, hard truth, and so a warm, soft lie is given instead.

And yet, we want our boys and girls to be good and noble, and we tell them, above all things, to be truthful. In fact, if we cannot depend upon a boy's word, what chance have we in our efforts to shape his character?

What I am trying to get at is a reasonable view of this matter, with the purpose, if possible, to fix our duties and responsibilities as teachers.

And I think we must first remember that boys and girls are not easily humbugged. One of the best things ever said in my presence was said by a "Salvationist" girl, who was refuting the charge that the free methods of the Salvation Army necessarily induced laxity of morals. Said she: "How would it be possible for us to stand up before our people and preach purity of living if our lives were at variance therewith? The fact that we are so open in our methods, and free in our contact with each other, precludes the possibility of deception as to our lives. A person of dissolute habits and uncleanly living may possibly get into the army; but no such person could, by any means, stay there. No, the power of our organization and work depends upon consistency of living. We cannot preach one thing and practice another."

Now, it seems to me that here is the key to the whole situation. As the stream cannot rise higher than the fountain, so the teacher's words, to have effect, must emanate and give expression to the teacher's life. This is seen clearly in the character of the boys who come to us, with the expectation that we will make them over anew. The father very often informs us at the beginning that the boy has got ahead of him, and he wants him placed under stricter vigilance and be held to strict account. He volunteers the information that

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his son has no respect for him and no proper love for his home, and he is willing to pay any amount if we will only give him a good boy. The first question we should be likely to ask—if we asked any—would be why the boy didn't respect his father, and the answer, if truthfully given, would be that the father did not deserve his respect. There is nothing that a boy would more like to do than to respect his father, and nothing that he more surely will do, if he is given half a chance. A good thing is told of one of our popular actresses, who was taken to task by the manager for not treating him with proper respect. "But, Mr. ——," she said, "you make it so hard for me." And so it may truthfully be said of some fathers, that they make it very hard for their boys to respect them. Whether teachers are open to this charge, it is for us to say, and each for himself. But, be that as it may, I do not hesitate to lay down the rule that no teacher can enforce a moral lesson which he disregards in his own conduct. Take a simple example. I have a rule in my school against smoking. That is, no young man is permitted to smoke in the building or on the sidewalk contiguous thereto. Suppose a teacher who enforces that rule should say, "That applies only to the student," and should disregard it as applicable to himself? It is easy to see what difficulties he would encounter. Not only is it necessary that the teacher should observe the rule he enforces against the student, but, if he desires the best results, he will abstain from the habit altogether. And so of lessons of morality. He can enforce only such rules as he is known to observe himself. And he will make a great mistake if he imagines that he can live a double life without being caught at it. Perhaps there is no life that is not in some ways inconsistent, and we often deceive ourselves into believing what we wish was true, but is not.

So, I have only this to say concerning the duty of teachers in relation to the religion of morals. Attempt only so far in your preaching as you find yourself able to carry out in your practice.

AN IDEAL BUSINESS COLLEGE.

BY PRINCIPAL WM. J. AMOS, STAMFORD, CONN.

I deem it an honor to be able, this afternoon, to stand before an intelligent audience like this, consisting, as it does, of a portion of that great body which means so much to the educational growth of the youth of our country—the business educators of America. When one looks into the faces of the delegates from our sister on the North, the land of the orange grove and magnolia on the South, the Golden

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Gate in the West, and the rock-ribbed shores of New England on the East, and from all intervening territory, we are led to believe that the expression "practical education" means more than it did a decade ago. I am to speak to you, to-day, upon a subject that is dear to us all—"An Ideal Business College."

You will notice that my subject deals with possibilities more than probabilities, with expectation more than realization; and, some may think, with imagination more than reality.

A few years since the business college was only an idea, but to-day the institution is world-wide in its popularity and infinite in its possibilities. All over our nation, almost in every hamlet, certainly in every city, the business college has found its home. Thousands of trained men and women leave its doors every year, and embark upon the sea of active business life. The wonderful popularity of practical education is evinced by the fact, that, wherever there is a business college, be it good, bad or indifferent, there are, at all times, found students ready to attend. No other institution in the history of the educational movements of the world has ever started so propitiously, and is it any wonder?

Too many men are left to the severe teachings of experience. Day in and day out, we hear the cry: "Send us more men; more practical men; more earnest men; more trained men!" Friends, the opportunity is ours. Let us prepare to meet that call. It is our duty, as men, as citizens, as business educators, to meet that call. What are we doing?

Competition must grow sharper as population increases. More all-around men will be needed to manage our affairs. More men who can think, as well as do. More men who can send, because they know how to go. More men; fewer machines. Unless we follow the rapid strides of improvement, we will continue to work and work, and all the time wonder why our schools grow thin.

I have noticed with much pleasure, during the last two years, that most business colleges are making advancement towards a higher plane. Schools that were doing scarcely anything for their students have found that there remains but one of two things to do: either to improve their curriculum, or close their doors.

Men are thinking more than they did five years ago. It was once that a father would take his son to the proprietor of a business college and enroll the lad without looking into the school. Those times have changed. Men investigate more to-day than they used to. Every year this investigation is growing more and more, and for this one reason, if for no other, the modern business college must keep pace with the rapid strides of progression in all other directions. What comparison would there be between the little log schoolhouse,

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with the branches as taught therein forty years ago, and the present public school system? What competition could exist between two lines of steamships, if one were furnished with Fulton's model and another with Cramp Brothers'? What competition could exist between a lighting company who furnishes tallow candles to its patrons and one furnishing electric lights? Friends, may I not ask what competition could or can exist between a first-class, up-to-date, brainy school and the business college employing methods fifteen years or more old? There can simply be no competition, because one would have all the trade.

Let us, for a moment, examine the courses of study in a modern business college. There is the commercial course, including the study of account-keeping, business writing, commercial law, and a long list of other branches. There is the shorthand course, with its accompanying studies. There is, in a few schools only, the English course, and many other courses, varying according to the talents and ideas of the proprietor. Let us look at the commercial course. It would not do to think, at this day and age, of spending more than eight months pursuing such a course, and, by a great many, that would be considered a waste of time, and I am inclined to think that such would be the case in not a few instances.

Here comes a boy, we will say, twenty years of age. He has been in the public school since he was seven; gets tired of school and decides to prepare for the duties of a wage-earner and a bread-winner. He comes to your business college and his father comes with him. "Mr. Jones, I have decided to put my boy in your school. I want you to prepare him to earn his own living. You will find him poor in arithmetic; can't spell; can't write, and he knows nothing about grammar. Now, Mr. Jones, I would like you to get him ready for business inside of six months."

Do for that boy what has not been done for him in one hundred and thirty months! Do for that boy in six months what his best teachers had not been able to do for him in thirteen years! Friends, it cannot be done. I should say, then, that the very first radical change from our modern business college to the twentieth century ideal will be, more time in which to prepare young people for the duties and responsibilities of business and citizenship. Too many people are ready to think that shortness of time is compatible with thoroughness of work. Friends, too many are willing to say, "Our business course can be finished in three months," in order to secure the sons of those men who have no idea of the time required. If there are those here to-day who claim that any course in their college can be completed in three months, let me say, in the name of the business educators of America, put more in your course. Surely, you

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either need more in your curriculum, or you do not half teach what you have.

The time has come when schools that have been graduating students in three months must either lengthen the time or quit. Another thing the modern business college is doing: We are having too much to do with impractical theories. How many schools there are whose course consists of mere copy work. I am not the advocate of any publishing company, neither am I the denouncer of such, but I must say that the sooner we get rid of the false idea that a person, to learn book-keeping, must spend from two weeks to three months copying ideas from text-books, the sooner our business training schools will give the practical instruction that is actually claimed for them.

I would say, then, make the courses in your twentieth century business college more practical. I do not overdraw when I state that each year there are thousands of young people who go into business, graduates of some of our very best colleges, who fail miserably, because too much attention has been given to theory and not enough to practice.

I recognize that, as yet, I am on dangerous ground, when I claim that more than one-third of the time that is employed by the every-day student in our average business college is absolutely squandered in copying imaginary transactions from dry text-books. I believe in the correct use of a text-book, but when it comes to teaching science of any kind, book-keeping included, no man can claim that a student can learn as well by copy as he can by action. The twentieth century will require practical men; many more of them than are needed now, and, in order to meet that demand, the college of that time shall have to send out properly equipped graduates.

The ideal college will differ in another respect from the one of to-day. Where many schools employ incompetent teachers to-day, simply because they are cheap, the ideal school will not employ them because they are dear. It is a fact, and I am ashamed to say it, that more than twenty per cent of the teachers employed in our business colleges have never had any literary training outside of a common district school. This, of course, does not refer to the preparation for their specialty, which may have required from three months to one year. When we stop and consider the vast army of absolutely ignorant men and women who are employed in many of our schools, is it any wonder that the people, at times, claim that a business college course is of no account? I claim that a college that will employ a penman, for example, no matter how expert he may be, who stands before his class and slaughters the English language is not worthy of patronage.

The coming business college will employ men noted for their attainments—not in one direction alone, but "all-around" men—to fill

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its teachers' chairs. The time is near at hand when teachers who are worthy will draw larger salaries, and those who are not will slip out.

I am glad to see that a large number of our best schools are enlarging their curriculum. It is a strong indication of the school of the future. The business college always has been and always will be a school for the masses. Men and women who want to prepare for the battle of life will continue to fit themselves for life's duties in these useful and practical institutions, but as the years roll by, and things that are visionary now become realities, and the changes in our social and economical equipment are made, and our men and women are placed in different positions, there is not a shadow of a doubt but that, in order for them to successfully cope with the problems of the coming day, they must be fortified by an education which will enable them to grapple with the questions of their time. Therefore, if the business college hopes to hold a place in the front rank as a practical educator, it must change its methods and means of instruction to suit the demands of the times.

The ideal business college of the twentieth century will have a course of study differing very materially from that of the present. The time is almost here when the business education of a man will consist of a vast deal more than at present. It is business education that puts bread and butter in our people's mouths, no matter whether a man be working on the farm, in the mill or in the office. The business college of to-day simply has for its aim the preparation of young people as bread-winners in clerical positions. The ideal business college will prepare men and women as bread winners in any direction. Then, if this be its mission, will it not be necessary to enlarge the scope of instruction? If we, as citizens of the greatest Republic under the sun, hope in the face of foreign pauperism and domestic incompetency, to preserve this nation as a monument to the patriotism of our forefathers, will it not be absolutely necessary that the training of our youth shall require the most careful consideration?

As I have already asserted, the modern business college tends toward training for bread-winning in clerical work, but the coming college will train bread-winners in every line of human thought; and, if its mission be fulfilled, it will so train that bread may be won with the least possible loss to the employer and the greatest possible gain to the employe.

I cannot describe the exact curriculum, inasmuch as it is impossible to foresee the exact status of our social and national needs ten or twenty years hence. Needless to say, the coming college of business will impart sound instruction in mental and manual training, and will qualify men and women, not only to secure large, personal

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emolument, but it will also be the means of broadening their views. By its influence, men will become more congenial, more neighborly citizens—more loyal. As the public school system of our nation has been called the corner-stone of American liberty, so will the twentieth century business college be known as the capstone of freedom.

HAND-WRITING OF THE FUTURE.

BY D. T. AMES, EDITOR "PENMAN'S ART JOURNAL."

No one need be reminded that handwriting, in point of style and quality, is a matter of education, habit and environment. This is just as true of nations as of individuals, and the handwriting of the future will be just what the business and social conditions of the future demand. In these days, when labor-saving devices of stupendously revolutionary import have become so common as to almost cease to excite wonder, no one has a license to say how long our present industrial system and conditions will last—how long it will be before the urgent commercial need which called the typewriter and shorthand writer into being will invoke and materialize some still more potent agency to relieve the busy pen and clicking keys. But I apprehend it to be tolerably safe to say, that, so long as one shred of our present commercial and social fabrics survives, every person born into the world, who is destined to make the slightest stir in it or be of the slightest use to it, will find the pen probably the one most indispensable of all tools he will have to employ. If I properly interpret the subject assigned to me by your committee, it is not to speculate on what modifications of handwriting may or may not be required, contingent upon possible inventions and radical changes of method that we now have no hint of, but what kind of handwriting will be developed by conditions of the near future that are foreshadowed by our present remarkable rate of progress.

It is well on toward half a century since Father Spencer, of ever-blessed memory to all who have the slightest tincture of penmanship in their blood, began the work that so completely revolutionized the handwriting of America. I speak of Mr. Spencer in this connection because, while others had a share in the work and in the glory, his was undoubtedly the dominant mind; and it is probable that no other person who ever lived has influenced the handwriting of so many millions of people. It is not necessary to go minutely into the conditions antecedent to this writing revolution. Suffice it to say, that Mr. Spencer and his fellow reformers recognized that changed con-

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ditions made imperative radical changes in one of the most important business auxiliaries and instrumentalities. The pulse of business was everywhere being quickened by the birth of those gigantic inventions which have been the industrial glory of our times. The arteries of trade began to throb with the impulse of steam and electricity. Pens that were good enough to keep apace of the easy-going stage-coach of our grandfathers were completely distanced by those wonderful new contrivances of intercommunication. It became necessary to write better and to write faster, and Necessity is a mother that never becomes barren. In preparing the writing system which Mr. Spencer gave the world, he had the forethought to look deeply into the most advanced business conditions of his own day. The necessity for better methods of writing, to which I have referred, had existed for some time, and its best development at that period (probably at all periods) was to be found in the counting-rooms of the large commercial houses. We are told that the slant of Spencerian writing, fixed at fifty-two per cent and held there up to the present day—the slant that has been followed in nearly all our copy-books published since then and has been taught to millions—was based upon an examination of a large number of slips gathered from the advanced commercial houses of that day. This is but a single detail, but more than usual importance attaches to it now that question of slant—for the time being, at least—is the most discussed of all details pertaining to penmanship.

I have said that the style of writing, promulgated by Mr. Spencer and elaborated and perfected by hundreds of others since his time—but still retaining its strong original frame-work—is considered the standard to this day by the vast majority of American people. You all know how, within the past year or so, our educational press has teemed with articles relating to vertical or unslanted penmanship. Comparisons of the two styles and discussions of their respective merits, almost fierce in their partisanship, have come to the attention of all who are specially interested in this subject. We are told, on the one hand, that slanted writing is a relic of the past; that it no longer fits modern business conditions, and, what is more startling, that it is responsible for a large percentage of the physical ills to which flesh is heir. So on the other side, we are asked to believe that vertical writing is a mere passing fad; that it is too slow and stiff for modern requirements, and has not one point of superiority over the style which we have used for so many years, while its hygienic claims are derided as a bugaboo contrived for riding through public fear into public favor. I have been interested earnestly in this controversy, and have published, in the "Penman's Art Journal," a great deal relating to it from the most competent men whom I could

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find on both sides of the question. After carefully digesting all the theories and information adduced, I can but believe, like the blind man of Hindoostan who went to "see" the elephant, that each side is partly in the right and partly in the wrong. I shall not weary you by going into the minutiæ of this discussion, or of the claims of the respective partisans. It seems to me that the germ of the whole thing, with particular reference to the handwriting of the future, lies right here: Have we arrived at a point in our industrial progress where it is proper to stop and take an account of stock of our handwriting, to see just where we stand; to put our heads and hands together; to pool our experience, knowledge and skill, and see if, working together, we cannot produce a handwriting harness that will fit more snugly to the most advanced business conditions of to-day and those which are likely to crystallize within the immediate future?

Taking a cue from Father Spencer, I have for some time past been engaged in collating data from large business establishments where handwriting is put to its severest test and is least affected by the now almost ubiquitous typewriter. The data is in the concrete and wholly trustworthy form of writing done under the usual business condition, without any consciousness on the writer's part of the purpose for which it was required. It has seemed to me that the best test afforded by any kind of business is that of the clerks who receive with a pen telegraphic messages sent at a high rate of speed. Probably no other business which demands the use of a pen to-day requires such a high-sustained rate of speed combined with such an indispensable requirement of legibility. The receiver's bread and butter depends upon his ability to record the message as fast as the operator at the other end of the line can send it in—and this means in some cases over fifty words a minute, very frequently as much as forty-five. Not only must he record the message with absolute correctness, but the record must be so plain that no one can mistake it. Apart from that, it is "new matter," and generally matter quite out of the common, on account of the effort to secure the greatest brevity in preparing telegraphic dispatches. A severer test of the capabilities of handwriting could not exist under present business conditions.

Just over Broadway from the "Journal" office is the great central headquarters and distributing agency of the Western Union Telegraph Co., whose ramifications put a network around the globe. A thousand operators are at work in this building, 850 in a single room. A week or so ago I visited the superintendent, and obtained permission to procure actual specimens of the handwriting of a large number of these operators. These specimens represent actual business work. They were not made for show, and were written upon

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the order of an official of the company, like other work in the usual course of business. The number of slips which I secured and deem sufficient for the purpose in view is fifty-four. The speed of the writers would vary from scarcely twenty words for some of the beginners, or those in subordinate positions, to forty-five or fifty words a minute for those in the most responsible places. There is not one illegible specimen in the lot. There is not one that does not show remarkably free and easy movement, or betrays evidence of finger movement. There are a dozen which, to the casual observer, might well be taken for the handwriting of a single person, showing as undeniably as anything could that the requirements of that business have evolved with remarkable precision a type of handwriting which sacrifices all unnecessary form and motion, and has the best right to be called a genuinely automatic "natural" business hand.

An analysis of these specimens, from the standpoint of slant, is extremely interesting, as illustrating the modern tendency under conditions related; and it is only by modern development that we can judge the future. I find that these specimens lend themselves easily to a separation into four main groups. The smallest of these groups comprises three specimens, the slant of which is distinctly backward—backhand, as we are used to calling it. The next group comprises five specimens, the slant of which is around what we now call standard—fifty-two degrees. Yet, only one specimen of the five has a slant as fully pronounced as the present standard. Some of the letters in this specimen slightly exceed fifty-two degrees. The third group has twenty specimens—about forty per cent of the whole —and the writing is almost absolutely vertical. The fourth group has twenty-six specimens—just one less than half the entire lot. Of this lot, the most pronounced slant does not exceed sixty per cent, and the specimens run the scale from this figure to eighty-five degrees. Most of them would answer to the scale between sixty degrees and seventy degrees. Perhaps the most remarkable point in connection with these specimens is, that only one out of fifty-four shows a slant as great as that which we have known for half a century as standard; and even some of the letters in this show a tendency to greater erectness.

Now, I think these specimens show as conclusively as anything can that the greatest speed, the greatest legibility, the greatest "naturalness" of motion, when the writer is thrown upon his own resources and made to do his level best, do not culminate in a slant of fifty-two degrees. I will not now undertake to say just at what point this natural culmination of slant is, if indeed it does not vary largely with different individuals, but it is safe to say that future revisions of copy-books will be in the direction of less slant. The

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material referred to, together with a vast amount of other such data obtained from business houses, from public schools, business colleges, etc., and from students and business men in England, France, Germany, Switzerland, Latin America, and other countries, is now in the office of the "Penman's Art Journal," patiently waiting to be raked over and digested with a view to a series of papers which I hope to find time to prepare in the near future.

In conclusion, I will say, that, while I am far from being convinced that the time is near at hand, or ever will be at hand, when our people as a rule will adopt a rigidly perpendicular style of writing, I am nevertheless convinced, from close observation, that some very important modifications are probable—indeed, are essential—if the handwriting of the future is to serve its age as faithfully as our own times have been served by the handwriting of the past half century.

BUSINESS TRAINING—GOOD AND BAD.

BY J. M. MEHAN, DES MOINES, IOWA.

The weaver sat at his loom,
Flinging his shuttle fast,
And the threads that will last
Till the hour of doom
Were added at every cast.

The question of to-day is not, what do you know, but what can you do? Therefore, training is more important than teaching. A leading dictionary gives, "train" literally "to draw;" that is, "to teach and form by practice—to discipline." The same authority gives "teach" "to impart knowledge—to show." While neither of these definitions represent the exact value of these words in our minds, they convey very fair definitions.

That there is in the whole routine of educational attempt too much teaching and too little training, all thinking teachers agree. But teaching, while it is less useful is also less dangerous than training. Teaching is a kind of nap, an external finish to the fabric; but training is the very woof itself, woven into the warp of life and eradicated only by annihilation. It is the hope of many of us that some of the poor teaching we have done may be corrected in and by the experiences of life; that, in the fire of application, some, at least, of its crudities may be burned away. But we have no such hope for the training we have given. It is to remain. The wise man knew what he was talking about when he said: "Train up a child in the

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way you would have him go, and when he is old he will not depart from it." Train him up; not tell him up; not teach him up.

We call our schools business training schools, and it is well that we do, for in so far as they train their pupils to right things they have a place in the great work of education. The term education itself, already overloaded with definitions, has reference to training, to a growth, a development; therefore, an education of any kind is for life. Once gotten, it cannot, like an unsatisfactory garment, be laid aside. It becomes, in the very acquirement of it, a habit fixed and fastened to its possessor for life. Here, then, is the danger of lax discipline, undesirable methods and loose government.

The student has a right to expect, and does expect, from us such training as will make him sure of foot on the slippery highways of business life. He comes to us usually with much precept but little practice; having a surplus of telling and a dearth of training. He comes to be trained as best we can train him for business, for life, for manhood, for destiny. Is this a task to be lightly undertaken?

I hold that we do more than teach pupils to write, to keep books, to spell, to use English, etc. These things are good; but without order, discipline, self-control, manners, morals and right views of life they are worse than useless. It will be urged that our time is limited; and let me say now that that is the very reason I urge the necessity of training. Because our time is limited, we should strive all the more along these lines. Students are with us long enough to be impressed in the things I have mentioned if they are taught and practiced by those in charge—if pupils are trained in them. "Our schools are finishing schools," said Mr. Packard. Yes, from the business school the young man will go out into the business house with ideas of honesty or dishonesty, order or disorder, care or carelessness, honor or dishonor, and who shall say that he has not received much of these in the school where his last lessons were learned —where he was trained. It is safe to say, that nowhere in his life can he, in an equal space of time, be trained to so great a degree. He comes to our schools with the desire, the determination, to be trained; for, notwithstanding we occasionally get an incorrigible, the large majority of our students are among the most earnest, as well as the most impressible, of young people.

"We are of all we meet a part;"
It has been truly said,
And each of us from each
Will bear a trace of mind and heart.

If this be true in general, what shall we say of the example set for those who come to us to be trained into our image and likeness, so to speak, looking upon us as model business men.

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Man is dual-sided. He is on the one side an individual, feeling, thinking, desiring, and satisfying his desires; on the other side he is a part of the great body of all mankind. Individually, he is an animal; socially, he is intellectual, moral. It is only as he comes into contact with men that his intellectual side is cultivated. In this work of bringing men into touch with each other there is no agency so potent as that of commerce, no ministry so great as that of trade. Then, with what shall the influence of our training for good or evil be measured? Looking at it from this standpoint, with what a degree of care should a father select a business training for his son. A gentleman called on me a few days ago, bringing his boy to be enrolled in our school, saying: "I took a course in a business college once, but I want my boy to be under better discipline than I was under. So far as the teaching of the school where I went was concerned, I find no fault; but no attention whatever was given to the training of students outside of the branches taught. Pupils might be getting lessons at their rooms, or playing pool in the billiard hall without special notice from the principal."

Now, it is not the great value of the restraining influence thrown around pupils, disposed to shirk work and to do other wrong things, that I hold to be of special value; but it is the example of a business-like, well governed school I plead for, as a great training power—a power that captures the student's interest and compels his respect and attention.

"Can figs grow upon thistles?" Can a dishonest man train a student into honest ways? Can an unscrupulous fellow train a boy to shun questionable practices? Can an untruthful man bring up a righteous pupil? Can a business failure point out the way of success, and train the inexperienced feet to walk therein?

There are schools of all kinds, the very existence of which brings discredit, and they are most plentiful in the line of special schools. They mislead hundreds of young people, and destroy their chances for a successful life; their training is vicious, their example is bad, the lessons they teach are the lessons of failure. This corner of the educational field which we cultivate is not free from these humbugs, many of which are conducted by men who have tried nearly everything else and failed, and now set up shops to teach young men and women, in a few easy lessons, how to succeed. And because they get students, it is plain that people need training in order to know a thing which is unbusiness-like from a thing that is business-like—the good from the bad.

As business educators, we owe it to this generation of young men and women seeking good training, and expecting to secure it through the business colleges of our land, to condemn the frauds in our field

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as they are condemned in other fields. It may not be a pleasant task, but it is a duty, and it is enough that it is a duty. "Let them alone and they will, of their own accord, die," it is urged. But such is no better practice here than it is in the treatment of any other evil. The public have a right to expect of those in our line the same treatment they would expect of bankers or other business men in their lines, namely, to know from us the facts in the case.

I believe the working hours of pupils should be spent in the school-rooms. I have but little faith "in studying in private rooms" for such a class of students as we secure and situated as we are usually, in the business portions of the cities where we are located. Our students, if not attending night school, should be assigned work to be done in the evening that they may not idle away precious time; or worse. seek vicious places of amusement.

Carefully prepared reports of the pupil's standing and progress should be sent to parents or guardians monthly. These need not be, and would better not be, based on percentages, but be made plain, simple, and to the point. A report such as Mr. Packard keeps, or something akin to it, should be kept of each student, and this should be at all times accessible to such student.

The diploma should be withheld when dishonest work has been persisted in. Students should be required to be prompt, and no diploma or other recommendation should be given to one wanting in this quality.

It is an absolute crime to assign a task to a student and not require him to get it. Such a course develops all the qualities opposed to good business principles inherent in anyone. Let us be reasonable in our requirements; but once made, let them be requirements.

It has been said that a private school of any kind derives its strength from the confidence of the public in it as an educational institution. I believe this to be the veritable gospel of success so far as we are concerned. Our schools must be the superior of the public schools in the lines we teach. This means that we must employ skilled teachers, and he who does less than this will fail even if he puts "professor" before his name, and all the letters of the alphabet after it.

Teaching and training power are the only safe things on which to depend, and when we strive to do our work with inefficient, untrained teachers, we make ourselves the laughing stock of the public, and our business as well as our work ends in miserable failure.

We have our place, we are needed, and this fact is recognized by all men and women of good sense. But in order to deserve this recognition and to hold this place we must, also, have the good sense and ability to train our pupils in right things till right principles are inculcated and good habits are formed. "The end justifies the means."

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THE TEACHING OF WRITING.

BY J. P. BYRNE, BUSINESS UNIVERSITY, ERIE, PA.

I will preface my subject by a slight reference to the fact that the present seems to me to be a time when a great change is taking place in the teaching of this important branch, and that ere long we will witness more striking facts brought out as to the use, aims and methods of teaching writing in the business college. I believe that these changes, such as they are and promise to be, will be changes of signal advancement and of much worth to us who are teachers of writing. The winged art, stenography, with its rapid introduction, and the great, though almost unrealized, changes it has brought about, will gradually force longhand penmanship and the teaching of it into a more rapid march, and will give us a greater practical appreciation of its real place in the business college curriculum.

I will touch penmanship in the business college only, and deduce some conclusions from my point of observation as a teacher therein, and point out what seems to be a rational aspect of various points from my outlook, and the close connection and relation of the subject to the whole course of studies.

Three essential features appear to me, when considering the subject: (1) The aim; (2) the method; (3) the teacher.

THE AIM.

The aim of teaching writing in our class of schools is manifestly an important point. It is resolved into the questions: What shall we teach? To what end and ultimate object shall we direct our labors? That the position of this subject with us has, within a few years past, almost entirely changed, it is unnecessary to attempt to prove or disprove; nor is it necessary to touch in detail any of the reasons therefor. As we find the subject to-day, it is entirely stripped of what I might call its past mysticism, and we find those who are not to the "manor born," successful teachers and exemplars of the art and science of penmanship. Its condition with us to-day is mainly the outcome of the present conditions of business, which, to a very great extent, demand volume instead of artistic effect, rapidity instead of exact form, and legibility instead of the pleasing but bewildering flourish. We, therefore, must teach writing that is plain, rapid, and, of necessity, that which is capable of easy execution. Forms, position of execution and knowledge of writing methods must meet the requirements of the style mentioned, and unless our teaching is so aimed that the outcome will result in giving our pupils that which they need, it is a failure. We must lay the basis for

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results in the teaching we give our pupils, and we must go even further, and so arrange our work and methods of practice, in conjunction with the many aids which surround the student in our schools, that we shall develop a thorough habit which will cling to him in his future work.

When I speak of the writing habit, I refer to that method of execution, which to the student becomes essentially part of his individual action, and which, to him, will come as naturally and be done with as little thought as other functions of the mind or body. That this can be accomplished is without question, and such a development on the basis of legibility, rapidity and ease, is a test of the greatest success of the teacher's work.

Further than the inculcation of the habit of writing, is another aim which should be in the mind and purpose of the teacher—the building and arranging of such a writing basis for his pupils, that, when changes come, as they surely will with other business environments, a steady growth will be the process of the change instead of retrogression. That many pupils retrograde is a fact, and this should not be so. I believe that this fact of retrogression comes mainly from the striving of the teacher after present effect, with little or no real, positive basis for the methods of writing. It is obvious, therefore, that not alone present effect, but future results, should be the ultimate aim and object of our teaching. From a business standpoint, by doing this, we are increasing the confidence of the student and the business community alike in our claims as business preceptors.

THE METHOD.

The method of teaching this subject covers a wide range and variety of matter, and can be presented here only in a limited manner. The success of teaching any topic will come from the manner of presenting the subject to the student. But here we have a wide field and a more difficult one than in any ordinary study, for the reason that, unlike any other study, to accomplish a desired end there must be a union of the physical and the mental powers; the physical representing the method and manner of producing characters and forms on a surface by means of the muscular motion of the arm, hand and fingers, while the mental consists of the perception of the form and the motive thought necessary to act with the physical in the production of the idea by characters. Necessarily, therefore, where these are united, there must be in the teaching an intelligent observation of the faculties which act in the blending of these two forces to produce an effect. By careful observation, it will be seen that motion or movement—that is, the physical—should receive the first attention of the teacher; for there can be no action

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without the power to act and the faculty to guide that action. Gradually the development of the mental, in the conception and contrasting of form, should be united with the expansion of the physical power in execution.

We are agreed that class drills to develop the writing motion, blackboard and written copies to teach form, and individual suggestions to instruct the pupil and correct his errors, should be the basis of our instruction. The really difficult feature of the methods to be pursued are the kind, quality and quantity of the exercises which shall be used in the drill class. To achieve simple, practical results, it is obvious, that, in the arrangement, use and gradation of exercises, there should be simplicity and actuality, so that the practice of the student will daily come nearer to the aim in view. In the use of many, varied and fantastic exercises, which often have but an indefinite relation to the succeeding work, there is danger of developing in the student's mind such a view of writing that his results will be uncertain, to an extent illegible, and unsuited to ordinary demands.

Therefore, there must be a well-defined purpose, a careful gradation of the plan of instruction, and an arrangement of copies, so that the class or student will pass lightly and systematically from one step to the other, and so on from grade to grade, with the stimulus of satisfaction through the evidence of his own progress. It will be found that the general difficulties which will predominate in the work of the class or student, are badly conceived ideas of effort, awkwardness of the writing movement, or ignorance of form. If some of these are not carefully and quickly overcome, but little result will be seen, and it is certain, therefore, that there must be no hesitation on the part of the teacher in striking at the root of the difficulties. Without a clear outline of what is to be accomplished by the teacher, nothing but haphazard results will accrue, and certainly there can be no specific impress on the mind of the pupil.

In the use of copies we must come as near to the simple requirements of business as it is possible; we must use the blackboard to facilitate instruction, and to develop the power of observation and discrimination in the student. The blackboard, while being in the main the best means of presenting copies and exercises for the drill, ought to be supplemented by written copies, which are yet not too accurate to be stiff and mechanical, nor so careless as to mislead. They should be freely and easily written within sight, and should to an extent be adapted to the needs of the individual student as a means of stimulating his powers. By this I mean that they should be somewhat in advance of his own standard, but not so far beyond his results that he will be discouraged. Simplicity and ease should

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be the dominating characteristics of the work presented to the pupils with whom we deal.

In the matter and manner of suggestions and corrections of the pupil's work lies a very large measure of the teacher's success. It is here that he can reach the individual abilities of the students, and can bring to his class real teaching ability. Whatever methods are used, I fully believe that there should be the larger share of the time given to individual instruction, so that the student can be personally reached. This individual instruction should touch position, penholding, movement, form and efforts, more than is ordinarily done. It makes a deeper impress, leaves a larger share of thought, and touches the power of observation which students lack to a very large degree. It is essential in all this instruction that the teacher should aim to adopt a manner of suggestion, rather than one of direction, to the end that the student be led to search, discriminate and build for himself, and that his process of comparison and study will be developed in the writing class as fully as elsewhere. Suggestions and instructions should be given in a clear-cut, forcible manner, touching only the essential point, and aimed to draw out the mind of the pupil. Going further, every correction given to the student should be proven to him, so that there will be a lasting effect. He must see reason and effect in a general manner, or the correction has no benefit.

I might here add, that the teacher ought, in his method of teaching and in his requirements of students, recognize the fact that he must accommodate very much of his individual instruction or requirements, as to position, penholding and motion, to the mental and physical characteristics of each student, and that absolute rules are very often at variance with the workings of the natural powers. So he must come among his students, as a student, with a keen observation for every effect, and always ready to adopt such measures as may be suggested by the intelligent supervision he gives his class, so that he will realize his purpose. While I should not counsel extraordinary measures, or fantastic departures from the positive outline of the course of work, yet it should be borne in mind that the rut into which a teacher may drop is a grave in which positive development or success will sleep very securely and quite peacefully.

THE TEACHER.

The most important of all facts relating to this subject in our work at the present time is, I firmly believe, the teacher. I say "most important," because of all the effect he may or may not have upon the progress of the study, the advancement of the student's interests, and his impress upon the position our institutions ought to take and hold in the educational and business communities.

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There has been, and is, to an extent, a deep-rooted idea that a professional teacher of writing is a walking aggregation of bewildering theories of amazing talent, with a birthright to do these wonderful things that we know about. We know that the average young man who has essayed to teach penmanship has not been slow to appropriate to himself, with abundant conceit, all manner of wonderful things, and with this knowledge he has been loth to adapt himself to sensible thoughts and surroundings. To a great extent he ignored the demands of the times, until he was actually forced into his rightful place. The effect he had upon his pupils was to carry their unformed and undiscerning minds away from their real object, and afterward, when they realized the difference between what they had received from him and what they should have received, there was something like disappointment, and, of course, a belief that our claims were not fully carried out.

The present teacher of writing should, first of all, be a teacher who is in touch with and in sight of general educational movements, and who can rightly discriminate and relegate his subject to its proper place, and give to it its real force and equilibrium. He should be a teacher with general ideas, and some faculty of observation. He should furthermore have a knowledge of the general branches taught in our schools, if not in touch with them, by actual teaching. This should be for the reason that penmanship bears such an intimate relation to bookkeeping, correspondence, etc., that, without a proper appreciation of the needs of those subjects, he can not fully realize the many helpful hints and benefits which can be obtained from those departments of the school. Further than this, the student's work and methods of acquiring should be grouped into their proper relation with the other studies for the teacher to realize the best results from his labors.

I would assume the position of the teacher of writing in the business college to be coincident with the position of the physician. The teacher's class comes to him in very much of the state of the patient to the doctor—the faults and habits of the student likened to the disease of the patient. The student has a general idea of the form and methods of writing, more or less developed, and the teacher's position therefore is mainly one of correcting the disease of bad habits and of developing the student's methods of writing, with the end in view that they meet the general requirements of the business world, into which, presumably, the student is to enter after leaving our instruction.

The teacher's requirements are plainly seen if we take this view of his work, which seems eminently fair. To the end that he may accomplish the desired results, he must have an intimate knowledge of his subject and student, together with some knowledge of the

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mental and physical functions so as to be able to take careful note of the effect of his suggestions upon the student's mind and physical power, and to gauge the depth and benefit of his instruction.

He must further, by the energy of his own labor and purpose, vitalize the class into work and determination. I have really no belief in the many mechanical aids and amusements which many writing teachers bring to their assistance. They have little teaching effect, and make no real impress upon the work and effort of the pupil. The teacher ought, with the class of students which he gets, to force his own individuality and energy into their practice, and much more will be eventually accomplished for his students. My reason for this is, that the student of to-day has really too much amusement and too little of the thinking, self-asserting and life-developing process merged into his efforts.

To my mind, therefore, the teacher of writing should know how to teach his subject by force of precept and example; should be capable of putting himself into the work; should not only be an ordinary penman, but should be a teacher of other branches relating to writing; should be a whole man, mentally and morally, and be able to command and deserve respect as an able teacher and a thoughtful one.

THE DISCIPLINARY VALUE OF THE BUSINESS COURSE OF STUDY.

BY A. S. OSBORN, ROCHESTER, N. Y.

The adjusting of old ideas to changed conditions is a problem that each age must solve for itself. The changed and changing relations between the classes of society has forced on the world a new set of problems, many of them yet unsolved. The growth of democracy has, indeed, wrought a revolution in the western world, a revolution that is not yet concluded. When capital owned labor there were no strikes, when the king's wish was law there was no need for election laws. These new growths are the adjustments that new conditions impose.

These changed conditions have had an important influence on educational notions. The growth of democratic ideas has greatly extended the field of education until it is now thought that an education is almost, if not quite, the natural right of every child, and since all men have a voice in the government, ignorance is a danger to the State and gives the warrant for compulsory education.

This is, indeed, a change from the idea that education was only for the noble and the rich. And with this growth of political free-

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dom there has been developed a new conception of labor. A spirit of individuality and self-reliance now prevails that takes it for granted, in our land, at least, that every man has some business. Trade no longer disgraces, if it fails to distinguish. Not many years ago good men could do nothing to add to the world's comfort or wealth and still retain their self-respect; but that time is now past. Non-producers are now looked upon as the real paupers, and all feel in duty bound to at least seem to do something. The "fine old-fashioned gentleman" is now a curiosity for the museum. All these changes involve losses as well as gains, and it is not now necessary to show how the present is, on the whole, an improvement on the past.

These changes have had a mighty influence on theories of education. Under the old state of affairs education was an end in itself and only this. Plato, it will be remembered, deplores the prostitution of the noble science of arithmetic to the base uses of trade, but it is an unwarranted assumption to say that Plato would, under our conditions contend that education should have relation to practical life. There are those who even now are prone to apologize if seen with an arithmetic, and say that it is not for any base practical use they teach or learn the subject, but simply for mental training. This no doubt, is the main purpose of the study, but in our day and age it is at least respectable to learn some things for use and to acknowledge it.

Let us plead for honesty and frankness in these matters. The hard, stubborn fact, is that a very large proportion of those who are striving for an education must become self-supporting, while they are yet almost children, and education is the only means they possess to assist them to mount on the ladder of life. They must seek their ransom from penury and drudgery in the mines of knowledge. What that education should be, it is difficult to determine; but is it not cruel, erroneous and dishonest to claim that education should be planned, pursued and completed with no thought of its relation to practical life? When we are told that the aim of the school is character, not livelihood, let us answer that the aim of the school is character and livelihood. When we are told that education is to fit one to live a life, not to earn a living, we will answer that it is for both. It is this undue emphasis on "living a life" and the implied slur on "earning a living" that tends to develop that creature, harmless and useless, but fair to look upon, called the dude.

One can make this claim for the practical without becoming an advocate of dead, stark materialism. Let us pity, indeed, one of whom it may be said:

> A primrose by the river's brim
> A yellow primrose was to him,
> And it was nothing more.

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But let us also pity one whose education is so ill-chosen—so broad, it may be—that it becomes too thin and weak to fit him for this struggling world.

Education should fill the mind with beautiful images, should furnish contemplative delight; it should develop discipline and strengthen the mind, and it should store and furnish the understanding with ideas, and facts for comparisons and generalizations, and should develop skill and accomplishment for use and pleasure.

Where to place the emphasis has been the question of questions in education now for hundreds of years. When utility in education was frowned upon altogether, the basis for the selection of subjects was, whether the study would yield contemplative pleasure or discipline, but the world has been asking these last years whether it is not possible to get mental discipline in a degree, at least, from the study of subjects more nearly related to actual life. Science studies have been obliged to fight their way into the courses of studies of the higher schools, and gradually other subjects have forced their way into the highest schools until it is remarked of a number of famous institutions, that, when it is said that one is a graduate, it is impossible to tell whether he is a doctor of philosophy or a horse doctor. These changes in the courses may, in some instances, be extreme and unfortunate, but they are likely to be permanent. They may show that the world is drifting into materialism, but a more reasonable inference is that it has come to be thought that real educational values may be extracted from so-called practical subjects. The elective system in colleges allows one to select studies to his taste and which will have a bearing on his life-work, but it is not now generally thought that this is done at the sacrifice of real educational development.

There are good and wise people who look upon the special business or commercial school as the typical expression of materialism—as the latest development of blind utilitarianism. The charge may be true under some conditions, but no more than may be said of any other special or technical schools. The advocate of any particular phase of education who claims that all else is futile is either bigoted or ignorant; and this is true, whether he contends that education should be all culture or all utility.

The advocate of the educational or disciplinary value of any study or course of studies assumes, to begin with, that the subjects are to be properly taught, and sometimes describes possibilities instead of realities. Music, drawing, manual training, science studies, the kindergarten, must be in the hands of adepts if their highest values are to be realized, and this is, of course, also true of the business course of study.

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The primary purpose of a business course is a practical purpose, but it does not follow that it may not have other values, some of which are here outlined.

In the first place, the business course of study in very many instances awakens an entirely new interest in education. The vital relations between knowledge and life are perceived for the first time in school work, and study is at once invested with new interest. The pupil has not before realized that school is a preparation for life, and he now sees that it is for himself he is working. Thus is aroused that interest which the Herbartians have taught is so essential in education. This mental awakening is one of the most common results of the business course. Many pupils from this impulse go on into other courses of study that they did not before dream of pursuing. The first discipline claimed for the business course is that it awakens an interest in education and cultivates an appreciation of its value.

The business course is a preparation for work, and this frank, outspoken attitude dignifies labor in the mind of the pupil. Let us not decry culture, but let us say frankly that, in this world of work, any kind or course of education that directly or by implication stigmatizes honest toil is not the highest education, whatever it may be called. The painful reiteration that real education is not a preparation for life work brings its natural result. We are told that education which looks toward preparation for earning a living is exactly on a par with the education the wild animal gives its young in seeking and seizing its prey. Is it not this spirit that sends out from schools those who have unconsciously been taught that it is not nice to dirty their hands or trammel their minds with labor.

The second claim for business education is that it tends to dignify labor. The business course, from first to last, insists, in everything, on accuracy, rapidity, and that general business-like method of doing things which may, in a general way be called neatness. In these three ways the business course certainly has a real educational, disciplinary value.

The habit of accuracy is in itself rare and valuable. There is surely a valuable moral training in a course of study and practice that insists on absolute, unvarying accuracy. Here, again, is shown the effect of a long course of training on so-called principles at the expense of accurate results. Pupils are complacently told: "No, the result is not correct; but you have the right principle and that is the important thing;" and they are told this until they come to think that accuracy is not important, as though principles were worth anything if they did not lead to correct results. Here it is again implied that they are not learning the subject for practical purposes, but for the culture and development it gives, and that re-

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sults are not important. Such a theory is a vicious theory. Manual training has demonstrated that there is a close connection between morality and accuracy, between square corners and square actions. This fundamental necessity for accuracy is the vital defect in those courses of practice in commercial school work that, without control and without check, actually cultivate habits of reckless inaccuracy that it is the purpose of such a course to correct.

The business course of study insists that accuracy is the true test of principles, and that there is a mighty difference between exactly right and nearly right. This is the third disciplinary value claimed for the business course.

Along with the habit of accuracy the business course insists on rapidity—insists that work should not only be done correctly, but that it should be done quickly. The aiming at these two results in conjunction is certainly a mental discipline of the highest order. It cultivates attention and self-control, and makes one master of himself. It is certainly pitiable to see the slow blundering that is the outcome of school work in so many instances. The fear of putting education on a low, utilitarian basis has prevented the teacher from impressing the fact that a habit of rapidity is not only a valuable habit in itself, but that it is of practical value; that labor is paid for in proportion to its quality and its quantity.

The business course deliberately attempts to cultivate the habit of rapidity in all mental and manual operations; introduces the time element into every act, mental and physical. And in this lies the fourth disciplinary value of the business course of study.

The systematic course of business training also attempts to develop a habit of care and neatness; insists that all things shall be done in a neat, business-like manner. Here, in connection with the learning of writing and the mechanical parts of book-keeping, the business course develops some, at least, of the educational value that comes through well-directed manual training. The training of hand and eye and taste in the acquiring of a good handwriting has certainly in itself a high disciplinary value.

The business course pupil is from the start impressed with the truth that the acquiring of a decent business hand comes largely through the acquiring of a habit of neatness. When one observes the slovenliness that is the product of many public schools it is no wonder that a reason is sought for. And now, it is all at once discovered that the trouble is all with the slant. This is the scapegoat of the teacher and the school that has, in fact, not made an honest effort to teach writing. Let the pupil be impressed, by example as well as percept, that good writing is desirable; let him be taught neatness in everything pertaining to the subject; and, above all, let him hear no teacher boast of his own shortcomings in this direc-

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tion by calling attention to the poor writing of some great men, and implying that there is some connection between poor writing and greatness. Let these things be done, and it matters but little how the writing slants. There has come down to us from the old fighting days, when to read and write was a sign of weakness and effeminacy, a habit of slurring good writing, of belittling what is called the "clerkly hand." Principals of schools do this in public and then wonder why pupils do not take an interest in the subject. And the poor pupil finds that his slovenly writing is no indication of greatness, but actually bars his way to many a possible avenue of success.

The business course insists on good writing, and in every way seeks to develop an abiding habit of neatness. It insists on neatness as being of practical value, and also as of disciplinary value. This is the fifth claim of the business course as discipline.

The business course pupil is inspired to unwonted activity by the business spirit of activity that surrounds him. Activity becomes contagious. The pupil begins to see a purpose in work and his real life begins. Before all was vague and in the air. Now he sees that education means something; that it is a ladder let down to him from higher places, and that he, an independent, thinking, willing individual, if he is to go up, must do his own climbing.

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DEPARTMENT OF CHILD STUDY.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 1894.

The Department was called to order at 3 o'clock P. M. by Acting President Dr. G. Stanley Hall.

Following a brief address by Dr. Hall, Mrs. Annie Howes Barus, President of the Associated Collegiate Alumni, read a "Report of the Child Study Work Done by the Boston and San Francisco Societies."

Reports were then presented from various sections of the National Association for Child Study as follows:

Boston—Miss Sarah E. Wiltse.

South Carolina—Thos. P. Bailey, Jr.

New York—Various reports collected and read by Miss Jennie B. Merrill.

Hartford—Miss Hattie E. Hunt.

A paper on "A Study of Motor Ability in Children." was read by Mr. John A. Hancock.

Supt. W. A. Hoyt, Brookfield, Mass., read a paper on "A Study of Children's Love of Nature."

Prof. M. V. O'Shea, Mankato, Minn., followed with a paper on "Children's Expression Through Drawing.

The Chair appointed as a Committee on Nominations of Officers: Prof. M. V. O'Shea of Minnesota, Miss Adelaide E. Wyckoff of New York, and Prof. Thos. P. Bailey of South Carolina.

This committee brought in the following report, which was adopted:

President—Wm. L. Bryan of Indiana.

Vice President—Prof. Thos. P. Bailey of South Carolina.

Secretary—Miss Sarah E. Wiltse of Massachusetts.

After the election of officers, Dr. Hall presented a paper. He was followed by A. H. Yoder of California upon the "Study of the Childhood of Great Men," in which it was shown that the boyhood of great men was very sensitive, while that of the criminal child is very callous and hardened.

NOTE.—The above minutes are incomplete, as no complete Secretary's report was filed with the Secretary of the General Association.

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PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE STUDY OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT, OF THE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE ALUMNÆ.

BY MRS. ANNIE HOWSE BARUS, CHAIRMAN.

The suggestion of the president of this section on Child Study, that an account of the work started by the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ be given, was complied with, not with the expectation that the character of the work would be judged especially meritorious, but from a belief that the experience gained in putting a method of study to a practical application might be of service to those who should have in mind similar experiments.

The study so outlined in the schedules prepared by the committee having the work in charge was distinctly a study of babyhood; of the child as a nursery specimen. This limitation was due to the fact, first, that, at the time, Preyer's book on the early weeks of his boy's life was the only good model; and, also, because it was presumed that the task would especially appeal to the college mother whose routine of daily duties tended to shut her off from sharing in intellectual pursuits. It was felt that a careful reading of Preyer's "Mind of the Child" should render an intelligent woman capable of following in his footsteps and of recording from day to day observations that would bring their reward to her in the pleasure of their revelation of her baby's growth, and which she could contribute as an offering to the vast sum total of observations needed to trace out laws of development.

Miss Mellicent Shinn of California, a member of the association, began an independent series of observations before any formal action was taken. "I had no idea," she wrote, "of doing anything of serious value myself. I was absorbed in the baby, and simply took notes for my own pleasure and instruction, and was much astonished when I learned that no set of notes as copious and complete were known in this country."

Miss Shinn's conviction of the value of co-operative work of this character induced her to start a section for the study of child life in the California branch. Her idea was maturing into a practical shape when the decision of the General Association reached her. She gladly accepted a place of active membership on its committee.

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While efforts were made to create an interest in the work in the other branches of the association, the California section experimented with the plan of study prepared under Miss Shinn's supervision, and succeeded in reaping a good harvest of data. Profiting by the experience gained in the working of this section in San Francisco, the committee, before issuing the circular, sent out in the name of the General Association, cut down to a few definite points, the suggestions which were to serve as an outline for common observations among its members. The topics which were chosen were those which would yield data most desired by workers in the field of psychology and pedagogy—such authorities as Preyer of Berlin, Sanford of Clarke, Royce of Harvard, Baldwin of Princeton, Barnes and Angell of Leland Stanford, Jr., and Brown and Le Conte of the University of California, having, either through personal intercourse or correspondence, given the committee the benefit of their counsel and criticism. Professor Preyer, though expressing a cordial interest, doubted if the time had come for methodical and systematic work on psychogenesis in the nursery, yet he agreed to compare and utilize notes the committee might send him if kept by the rules laid down in his works—rules serving to obtain exactness by accepting only the observations of the credited recorder written down within twenty-four hours of the time the phenomena were noted.

The topics suggested to the Alumnæ were divided into four schedules. The first concerned mainly babies under three months. Some color experiments were introduced, to be begun at this age and continued for a long period at intervals of a month. On the second schedule, topics were noted for following the muscular development of a child through its various phases, beginning with its efforts to raise the head, on through the series of movements leading up to walking. The difficulty of rightly analyzing an emotion, of discriminating between conflicting feelings, induced the committee to a cautious brevity in the list of points suggested for observation in this particular—sorely as the emotional nature of childhood needs an interpretation.

Memory, imagination, sign language and speech were proposed as the intellectual phenomena to follow. It was by no means the desire of the committee to limit the notes to the points suggested in their schedules. These points were indicated only that they might serve as a basis for common observation, and, as might have been anticipated, some of the most interesting records have been along lines quite distinct from those given; but it was hoped the numerical value of the observations to be gotten in this way would add greatly to their importance.

Enthusiasm as a factor in child study is not to be discounted, but neither must it be allowed to mislead the expectations. It is so

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easily and so naturally aroused. The universality of the specimens for study, the apparent ease of note-taking, tend, along with the novelty of the investigation, to create a ready acceptance of its methods by those at all interested in children; but the experience of the Alumnæ, as of other organizations, has been that it is only a select few who will have the persistence necessary to attain success. Child study, like studies in exact science, calls for sacrifice of time and inclination, which will only be given to it by those thoroughly in earnest and imbued with a love for their work. The hindrances to systematic study in ordinary nursery life call for more persistence and patience on the part of the student than is given elsewhere.

It has been possible to experiment with work in sections in Washington, Boston and San Francisco. Owing to the small number of Alumnæ available as active observers in the first of these cities, invitations were given to other intelligent mothers to join a class for study and investigation. The directing of the work was in most competent hands, an experienced teacher and an ardent student in psycho-physics was in charge; but though she brought together by her first call over a dozen mothers, she was only able to count two systematic workers. The Boston section made a vigorous start last winter. It received stimulus to continued well-doing in timely addresses by Dr. G. Stanley Hall and Professor Royce. Two months from the date of its organization last February its leader writes: "Our section grows so fast that I have about shut down on non-collegiate mothers, unless of exceptional training. I have thirty mothers (five psychologists, and one, as yet, childless wife). Five new babies are promised us before next fall. About ten of the mothers have come in to see what it is like, and may resign. Ten more are of doubtful value, but the remaining ten will really do something."

The San Francisco section was organized with a membership of twenty in the spring of 1892, and held three meetings that season for the comparison of observations upon topics announced a month in advance. "Of the twenty," Miss Shinn writes, "several dropped out by sheer carelessness, including some of those who had professed the most interest. All the unmarried ones, except myself and a doctor, one by one left from inability to get a good chance to observe a baby. This left but thirteen to start in with in the fall term. Five of these being connected with Leland Stanford, Jr., University, on account of the difficulty of arranging a meeting to suit their trains, we decided to divide forces, and start two independent sections. The Leland Stanford, Jr., section gradually died out."

Miss Shinn sums up the difficulties of working in a section as follows: "A most baffling trouble was the fact, that by the time we had mastered a method of getting some results for a given age the

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children passed on to a new one concerning which we were at sea. It was hard also to work in unison and present reports interesting to all when the children observed were of varying ages.

The anticipated evils of maternal bias, she reports, did not appear; "possibly," she adds, "because we feared it most and started out with caution against it stamped in every step of our progress." The notes have been uniformly frank, cool, fair and dispassionate; no one has shown the slightest tendency to exaggerate or smooth over in the child's interest; nothing could be more sober, cautious or conservative than the spirit of the meetings from the first. The heads of the three sections which have been started have all borne testimony to the fact that a college training tends to render the judgment of the observers more critical and less prejudiced than are those of the associated non-collegiate members.

Miss Shinn finds her college mothers "over cautious, hampering themselves with fears of sources of error too small to be worth regarding, seeking an impossible and fussy precision, and fearing to risk even essential interpretation."

By the close of another year Miss Shinn was able to bring about the affiliation she had ardently desired. In January, 1893, Professor Brown of the chair of pedagogics in the University of California assumed charge of the work of the section, which became recognized as a graduate seminary of the university. The class started out ten in number, but has been reduced by force of circumstances to five active working members. The original syllabus issued by the association was abandoned, as the children under observation had outgrown its instruction, and the work has been carried on in lines mapped out by Professor Brown. The first series of Miss Shinn's "Truths in the Development of a Child" have been published by the university, the second is on the point of publication. This book has been introduced as a text-book into the normal schools of California and Illinois. In preparation jointly by members of the section are essays on "Spontaneous Drawings" and the "Time and Number Sense."

To quote again from Miss Shinn's exhaustive report to her committee: "Much larger than the direct results in notes gathered has been the training of the observers. We have become quite a different set in this respect. Meeting monthly and talking over phenomena, we have clarified our minds, corrected our own and our babies' personal equations, foreshadowed generalizations, till I consider our five regular observers now among the clearest and most correct in the country. Requests have come to this San Francisco section to initiate some method by which the scientific study of childhood can be incorporated into the kindergarten training."

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REPORTS FROM VARIOUS SECTIONS OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR CHILD STUDY.

BY MISS SARAH E. WILTSE, BOSTON MASS.

In 1880 a study of the contents of children's minds upon entering public school was undertaken in Boston, President Hall giving a list of questions, and Mrs. Quincy A. Shaw employing a few of her kindergarten teachers to make the examinations. We began these talks with small groups of children who were taken aside for the purpose, but were not long in learning that the best way was to retire to an unoccupied room and make the acquaintance of each child by itself. Later, a study of grammar school children was undertaken, which involved children's lies and children's collections, among other important facts and phenomena.

A series of tests of hearing of children in the public schools were also given, Dr. Clarence Blake, the eminent aurist, kindly lending his aid.

A most interesting study of visualization among boys in the English high school was made, Mr. Frank O. Carpenter, one of the sub-masters, having cooperated most heartily in the work. Boys were given a word at a time upon the black board and asked to write instantly and in very limited time what the word suggested. This part of the report I make entirely from memory, and can recall but a few of the words, those being: horror, abstraction, cold, fear, snow, number, courage, fun, time and space.

I hope this audience is entirely familiar with President Hall's "little classic," "The Contents of Children's Minds," which was based upon the first of these studies, appearing in the Princeton "Review," and lately reprinted in pamphlet form. A paper upon "Children's Lies," also written by President Hall, was published in the "American Journal of Psychology," and we now have it in a reprint.

"Children's Collections," one of the most suggestive of papers, appeared in the "Nation," and ought to be known by every teacher.

"Sound Blindness" was reported upon at the National Educational Association in Nashville, Tenn., a few years since, and the paper afterwards printed in the "American Journal of Psychology." I believe the "Visualization of Boys" was also published in that journal.

REPORT BY THOS. P. BAILEY, JR., CHAIRMAN SOUTH CAROLINA ASSOCIATION FOR STUDY OF CHILDREN.

At last year's meeting of the State Teachers' Association a Committee on Pedagogical Investigation was appointed. The committee reported to the association a few days ago. Most of the work was done at Marion, S. C., in both white and colored schools.

The report of the investigating committee recommends that teachers report cases and record symptoms in their character notes, just as the physicians do in their reports to their fellow-practitioners; that State, county and town associations be formed; that the work for the general observers be limited to the setting-down spontaneously of children's spontaneous doings and sayings; that the material be turned over to a special investigator for working up. About forty miscellaneous illustrations of sayings and doings were given.

At a meeting of the superintendents, the experiments on children's interests were reported. Data were gathered from Marion, Darlington, Greenville schools

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(white and colored), from South Carolina College, from the teachers of Marion, and from several other adults.

On July 4th the South Carolina Association for the Study of Children was formed. It was thought best to collect a small membership fee during the meeting of the General Association, and to have a working organization, consisting of an executive committee, with the chairman as co-ordinator of data and general director of the work, with the sanction of the committee.

The chairman will map out the work, which will be begun this summer by teachers, mothers and others. The State Kindergarten Association will co-operate. There will be a child study section, child study round tables, etc., at the next meeting of the State Teachers' Association. The Association for the Study of Children will heartily co-operate with the National Association for the Study of Children.

REPORT BY MISS ELLA HASTINGS, PRESIDENT OF SOCIETY FOR CHILD STUDY, NEW YORK CITY.

Our membership is, as it happens now, composed exclusively of mothers, although all interested in the work are eligible for membership. But, as a rule, mothers only apply for membership. We were an independent organization, owing allegiance to no larger body, until the spring of 1893, when we joined the Woman's Conference of the Society for Ethical Culture, in order to participate in their lecture courses. This past year we have studied the questions of the various duties imposed upon children, because they are children, as the filial and fraternal duties. We have also taken up the question as to how far civic duties may be imposed upon them. We also took up proverbs used as admonitions for children's conduct. We have also considered parental duties as the converse to filial duties. Then we took up the larger questions that grow out of fraternal duties; as, for instance, philanthropy. The beauty of the performance of the various duties were further impressed by the biographies of great persons. We have not of late given as much attention to the physical natures as to the moral and mental. But as in the gradual development of the child these three are inseparable, it is not necessary. As, for instance, the physical nature of a child of three only permits of certain sorts of mental training and the moral side is only awakening, so you understand how the study of one includes the other.

REPORT BY PROF. C. E. MELENEY, PRINCIPAL HORACE MANN SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY.

I do not feel that we have accomplished very much. We have all the reports and pamphlets issued by the universities and associations, but have not yet formulated any systematic scheme of our own, although we have made a beginning.

We have made some examinations of children along the following lines: First, physical. We make note at the beginning of the year, and from time to time during the year, of the age, weight, height, posture, gait, the effects of the gymnastics; we give especial attention to the position of the children in exercises and in study; to their walking and standing and movements. We note the conditions of health, nutrition, fatigue, effects of study; note any indications of nervousness, irritability, etc., and trace their causes. We inquire into the home life and habits and diet of the children, and do not hesitate to advise them and their parents.

The coming year the whole institution will be under the medical supervision of one or two regular practitioners, whose duty it will be to look after the general health and to note especially the development of the children under our instruction and training. Of course, we have tested the senses of hearing, sight and touch

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to enable us to conform our instruction to the needs of the children. Every pupil has been examined and the points recorded on a blank similar to that employed by Supt. A. E. Frye, with which, I presume, you are already familiar. These points noted have been used to aid us in giving the right kind of instruction to the individual children and in making our promotions. The points noted are in regard to proficiency in studies, to habits formed, temperament, and the power of observation, thought and expression.

We have not attempted to pursue investigations along the lines suggested in the National Association for the Study of Children, because we have not yet fully decided upon the merits of such an examination or the use we might make of the information obtained. We believe that a systematic study of children should be made, both for a better knowledge of the child in general and for a better knowledge of the individuals with whom we have to deal. We shall be very glad indeed to have any aid in determining what tests ought to be made and facts recorded, and what practical use may be made of them. We shall be very glad next year to co-operate in any way possible in this important work.

I might add that one of the Columbia College students has made some tests on our children in the matter of power of attention, but I do not know that it would be possible to give any summary of these tests that would be of value for your report.

It is expected that next year we shall have a psychological laboratory and pursue some system of experiments in connection with the work at Columbia College.

REPORT BY DR. MAXIMILIAN P. E. GROSZMANN, WORKINGMAN'S SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY.

As long as I have been connected with this school I have made it a point to gather from the teachers as much information on the individual children as possible. The teachers reported at regular intervals on the progress, capacity and character of the children. Special observations and incidents, disciplinary occurrences, and other happenings, were carefully recorded and collated. As we combine the class teacher system with the specialist's system, no child is seen by, or under the influence of, but one teacher, each one seeing a special side of the child, while the class teacher as well as myself have an opportunity of judging the child as a whole, basing our judgment upon comparing notes with the other teachers. A careful medical supervision, connected with physical examinations and measurements, conducted by the school physician (Dr. Franz Torek) and myself, supplements our other observations and has furnished valuable material. The school physician who examines every suspicious case of absence, and, in case of need, furnishes treatment, reports on the home surroundings. A ladies' committee, as well as some of our teachers, visit the homes and report. At the monthly parents' meetings, the parents consult with the teachers, and much is learned in this way. In fact, the parents have learned to confide in us, and to report on, and to consult us about, many matters concerning their children. A number of our pupils are sent to the country during the summer, and here they are under the supervision of some of our teachers, who have an excellent opportunity of studying the children in their natural freedom. All our promotions are based exclusively upon an open and frank discussion of each individual case in the teachers' meetings.

This is, in brief, an exposition of our scheme of child study and the opportunities we have.

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REPORT BY DR. EDGAR DUBSSHIMER, NEW YORK SCHOOL OF PEDAGOGY.

1. In my seminarium we developed a theoretical scheme for the scientific study of child mind.

2. We read in translation, privately made, Perez' "My Two Cats," in order to study the method of observation and record practiced by a trained psychologist of repute. Equally minute and detailed descriptions of children were begun and continued throughout the course. These reports are kept up throughout the year.

3. We entered on an extended observation of children's flow of association. The data were gathered in different schools by various persons and submitted to individuals of the class in turn for report in writing. These reports were publicly read and compared, and, of course, discussed. There was no "backing and filling." I had each original report on file. The scheme was to develop power in the public school teacher to tell all that can be told of a child's inner life by seeing his thought expression in form of words, drawings, modes, or anything he makes. A superintendent or principal, with keen perceptions exercised or developed by practice, will, in one swift glance, often detect hidden factors, and vastly increase the probabilities of giving the correct advice to a nonplussed teacher, besides gaining increased respect from teacher and scholar for power to penetrate character and detect motive.

4. This led up to a renewed study of plans of mental measurement serviceable for ordinary class-room use, and to a study of defects, or any marked mental traits indicated by physical signs.

5. I purpose keeping at this for the sake of my colleagues in public schools; to help those who leave my classes better to "size up" a pupil from combinations of symptoms. Personally, I took measurements of 300 pupils, and have reports from many more. Right here, I may refer you to the systematic measurements made at the Workingman's School by Dr. Groszmann, and the interesting conclusions to be drawn in an eminently practical way.

I know, too, that Dr. Shaw has made exhaustive experiments on hundreds of children as to vertical writing.

THE MOTOR ABILITY OF CHILDREN—A PRELIMINARY STUDY.

BY JOHN A. HANCOCK, CLARK UNIVERSITY, MASS.

[AN ABSTRACT.]

The enormous difference in ability between the child and the adult, both physically and mentally, is fully realized by few. While it is commonplace to say that there is such a difference, yet the practice of the school makes comparatively little allowance for it. Pedagogy is based on the psychology of the adult mind, and the conditions of school-room work are generally adapted to the adult. It is obvious that instruction and discipline should be adjusted to the mental and physical stages of development of children, and that we need to know just what the ability of children of each age is in order to plan a fitting course of education. How does the control, which the adult has, of muscles compare with that of the child? What kinds of movements can the child of any given age make in normal de-

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velopment? Do children in the course of such development have similar difficulties of muscle control to those found in old people suffering from diseases of muscles and nerves?

To aid in solving these problems the writer has made a series of tests in Worcester schools. The ages of the children were five, six and seven. All were in their first year of school work. No rejection of any child was made, except when over seven years of age. Two children were sent out to me together. Generally one or more teachers were present as well.

To test the control and co-ordination of the large muscles of the body the ataxiagraph was used.

The child was asked to stand with feet closed together and hands at sides, to keep his attention on a distant object, and to try to stand still for a minute. After this was done he had a half-minute or more of rest, when the test was repeated with eyes closed.

With eyes open there is an increase of control in each year. The girls are steadier than the boys. Both of these facts were to be expected, since girls mature earlier than boys, yet if the number of subjects was larger, and equal for each sex, a different result might be found.

During these tests frequent twitchings of the fingers were observed in a large majority. Out of this and the many other involuntary movements came the suggestion to try the steadiness of shoulder and finger, and so to get some comparative results for control of large and small muscles.

The instrument named by Jastrow[4] the "automatograph" was used.

No test, so far as known, having been made for this particular purpose, trials were first made on twenty-five of the Clark University men. The subject was seated with back supported, the hand and forearm resting with palms downward on the instrument, the elbow slightly flexed, in order that no strain might be brought on the muscles controlling it. The position admits of free lateral movement of the shoulder and of very little in a direction perpendicular to the body. The subject was asked to hold his arm still for a minute. He was told to do this as he looked at his hand. After an interval of a half-minute or more for rest, the test was repeated with the eyes closed. The averages for both men and children are as follows:

	EYES OPEN.		EYES CLOSED.	
	Perpendicular Movement.	Lateral.	Perpendicular Movement.	Lateral.
25 men	.242 cm. by	.752 cm.	.156 cm. by	1.490 cm.
18 boys, 5 years old	.816 cm. by	3.400 cm.	1.027 cm. by	4.916 cm.
15 girls, 5 years old	.833 cm. by	3.940 cm.	.780 cm. by	4.706 cm.
34 boys, 6 years old	1.191 cm. by	4.258 cm.	.805 cm. by	5.058 cm.
12 girls, 6 years old	.433 cm. by	3.883 cm.	1.825 cm. by	4.166 cm.
14 boys, 7 years old	.500 cm. by	3.750 cm.	.428 cm. by	5.207 cm.
10 girls, 7 years old	.410 cm. by	3.580 cm.	.480 cm. by	3.550 cm.

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The relative difference in the control of child and man here is greater. The rectangles are smaller because the levers are shorter, for one thing. The measurements in the case of the children are unsatisfactory so far as the perpendicular movement is concerned. The difficulty of keeping the children from moving the body, although it was well supported, was so great that this measurement is of little value as a test of control of shoulder movement. The breathing, also, influenced it more than it did the lateral movement. Recesses in all the schools were so short that the chances for active play unsettling the steadiness of the muscles were very slight.

Early in the work, the fact developed that children could not hold their attention for a whole minute on the index finger as requested. No amount of persuasion availed. After a half-minute, and sometimes before, all control of the finger seemed lost, hence the finger tests were all made for a half-minute on both men and children. Control of the muscles and attention seem to me to be too closely associated in young children to permit study of either separately.

The instrument multiplies the movement four times; the results are reduced accordingly. The same university men gave tracings for this test. The following are the results:

	WITH EYES OPEN.		EYES CLOSED.	
	Vertical Movement.	Lateral.	Vertical Movement.	Lateral.
The men	.0975 cm. by	.0911 cm.	.085 cm. by	.110 cm.
17 boys, 5 years old	.985 cm. by	.532 cm.	.794 cm. by	.680 cm.
14 girls, 5 years old	.580 cm. by	.337 cm.	.714 cm. by	.453 cm.
32 boys, 6 years old	.396 cm. by	.378 cm.	.689 cm. by	.534 cm.
12 girls, 6 years old	.394 cm. by	.319 cm.	.535 cm. by	.395 cm.
13 boys, 7 years old	.419 cm. by	.282 cm.	.693 cm. by	.442 cm.
8 girls, 7 years old	.300 cm. by	.356 cm.	.312 cm. by	.365 cm.

The same general relations hold in this table as in the others.

Bryan has shown [6] that the rate of tapping for the child of sixteen is about five times as great as for one of six, and that hand power is later than arm power in developing, but gains and eventually surpasses the arm power. Taking the rectangles of the standing and finger tests and the lateral measurements of the shoulder tests, the ratio of control between man and a five-year-old child in the swaying test is as 1 to 4.1; for the shoulder, 1 to 4.5; for the finger, 1 to 5.8. While these results may not stand with more extended research, the truth evidently lies in the direction they indicate; and, in my opinion, the motor control in man is from three to six times greater than that of children in the first year of school life.

The order of control is from fundamental to accessory, and is evidently in harmony with the theory of physiological development.

The following results are from simple and general tests, and throw some light on the motor ability of children to make complex co-ordinations, both of larger muscles and of smaller ones.

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A pattern found in most of the kindergarten guides consists of four slats interlaced. This was taken for a test, using slats eight inches long and one-half an inch wide. Four were taken and interlaced before the children, and left so for them to see. Four others were then given to each child and the children were asked to interlace them. The slats were interlaced a second or third time before the children, yet but one child—a girl of six—succeeded; nine copied the figure, the remaining fifty failed wholly. There was not opportunity to test more.

Have young children the power to make delicate co-ordinations? To test this power, 162 children were asked to rest their forearms on the table, the hands in an easy position with the fingers curved, the lower parts of the palms and the tips of the fingers touching the surface of the table, and then to begin tapping, letting the movements proceed rapidly from the little fingers to the thumbs. They were also asked to reverse the order, but all failed to do so; five succeeded somewhat slowly in tapping correctly with both hands; four were successful with the right hand only, and three with the left; fifty tapped with the whole hand, using a wrist motion; nine with the whole hand, using an elbow motion; five with the whole hand, with both an elbow and a wrist motion; forty-nine alternated the index finger with the other three; seven of these, however, did this with one hand only, the movement of the other being with all fingers moving together from the knuckles; twenty-five gave irregular movements indefinite and uncertain, and in many instances approaching success; in twelve cases the movement was from the knuckles, all of the fingers moving together.

I am not concerned at present with the effect of training on the ability of children to make these movements, but rather with the problem, what is the period of the development of function in the nerve centers controlling the finer muscles concerned in delicate co-ordinations? Evidently, for these children, it is only beginning.

Far less difficulty was experienced in tests involving the co-ordination of arm movements.

They were first asked to make one hand move in a circle on the breast; after this was started they were asked to place the other hand on top of the head and pat with it. In forty-five cases the result was either patting with both hands or movig them both in a circle. In the other ninety-seven cases there were first unsuccessful movements, often patting with both hands or moving both in a circle, or an alternating of these, but a considerable degree of success followed in each case.

One-hundred and sixty were shown how to beat time. Arm movements were used. Practically all could beat double time freely. Treble and quadruple were more difficult, but, by going slowly, it was

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done by all but fifteen in the not more than two minutes' time taken for each test.

I draw the following inferences at this point, subject to change or modification by more extended researches:

Children early learn to make movements involving large muscles. They succeed easily in large movements of some degree of complexity. The order of development of control is, evidently, body, shoulder, arm, forearm and hand. In the hand, control of the index finger differentiates before that of the others.

Fine and complicated movements are made with difficulty.

Efforts to keep quiet produce strong symptons of nervous irritation. Movement is inhibited only in part and awkward swaying and twitchings result.

Children have far less control of their muscles than adults, as is shown in each of the tables.

Generally the girl at the same age has better control than the boy.

Children in normal healthy growth show a lack of control and coordination paralleled only by ataxic, choreic and paralytic patients. This is based on the fact that 38 out of 150 showed the ataxic symptoms of dragging the feet, or walking with them wide apart, when asked to walk with eyes closed.

Sturgis[7] test for choreic tendencies showed that but half of 150 children tested were free from them. To show the importance of a knowledge of chorea and the value which Sturgis places on the test, I give here his own statement:

"1. Movement disorder is the product and the index of mental disturbances, and may be known by nice observation of the higher muscles (the face and hands) before it has reached the stage to which the term of St. Vitus' dance (or chorea) properly applies.

"2. When the school child (and especially the girl between seven and twelve or thereabouts) alters in temper, works less well, less willingly than usual, gets untidy or slovenly, in a word, degenerates mentally and bodily, inquire of the mother as to home conduct and temper. Ask particularly how the child sleeps and whether she complains of headache or limb-ache and whether her food is sufficient.

"3. Amongst the incidents of school life apt to be injurious in the way we are considering, there stand out prominently examinations, moving into a higher class, sums (too difficult or ill explained), and punishment or admonition before fellows.

"4. The best index of muscular infirmity tending to St. Vitus' dance is the hand. Face mobility may be simply nervousness, the tongue may be tremulous by nature. The hand test is infallible, and may be thus applied:

"Bid the child hold up both hands open, with extended arms, the palms towards you. If that is done steadily, both hands upright and

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both alike, no finger or hand quivering, no falling back of either hand, nothing to choose between the positions of the two, then the child has not nor is it near (either before or after) St. Vitus' dance. You may confirm this test by another. Let the child place the open hands upon yours, palm to palm. Look then at the backs of the child's hands, observe whether fingers or thumbs (especially the latter) repose without tremor and without restraint."[7]

In the gradual acquisition of control of its muscles, the child needs to be carefully guarded from inconsiderate treatment. He should, if chorea seems at all imminent, be taken out of school, freed from responsibility and given for some weeks a quiet out-of-door life, with plenty of nourishing food and as much sleep as possible.

It remains to consider briefly the principles of physiological development and certain pedagogical experiments in relation to the foregoing results:

Exercise is a term with a great variety of meaning. In its relation to education it is, to quote Du Bois-Reymond,[8] "the frequent repetition of more or less complicated action of the body with the cooperation of the mind, or of an action of the mind alone, for the purpose of being able to perform it better."

The close relation between muscle, nerve and mind makes it impossible for exercise to affect one alone. The various senses and powers of mind are all called into play to give proper adjustment to the muscles in all the range of activity, from the play of the child to the work of the artist and artisan. Herein lie great possibilities of education. Motor centers make up about one-third of the brain. By motor training brain growth and mental activity are increased, and new avenues are opened leading to a more intimate acquaintance with the world.

The laws of physical development should be more regarded in the construction of systems of education.

Much emphasis is thrown, in ordinary discussion, on the necessity of making directions exceedingly clear, to get children to do what is required of them. The student of children has it strongly impressed on him that the child ordinarily has very slight power of sustained attention, except in the lines of his spontaneous activities and interests, and that he cannot grasp anything in any great detail. His mental powers are very small. As Barnes has shown,[14] the child thinks in units, fragmentary and broken. Such logic as it has is very poor. It is interesting to note that Hodge found the curve of search in carrier pigeons, dogs and man logical,[15] while that of children was illogical in the extreme. The activities and emotions are dominant in childhood, and yet we insist on training the intellect from the first primary year. Mental growth should proceed on lines in har-

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mony with the law of development. The applications of the law should be made especially to all phases of motor training.

A few suggestions are offered: Physical training should constantly supplement manual training. Manual training should utilize the hammer and saw before the knife. Vertical writing should be taught younger children. From some hundreds of specimens of children's first efforts in writing, I find the great majority of down strokes are vertical, or nearly so. When not vertical, the tendency is to slant the down strokes to the right. Writing may well be begun late and be done on blackboards for some months. Early writing on paper should be large and without ruled lines.

Many of Barnes' conclusions in regard to drawing seem to be in harmony with the law of physiological development. Kindergarten work is generally too fine. Too great precision, involving delicate and complex co-ordinations in pasting, folding, pricking and sewing, is insisted on. Occupations and games for young children should be of a nature that will involve large muscles and movements.

Teachers can at least give much help with such work and permit frequent games that involve large muscles. It is a sin against the child to compel him, as a punishment, to forfeit his recess.

This paper can only be preliminary. Its results must be supplemented by more extended investigations.

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CHILDREN'S LOVE OF NATURE.

BY SUP'T. W. A. HOYT, BROOKFIELD, MASS.

[AN ABSTRACT.]

At a meeting of the college representatives last November, Professor Dolbear of Tufts presented a paper, in which he declared: "The results of the teaching of science in schools of all kinds have been a great disappointment to the friends and advocates of science-teaching. This is as true abroad as at home. The matter was discussed at length at the last meeting of the British Association."

May it not be that the occasion for this disappointment is in the failure to recognize how early the attention of the child must be directed to nature and in what light he should view her?

Too little attention as yet has been given to child study to determine at what age, generally, there is an awakening to the charms of nature. Various are the avenues that lead to her enchanting palace; in many instances, too, that which in early years attracts gives place later to some different fascination; and easily is this shown in the case of eminent scientists. The motion and songs of canary birds have unmistakably given delight to a child of twelve months. Indeed, now and then, a fond father, in the case of his child who has not uttered an intelligible word, has heard in the invigorating air and beauty of out-doors inarticulate sounds which he believes evidence of joyful susceptibility to nature's elixir; and in support of this Mr. Beers writes: "A child experiences an almost purely physical pleasure from the play of the outward world on his senses." A child of thirteen months has shown her pleasure at the sight of moon and stars, and again and again has "greeted them with a shout of joy." The impressionability of a child is hardly realized. The love of Walden began almost in Thoreau's infancy. In his last records, Jeffries tells his amanuensis that he sees in the sun-lit water barred pike and floating clouds of his childhood. Scott has of the borderland "infantile memories." Agassiz's love of natural history displayed itself close to years of infancy. Tennyson, in his last years, paints a vivid picture of his early playgrounds. Indeed, "the study of almost any poet's childhood, in connection with his works, will show that his strongest, most vivid, and most lasting impressions of nature were his earliest."

How early color and odor of flowers attract attention; what a desire for possession seizes the child! Huxley thinks there is something kindred between the child and the flowers she holds, as if going back to those early ages when they were appreciated not alone for their beauty and fragrance, but were regarded as the bond con-

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necting man with the mysteries of the life encircling him. Did not the adult Greeks feel this, when, at their festivals, altars were festooned with roses, and guests at feasts were decorated with the essential garlands; when songs of joy filled the air, as Mother Earth arose from winter's sleep with the pulsating life of spring; when, in turn, at harvest-time, as the leaves and flowers faded and fell, Sorrow solaced herself in fitting requiems?—

> The melancholy days * * *, the saddest of the year,
> Of wailing winds, and naked woods, and meadows brown and sere.

Shall we not accredit Dickens with knowledge of child-life? Has not his sympathetic simplicity been a passport to the deep recesses in the haven of the heart and emotions, as he writes the well known lines of little Nell: "Her couch was dressed with here and there some winter berries and green leaves, gathered in a spot she had been used to favor. 'When I die, put near me something that has loved the light and had the sky above it always?'"

Recently a teacher of children varying from six to nine years carried a growing maiden's-hair fern into the school-room. This aroused interest and curiosity above any of the other numerous specimens. The children came forward to the desk, talked to it as to a pet animal, and with their tiny hands softly patted it, with endearing epithets.

Froebel tells us what an experience was his when in boyhood he was just becoming acquainted with the attractions of the outward world. He found in his father's garden a little red flower with five petals, each dotted with gold. As he pored over its beauty, he fancied he could see into its depths; hours at a time he studied it then, and in succeeding years. He tried to voice its message, but could not; yet he never tired of watching it, enamored of its mystery. And why should not the flower fascinate the boy? Like him it was born, it respires, sleeps, takes and digests nourishment. In Plato's beautiful figure, man himself is a plant, not of earthly, but of heavenly origin.

In the case of a few of Nature's children, let us trace recognition of her charms: Humboldt, as a child, displayed a fondness for natural history. His favorite playthings were flowers, butterflies, beetles, stones, shells, which he was jealous in collecting.

What an exceptional life was that of Jeffries, one who in adult years was sustained afield! In boyhood, his father by his side was ever ready to provoke curiosity, to lead to the home of insect or bird, to familiarize with habit, to peer into secrets with hardly the air of intrusion, responsive to all the varied influences affecting senses so keen, delicate, discriminating.

When the school days of Tyndall began, he had already as a foundation an affectionate intimacy with the outer world. Birds, plants and rambles had endeared it to him.

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Bryant, in his boyhood, was given to collecting shells and minerals. He writes: "I was always from my earliest years a delighted observer of external nature. * * * The poets fostered this taste in me." "Man is necessarily a naturalist."

Agassiz, in his boyhood, was possessed with the mania for collecting birds' nests, eggs, especially insects, and other objects from the world of life. Love of acquaintance with such objects is said to have been a mental trait with him and not a mere desire "to find friends and playmates" in the animals about him. With his brother, he haunted forest and stream. He knew the birds by song and sight; he had a knowledge of their habits, food and life. He waded in the brook, watched the fishes and sometimes captured them with peculiar devices all his own. Not satisfied with the life he lived in communion with the animal world out-of-doors, he converted his room into a habitat for his pets and favorites—his home was theirs.

Audubon's boyhood extended through life. His first recollections are linked with the flowers, the orange-tree, and mocking-bird, "the king of song" in Louisiana. He says, that, so remarkably vivid were his earliest impressions of Nature, that her beauties excited a "frenzy" in his blood, and at a very early age his career could have been predicted.

Boyesen was distinguished in his boyhood for his love of pigeons, rabbits, dogs, cows and horses. The pigeons, several hundred, he named after characters in books he had read, and viewed them as actually impersonating such. Under the tuition of Gunnar, he was fascinated by the secrets of the woods, in which he sometimes passed a night, the better to watch the movements of some bird or animal, and become acquainted with its habits and peculiarities. His intimacy with animals and love of them are touchingly brought out on the occasion of leaving home to attend his first school. The morning came, the steamer was at the pier, but the boy was not to be found. An anxious and protracted search began, messengers being sent in every direction. The suggestion was made that he might have gone to the pasture to bid the cows good-bye. This, sure enough, had been the case. He had said his farewells to several, but in his grief he was unable to part from his favorite calf, around whose neck he was clinging, his tears a child's witness to the bondage of love.

Readers of Ruskin are aware of his strong passion in the presence of landscape, and his love for the beautiful in nature. He has sketched the development of it. The first thing he remembers as eventful in his life was his visit, under the guidance of the nurse, to "Friar's crag on Derwentwater; the intense joy, mingled with awe, that I had in looking through the hollows in the mossy roots, over the crag, into the lake, has associated itself more or less with all twining roots of trees ever since." He remembers, likewise, a walk

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up hill on a winter morning, "when the rocks were hung with icicles." Whenever in the vicinity of hills or in mountain scenery, "I had a pleasure, as early as I can remember, and continually till I was eighteen or twenty, infinitely greater than any which has been since possible to me in anything; comparable in intensity only to the joy of a lover in being near a noble and kind mistress, but no more explicable or definable than that feeling of love itself."

With such scenery, there were always thought-associations. Very early reading and parental instruction had prepared him for this. His favorite book was Scott's "Monastery;" "so that Glenfarg and all other glens were more or less enchanted to me, filled with forms of hesitating creed about Christie of the Clint Hill, and the monk, Eustace, and with a general presence of White Lady everywhere."

We might, also, study with similar results the child-life of such men as John Burroughs and Gilbert White and many others.

Such is the record of some of Nature's noblemen. Why does it not approximate the condition generally of the child to-day? One cause is the decline of country life. Children used to live under the influence of forest, field, pasture, lake and stream; much of their lives was thus spent. But the city child is with his kind, and rarely alone with nature. A large proportion of modern city children, on entering school, according to careful statistical observations of President Hall and others, have never seen a sunrise, sunset or rainbow; have no idea where potatoes and most common vegetables come from; have never seen the most common birds, as robin, bluebird and crow; know nothing of growing buttercup, clover, corn, dandelion, roses, grapes, strawberries; never have seen a forest, squirrel, bee, living fish, or even a sheep; do not know the use of plough, spade or hoe; are ignorant of the origin of butter, leathern goods, flour, woolen fabrics, wooden objects—the data with which all their primers are concerned.

There is little doubt, from all we are coming to know of the child, that in his flitting fancies are to be seen traces of about all the outgrown superstitions of the race. If his individual development does run parallel with that of the race, it must needs be that Science, instead of exterminating superstition, as she strives to do in the adult, should rather foster it in the child. If she makes war upon it prematurely, she destroys her own foundation. Crude and fond myths, lying so warm and so long about the heart, fertilize the roots of love of science in childhood. They are the pledge and mold of a feeling toward nature which must not be too early intellectualized. We should not thwart Nature in her endeavor to fill the child with the animistic feeling that everything has an inner life sympathetic with his own. Savage life seems a kind of macrocosm of childhood. If so, we may use the anthropology of primitive man as the common

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child life writ large, or so highly magnified that all its latent germs and tendencies stand out in bold relief.

The crude superstitions of primitive races—the wildest of them—are still very vital for childhood, and both show and strengthen man's pristine closeness to nature. Let those who doubt try them upon young children, and they will realize that childhood thrives in the world of myth. If this seem a questionable statement, let me suggest a few specific tales to be sympathetically told to children of from five to ten years, as follows: The tale of Arachne, turned into a spider for daring to compete with the divine weaver, Aurora; the tale of Tithonus, who asked for immortality, but forgot to ask for eternal youth, and so shriveled up with age, and was turned into the first grasshopper; the origin of the sunflower from Clytie, the water-nymph; of laurel from Daphne; of the first pair of oak trees from Philemon and Baucis; of the robin in the Indian tale, where its human original fanned the dying flame that saved the world from the ice age of the great polar bear. Let him tell the whole story of the dying summer, as the death of Baldur, or the tale of the seasons in the myth of Persephone stolen by Pluto. Such a pedagogy brings us to that lost point in the psychogenesis of the child and race where science and religion have their common origin, and gives new zest to all forms of the interpretation of nature and life.

In conclusion, those who are concerned for the welfare of science in educational institutions admit the imperfect success attending their efforts. The right attitude toward it has not generally been taken. Scientific men of the professional order must look above and beyond the discovery of fact to the contemplation of the discovery like Newton and Kepler. In his early years the student should have his attention mainly directed, not to microscopic aspects of phenomena, but to macroscopic and cosmic. His feelings of interest and sympathy with the life about him should be kept warm and glowing. Too true are the words of Gibson: "We are as much strangers in nature as we are aliens from God. The fox and the deer run away from us." We need the old-fashioned star-gazing and tracing of constellations, as in Burritt's map of the heavens; we need the Wednesday and Saturday excursion, with equipment of hammer, collecting case, and net for capturing butterflies and insects.

The laboratory is the end and never can be the beginning of our devotions to nature. All its methods are not essential, but instrumental—not ends, but means. We may abhor paganism as the ascetics did the body, but it is the condition of science, and the flower cannot be complete unless the roots strike into a rich, deep, dirty soil. Thus, whenever we can teach out-of-doors, have school excursions, substitute real flowers for their pictures, growing ones for picked samples, living for dead animals, dead ones for stuffed speci-

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mens, the environment of nature for that of the school-room, we foster the true love of nature. The spirit of botany is where the flowers grow; of zoology, where creatures thrill with the joy of being; of geology, where the rocks are found; of astronomy, in the silence of the open air—silence save the "music of the spheres." The surprising ignorance of nature on the part of children entering upon school life. ought not to be possible. Professor Trelease writes: "I believe in beginning the study of nature before the child learns to read, and in continuing it as an out-of-door recreation through life, whatever his ultimate specialty may be."

In this he is right. We must begin early, before the more and more evanescent oneness with nature, which is the glory of childhood, has forever faded. Only thus shall we secure to Mother Nature her rightful dominion. We must start in the lower grades of our educational system, remembering that the greater and higher anything is in the soul the deeper its roots must strike.

CHILDREN'S EXPRESSION THROUGH DRAWING.

BY PROF. M. V. O'SHEA, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MANKATO, MINN.

[AN ABSTRACT.]

For about two years several lines of experiment upon the relation of expression through drawing to a child's mental activities have been carried on in the Mankato Normal School and in some of the public schools of Minnesota, and it will be the purpose of this paper to state briefly what these have been, and to indicate certain results that seem to be in view, but which will be given here tentatively, awaiting further data from the working over of a large amount of material that it has been impossible as yet to examine. Two principal lines of study have been made, each supplementing the other, the object throughout being to discover the relation of representation to the contents and operations of the child's mind in certain directions. In the first place, a study was made upon the general form and characteristics of representations of objects that were drawn to tell a bit of narration or description, usually cast into the story form; and also, drawings made from objects seen and from memory were studied in the same way. Second, the relations in time and place, and the proportions shown in the objects drawn were studied; and an attempt was made to discover if they represented relations and proportions actually conceived by the child. A large number of drawings for these studies have been obtained from school children

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in the practice department of the Mankato Normal School, and in the training and city schools of St. Paul, and the city schools of Rochester; and there were, in addition, some younger children between three and four years of age experimented upon in their own homes. All those in the Mankato Normal who made drawings, and quite a number from other schools, were subjected to tests of vision and motor-ability and the results kept in record with other data concerning the drawing; and careful statements based upon close study of the physical and intellectual characteristics of each child were obtained from many teachers under whom the drawings were made, and these have also been of account in certain studies.

It was found after considerable trial that the attempt to interpret these drawings as expressions of the mental characteristics and activities of their authors, or to account for them if they were not such, necessitated much familiarity with the habits and capabilities of mind and body of a number of children, in order to search out and study everything that could in any way contribute to an understanding of the peculiarities shown in the drawings. For this purpose about fifty children in the normal school in Mankato were studied in a rather thorough manner; and it is the desire here to indicate some of the conclusions which it seems possible to draw from these special studies, and upon which as a basis it is the purpose to work over more carefully the material gathered from outside sources, making, if possible, some statistical tables which have not been worked out extensively yet. About ten thousand story drawings have been obtained from children between the ages of four and eleven, at least six being made by every child; while from the fifty children upon whom special studies were made an average of thirty-five drawings were obtained, these being made at intervals extending over a period of nine months. Such stories as "The Three Bears," "Johnny-Look-in-the-Air," (used by Professor Barnes in his extensive and admirable study), "The Lion and the Mouse," "Jack Frost," and quite a number of original stories for the purpose of bringing in certain objects in particular relations and events, were used. These were read or told twice to the children, who were asked to tell them back on paper without help from anyone.

I. In the study of these drawings the first question asked was: "Do children refrain from drawing certain objects in a story because of the difficulty of representation?" As an aid toward answering this, the children were given perfect freedom to express any difficulties which they met with in illustrating a number of stories, and to consult the experimenter upon any point that troubled them. They were closely observed while the story was being read to them and during the making of the drawings; and, when they had finished, the story was told orally without consulting the draw-

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ings, to see if objects and events were remembered that were not pictured. From the records of 500 cases studied in this way, about one per cent indicated that they could not represent certain objects; among these being a bridge, a horse and carriage, and a fairy that had a part in one of the stories. However, only four children out of thirty specially tested failed to draw the fairy; and we saw no hesitancy either with our children in representing the wind, "Jack Frost," and other invisible things. It seems, that, with children of this age, there are few objects ever seen or heard of that are too difficult for speedy and confident representations.

But, while it is probable that they are readily and easily drawn as a whole, still young children often say that they cannot represent the activities or some of the special attributes of an object. In the story of "Silver-hair," when she is running away from the bears, the children often say, "She is running, but I cannot make her so;" or they cannot make both feet turned the right way when a boy or girl is walking in any direction, but instead the feet are turned in opposite ways. And so there are many conditions of objects similar to these which individual children find difficulty with; but this does not seem to hinder them from representing the object so that the story may be told.

It would seem, then, that children from four to nine, or thereabouts, represent the objects involved in drawing a story as readily and with as much pleasure as they would in repeating the story orally, or even in listening to it. After the age of eight or nine, it seems that the difficulties of representing begin to be really appreciated, and there is less confidence and satisfaction in the work. To test this farther, I had quite a number of children of different ages draw first from some object or person present, and then from memory some object or person well known to them; and, while not one in ten children up to nine years of age, made any objection whatever, I had to encourage those beyond that age to do the best they could; and many of them seemed quite overpowered at first, especially in representing a boy or girl whom they could see. I noticed, also, that younger children rarely hesitate in drawing from memory, but go straight to work with their lines and dots to make man, woman, child, or other object; while older children seem to be absorbed in meditation and do not draw so readily. It is true, that, in older children's drawings, more characteristics and qualities of things are shown; and it seems probable, also, that qualities are perceived or remembered that require deliberation to picture, and sometimes the task is too difficult. It should be said in this connection that young children do not always represent in their drawings all they remember of an ordinary story; but this must be accounted for, probably, by their physical inability to continue a great time at any

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one task, and must not be laid to their lack of understanding how to represent objects. Once in a while older and stronger children repeat orally more than they tell upon paper; and they say, in apology, that they were in a hurry, or had no room, but hardly ever that they did not know how.

II. The purpose of the second study was to find out if children represent those objects and events that appeal most to their interest, and thereby claim their attention. If there is no difficulty in drawing objects to tell a story, then it might be supposed that those parts of the story which aroused the interest of the child to the greatest degree would be the ones that would be continually in consciousness and that would get themselves worked out in the illustration. It appears, though, that there are important disturbing elements in the ordinary class-room that prevent the representation of those objects and events which the individual child would be most interested in; for one cannot observe a class of children, while some bright story is read or told to them, without seeing that certain points are unduly impressed upon the class because of the expression of one or two demonstrative members. For example, in the "Bear Story" when "Silver-hair" sits in one of the chairs and breaks it, the humorous faculty of one or two boys in the class is aroused; and giving way to their feelings they get the whole class to laughing, a suspension of the reading for a moment is made necessary, and these unusual conditions tend to impress this one particular event upon each pupil in the class. And further, it is difficult to find a teacher who does not by her voice or manner, unconsciously though it may be, impress upon pupils her own feelings and interpretations of the story which she reads; and while this is a most commendable trait in the teacher, it seriously interferes with the results of any experiments to determine the interests of individual children.

III. One of the most interesting studies made was upon the diagrams and symbols which the children used to represent objects, the aim being to trace out the origin of the peculiarities or characteristic of each child's drawings. The question was asked: What has led the child to make this distinctive kind of a diagram to represent a given object? With young children the human face is always round, with two dots upon it for eyes, somewhat of a scrawl for a nose, and one for a mouth. But ears and hair are not so often found, while the body is either a single line, or an irregular oval, with lines branching off from it for the limbs. Quite often the arms are omitted, but never the lower limbs, showing that the youngest child appreciates the necessity for something to support the body. In some cases there are evidences of raiment; and in every case, with children of all ages, girls are clothed, even in drawings where the boy figures never show any trace of clothing. These are substantially

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the characteristics that always appear in a representation of the human form, the only exception being that with some of the older and more thoughtful children the faces are made in profile and the relations and proportions between the different parts of the body are more reasonable. Sometimes a few other features are added, such as buttons on the coat, feathers in the girls' hats, and buttons on the shoes; but these are comparatively rare. A tree is at first a vertical line with half a dozen branches shooting out on either side, and these do not bear twigs and leaves until the child is eight or nine, when a substantial trunk also begins to appear; and quite often a volume of roots are as visible as any other part, and apparently of more importance. A house usually has a roof and two sides shown, although in a number of cases the end of the house only is seen. There is always a chimney with smoke twirling up to the clouds, and hardly ever more than one door, but all the way from one to ten windows. Animals have long oval bodies with four legs, tail and head in profile; and even in drawings where the human face is always a front view, animals' faces will be in profile. A table is a horizontal line supported by four vertical lines. Beds and chairs show some diversity, and yet everyone shows the essential characteristics. Windows show four bordering lines with two bisecting lines, vertical and horizontal. There is much diversity in the drawing of a river, probably explained by the fact that many children have never seen a river, and the only characteristic they know about, or at least think about, is water; and this they put into square or circular patches narrow or broad areas, and various other forms.

Enough has been said to indicate that one basis for the diagrams made by the child to represent any object is his comprehension of the distinguishing characteristics of that class of objects. A child's diagrams are, in a way, pictures of the concepts he has of the various classes of things that he tries to represent. The young child is not bothered with anything but fundamental attributes, and his diagrams are built on these alone, while with older children it seems that additional characteristics are added as they are perceived and their relations comprehended; and it is probably the consciousness of the great number of characteristics which inhere in every object that overpowers the child of twelve or thirteen in his effort to represent them all in their right relations. A significant fact about them is, that they are always the same for any one child; and while all display the fundamental characteristics, there are still some features in each individual case which make each child's peculiar to himself. An attempt was made to account for this individuality in the representations of things by inquiring if the child takes some object in his environment as a model in his representations of that

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object in any story. About 400 drawings were studied with their authors to find out if the objects they had represented had characteristics like those which were best known to them. A good opportunity to test this was afforded by the "Bear Story," where the exterior as well as the interior furnishings of a house were represented a number of times by each child. In no case did there seem to be an attempt to reproduce the form of their own house, although three school buildings had steeples something like the normal building where the children attended school. The other school buildings were all conventional, with no indications of the influence of any particular building in the making. The interior of the homes were very much alike, showing an upstairs and downstairs with appropriate furniture, and every one having stairs to reach the upper story; but in several instances stoves and the entire course of stovepipe to the chimney were shown, and these were copied from their own or grandmother's house.

The evidence seems to indicate that the child is possessed of a system of symbols which he uses to represent objects at all times and places without any care to make his representations reproduce the special characteristics of any distinct object of a class. Several series of experiments gave additional data in favor of this view. In the first place, the diagrams used in the representation of any of a number of objects were traced throughout the whole of the children's drawings, which extended over a year with the pupils in our normal school; and with many of the most familiar objects, as boy, girl, tree, house, sun, sky, stars, ground, four-footed animals, and so on, there was an average of 150 representations made by each child. The result of this tracing has shown that the peculiar diagrammatical representation of any object is strikingly characteristic of a child in all of his drawings, and any one characteristic that appears in an object in any picture will be shown in all the pictures of that object drawn. Some children always show roots to the trees; always have the feet in human beings turned out in opposite directions; always have the arms straight out; some always have clothing showing the buttons; some show the interior of the house in every picture of that object that they make; some always make the sun and sky, trees, grass and flowers, when these are not mentioned in the story. One cannot observe many of the drawings of any child without seeing that his characteristic symbols are used to represent classes of objects without any attempt being made to indicate special characteristics of particular members of these classes.

To test this somewhat farther, a number of children in our school, from whom we had gotten many representations of men and boys in their story drawings, were requested to draw some boy or man whom they could look at. In quite a number of cases the writer posed as

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a model, while the children with great earnestness and readiness represented him upon paper. It was very interesting to see, no matter in what position he stood, the same picture grow under the artist's hand as he had made hundreds of times before with no one to look at. Children who made full front views in the story would also make a front view when they saw a model in profile. It seems otherwise with older children, though, for I have been unable to get those above ten to represent readily a person whom they could look at, and who stood in a different position from what they had been accustomed to represent in their drawings. In addition to representing an object that was before the child a number of drawings were obtained in which some familiar playmate was represented from memory by the side of representations of myself in various positions; and, with the exception of some one or two trifling differences, the drawings were all just the same.

Another experiment along this line was tried with all of our children between the ages of five and seventeen. This was drawing a chair or table, or other familiar object, of which some parts were more or less ornamented. The child was intimately acquainted with the use of every object, and care was taken to place it in such position that it would be easy to represent in form and outline. Directions were given to reproduce the object, and it was not indicated in any way that the ornamentation was or was not to be included. The results showed that with children of five the ornamentation was never represented; with children of eight exactly fifty per cent of the drawings showed evidence that their authors tried to reproduce the ornamentation; while with persons of sixteen, some of whom had had but little instruction in drawing, eighty-seven per cent represented the objects ornamented. It seems that young children do not regard details in things, but look upon them as wholes, capable of being put to some practical use; and they make the simplest sort of lines to represent parts of that whole. It has, I believe, been shown by Professor Barnes, from a somewhat different method of experimentation, that children are concerned at first mainly with the uses of things, and only after a time come to observe and appreciate detailed characteristics; and it is the same in narration and description as with single objects. Their interest seems to be in the thing as a whole described or narrated, and they go to work to picture this thought-whole, paying almost as little attention to the making of individual things required to portray the various events as they would pay to their spoken language if they were going to tell it. After children have been under the drawing teacher for a while, though, and have reproduced somewhat from nature it appears that they begin to appreciate details in things and to show them in their drawings.

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IV. The purpose of the last study made thus far was to discover if the logical relations and proportions shown in the drawings corresponded with the child's actual thinking of these. In some drawings there is nothing but confusion and disorder displayed throughout, while in other reproductions it is easy to discover the logical relations of events, and the proportions do not impress one as being very unreal or unnatural. With some children, it seems that as many objects as are remembered are put upon the paper wherever it happens, and only very few of the actual relations existing in nature are indicated. It is always true, however, that the sky is the topmost thing in a picture, and the sun, moon, stars and clouds above everything earthly. The ground is always under the house. Smoke always rises from the chimneys; and a few other similar relations always seem to be understood correctly even by the youngest children. But, if a boy is walking along the road and falls into a river, the river may be away off some place and only a mere circular or square patch of water. How the boy gets into it is apparently never thought out by the artist. People go into houses that have no doors or windows; steps run up to the rear of a house where there is no door. Fishes are shown living out of water; the sun appears lower than the clouds; and hundreds of other impossible things are frequently seen. Something of the same kind can be seen in the proportions preserved between the objects in the pictures. Bears will be made as large as the house they live in, and a dozen times larger than the doors they go through. Some of the children tell a whole story in one picture, while others make a number to tell the same thing. It has been found, however, that children below eight or nine years of age find no difficulty in putting everything they want to into one picture. Some get a portion of the story logically and then fill in the rest of it as best they can, all in one picture. In the "Bear Story" there is a possibility of twenty different views, showing the progression of events; and this was first read to all of the children as a whole, and reproduced from this reading. One exceptionally bright girl thirteen years of age made thirteen views in a half hour's drawing, missing no one in regular order as far as she went. No other drawing had more than eight. This same girl made seven views for "Johnny-look-in-the-Air;" and it may be mentioned that she was known to all of her teachers as the brightest student in the class. In our own school very few made more than one drawing to represent the "Bear Story," while a number made two to tell the story of "Johnny-look-in-the-Air," and two or three to tell other stories that had six or seven distinct scenes in them. It can be said, in general, that, with children to eight or nine years of age, a whole story is crowded into one or two pictures, which makes it in some measure illogical and confused. It would perhaps be too presumptive to attempt to say

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whether the general logical relations and proportions expressed in a drawing are an exact index to a child's mental operations and conceptions; but it is worthy of note that a teacher who has had charge of a child for some time will, on seeing his drawings, say in almost every instance that she would expect such results as were secured. Such a child will be either physically weak or very restless, or constantly absorbed in what is going on about him. On the other hand, the children who impress their teachers as being bright, and who always show interest in what they are doing, usually make drawings that preserve the logical arrangement of events and objects, and in which the proportions are fairly good.

It may be said that a lack of right proportions in objects is not necessarily indicative of a child's inability to conceive the true proportions of these things, but that objects are drawn out of proportion to indicate the relative importance which they have in the mind of the child. There can be no doubt that this is true in some cases; but in others it is hardly true, as when a table is made twice as tall as the girl who is to eat from it. With some children only one thing is held in the mind at a time, and when this is made to pass out, the next object takes entire possession of consciousness, so that when a picture is completed things are out of proportion and out of sequence. It appears, though, that this lack of ability to visualize more than one thing at a time depends largely upon the child. The physical element of temperament, whether nervous or calm, easily discouraged or persevering, has an important influence upon the child's logical thinking. It determines whether ideas or pictures come and go without much power of restraint and control, or whether they linger in the mind and are not dispelled every instant by an overflow of nervous energy, or by some other distracting influence. In all the drawings a record was kept of the order in which each object was made, and in some it was noticed just how and in what sequence the parts of each object were represented; and it is the purpose to work this over later, to see if there is any correspondence between illogical drawings and an illogical order in the making. In some cases studied children would build a house and then put ground under it; or they would make the furniture of a house and put the sides and roof around them afterward. Quite a number of the children observed made the sky first, and then seemed to fill in everything else as they happened to think of it. One restless girl without much power of application, but possessing some native brightness, proceeded this way in making a human being; she first made a round head, and then a loop for a body; then one limb, and dressed it with pantaloons; then she made the ground for him to stand on, and then made the other limb and dressed it appropriately.

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ANNUAL MEMBERSHIP FOR THE YEAR ENDING JULY 1, 1894.

ALABAMA.

Aehn, Mrs. E. N., Birmingham.
Anderson, M. R., Montgomery.
Baker, A. C., Selma.
Bragg, E. T., Montgomery.
Bryce, Ellen Peter, Tuscaloosa.
Bullock, Miss E. M., Montgomery.
Cary, C. W., Montevallo.
Cary, Lucy J., Montevallo.
Challfoux, O., Birmingham.
Clark, N. R., Mobile.
Crenshaw, J. H., Montgomery.
Cumming, Kate, Birmingham.
Ellasberg, A., Selma.
Goldstein, I. W., Birmingham.
Hassett, T. J., Birmingham.
Hankins, J. R., Eufaula.
Higgins, Mrs. S., Birmingham.
Klos, A. Ria, Birmingham.
Larkin, T. J., Marion.
La Taste, L. V., Montgomery.
La Taste, Mrs., Montgomery.
Lefkovitz, A., Birmingham.
Lefkovitz, Mrs. A., Birmingham.
Loeb, B., Montgomery.
Loeb, I., Selma.
Massey, John, Tuskegee.
Morgan, J. W., Jr., Florence.
Morgan, Mrs. J. W., Jr., Florence.
Morissette, E. R., Mobile.
Oden, Bussey, Childersburg.
O'Neill, W. C., Dothan.
O'Neill, J. T., Dothan.
Phillips, John H., Birmingham.
Pirdham, Geo., Mobile.
Roquemore, John D., Montgomery.
Rosenbaum, S. I., Bessemer.
Smith, L. G., Florence.
Smith, A. G., Florence.
Smith, C., Anniston.
Taylor, W. D., Bessemer.
Ullman, L., Anniston.
Werthemer, J. S., Birmingham.

Alabama—42

ARIZONA.

Coy, W. A., Phenix.
Netherton, F. J., Mesa.

Arizona—2.

ARKANSAS.

Ball, P. A., Fort Smith.
Braen, B., Helena.
Cockrill, S. R., Pine Bluff.
Crapullo, Tony, Little Rock.
Futrall, T. A., Marianna.
Geldert, B. H., Arcadelphia.
Herz, S., Little Rock.
Jones, A. G., Batesville.
Jordan, Junius, Pine Bluff.
Kellogg, A. M., Vanburen.
Kohlus, Mrs. D., Little Rock.
Long, E. R., Batesville.
Myers, Bettie, Helena.
Myers, Mrs. Charles, Helena.
Miller, Anna A., Springdale.
Miller, W. M., Springdale.
Miller, F. W., Arcadelphia.
Mullen, J. C., Fort Smith.
Raenhert, F. A., Helena.
Savage, M., Little Rock (2).
Shinn, J. H., Little Rock.
Sparks, G. I., Fort Smith.
Sparks, M. B., Fort Smith.
Mullen, J. Sylvester, Fort Smith.

Arkansas—25.

CALIFORNIA.

Stovall, Anna M., San Francisco.

California—1.

COLORADO.

Asay, L. M., Denver.
Asay, R. S., Denver.
Baggs, E. C., Denver.
Baker, James H., Boulder.
Beggs, Helen O., Denver.
Beggs, R. H., Denver.
Bell, A., Denver.
Campbell, G. H., Denver.
Carter, Chas. M., Denver.
Clinton, Chas. Denver.
Cox, Rossi R., Denver.
Dodge, O. D., Colorado Springs (2).
Eckhoff, Wm. J., Boulder.
Elder, Andrew W., Denver.
Elder, Helen, Denver.
Elder, Edith E., Denver.
Fleming, Miss M., Denver.
Foster, M. T., Denver.
Gordon, J. R., Pueblo.
Hart, Chas. M., Denver.
Haslop, Ida B., Pueblo.
Hayward, Emily A., Denver.
Herrick, Elizabeth A., Denver.
Higgin, F. G., Denver.
Kall, Thos. W., Denver.
Keith, Mrs. O. P., Denver.
Kelleher, M., Denver.
Kerr, H. W., Denver.
Knapp, W. E., Denver.
Lowell, H. A., Hugo.

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COLORADO—*Continued.*

Malony, Kittie, Denver.
Malony, Rose, Denver.
Mayer, May O., Denver.
McClure, Adelia, Denver.
McDonald, D. G., Denver.
McLauthlin, Alden B., Denver.
McLauthlin, Dr. H. W., Denver.
McLauthlin, Mrs. H. W., Denver.
Myers, D. F., Montevista.
Ogden, S. A., Denver.
Paddock, Geo. E., Denver.
Perlek, Mrs. H., Pueblo.
Riley, W., Denver.
Ring, H. M., Colorado Springs.
Roberts, Dimon, Pueblo.
Shepard, A. D., Denver.
Smiley, W. H., Denver.
Smiley, Mrs. W. H., Denver.
Snyder, Mrs. M. E., Greeley.
Snyder, Z. X., Greeley.
Spalding, F. S., Denver.
Todd, E. H., Denver.
Van Diest, Mrs. P. H., Denver.
Van Sickle, J. H., Denver.
White, Thomas, Denver.
Willmar, J. R., Denver.
Wolfersberger, Mrs. J. F., Denver.

Colorado—38.

CONNECTICUT.

Amos, W. J., Stamford.
Banks, M. E., Bridgeport.
Camp, D. N., New Britain.
Curtiss, F. A., Old Saybrooke.
Deane, Chas. W., Bridgeport.
Gulick, Alice M., Lyons Plain.
Hurd, Geo. D., New Haven.
Martin, W. J., Bridgeport.
Northrop, B. G., Clinton.
Prior, O. A., Stamford.
Prior, Mary A., Stamford.
Todd, H. H., Bridgeport.
Twitchell, W. I., Hartford.

Connecticut—18.

DELAWARE.

Berlin, A. H., Wilmington.
Gooding, W. L., Dover.
Harlan, D. W., Wilmington.
Johnson, Isaac T., Wilmington.
Peirson, Mary A., Wilmington.
Raub, A. N., Newark.
Raub, Mrs. A. N., Newark.
Tharp, W. B., Middletown.

Delaware—8

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Alexander, M. E., Washington.
Brewer, Clara G., Washington.
Clarke, I. Edwards, Washington.
Clarke, Mrs. I. Edwards, Washington.
Eaton, John, Washington.
French, F. G., Washington.
Harris, Wm. T., Washington.
Harris, Mrs. Wm. T., Washington.
Harris, W. T., Washington.
Kyle, S. R., Washington.
Marlett, C. L., Washington.
Nichols, G. M., Washington.
Nichols, E. S., Washington.
Nichols, Helen G., Washington.
Pollock, Mary, Washington.
Pollock, Susan, Washington.
Pollock, Louise, Washington.
Powell, W. B., Washington.
Richards, Z., Washington.
Sites, C. M. L., Washington.
Spencer, Henry C., Washington.
Spencer, Sarah H., Washington.
Upton, F. E., Washington.
Wilson, Annie M., Washington.

District of Columbia—24.

FLORIDA.

Bollo, Frank E., Key West.
Sheats, Wm. N., Tallahassee.

Florida—2.

GEORGIA.

Ames, A. H., Atlanta.
Anderson, C. L., Atlanta (3).
Ashmore, Otis, Savannah.
Barnes, Laura, Thomasville.
Barnes, Mary F., Thomasville.
Barnett, S. T., Atlanta.
Bleakley, H. E., Augusta.
Bleakley, M., Augusta.
Brooks, L., Augusta.
Brooks, H., Augusta.
Brooks, R. L., Atlanta.
Brooks, C. L., Atlanta.
Byron, W. F., Montezuma.
Carns, Alex, Atlanta.
Chancellor, A. C., Columbus.
Degen, Chas. F., Augusta.
Degen, F. A., Augusta.
DeGroot, E., Atlanta.
Dox, C. E., Atlanta.
Evans, Lawton B., Augusta.
Fewell, Mrs. B. M., Atlanta.
Force, A. W., Atlanta.
Fox, A., Atlanta.
Fry, A., Atlanta.
Griffith, W. A., Valdosha.
Griffith, Mrs. W. A., Valdosha.
Hammond, Mrs. P., Augusta.
Haro, J. O., Macon.
Haro, A. O., Macon.
Harris, Miss N. E., Augusta.
Harrison, Lucy Funk, Rome.
Herty, F., Athens.
Holmes, F., Columbus.
Jackson, S. M., Atlanta.
King, W. E., Atlanta.
Krossett, Otto, Athens.
Landsberger, A., Atlanta.
Lumkin, J. H., Atlanta.
McNamara, B., Carrolton.
McRae, M. W., Atlanta.
Merrill, Bessie, Thomasville.
Miles, Fred, Atlanta.
Parks, L. B., Atlanta.
Payne, M. Amy, Atlanta.
Peabody, J. M., Atlanta.
Perrine, Ada, Atlanta.
Roumsville, J. W., Rome (2).
Schiff, Ike, Atlanta.
Shumaker, D. E., Atlanta.
Slaton, W. F., Atlanta.

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GEORGIA—*Continued.*

Slaton, W. M., Atlanta.
Stein, S., Atlanta.
Stevens, J. P., Atlanta.
Tedford, E. L., Atlanta.
Urquhart, K. C., Allen Station.
Van Dyke, Atlanta.
Waters, Mrs. W. T., Atlanta.
Waters, Lole, Atlanta.
Wiber, M., Atlanta.
Woodruff, Mrs. Chas. M., Macon.
Wright, Homer, Columbus.

Georgia—64.

IDAHO.

Gault, F. B., Moscow.

Idaho—1.

ILLINOIS.

Adams, Alice M., Chicago.
Adams, A., Chicago.
Adams, J., Chicago.
Adams, Maud, Elgin.
Adams, Margaret, Elgin.
Adcock, A. W., Chicago (5).
Adler, I. S., Chicago.
Affeld, C. E., Chicago.
Allen, Helen J., Chicago.
Allen Jennie, Chicago.
Alexander, Ellen C., Chicago.
Allinson, T. W., Chicago.
Allinson, Mrs. F. W., Chicago.
Altpeter, F. W., Chicago.
Anderson, Ada M., Chicago.
Anderson, H. Y., Chicago.
Armstrong, James E., Englewood.
Armstrong, Ida, Chicago.
Arnold, Greta, Braidwood.
Arnold, Hattie L., Chicago.
Ash, Grace E., Chicago.
Atkinson, Francis, Freeport (2).
Atwood, Lena G., Chicago.
Austin, Bertha, Chicago.
Austin, G. M., Chicago.
Austin, Ethel, Chicago.
Avery, H. Louise, Chicago.
Avery, Helen M., Chicago.
Bach, W. A., Chicago.
Bacon, A. T., Chicago.
Bacon, Lulu, Englewood.
Bacon, Mary C., Englewood.
Baldwin, Alice, Danville.
Baldwin, E. F., Peoria.
Baldwin, Ethel, Danville.
Baldwin, G. C., Danville.
Baldwin, H. I., Decatur.
Barber, W. S., Chicago.
Barber, Melvina, Chicago.
Barbour, O. F., Rockford (2).
Barnes, Catharine, Chicago.
Barnes, S. A., Freeport (2).
Bartlett, Sue H., Peoria.
Barton, Flora B., Ridge Farm.
Baumgartner, E., Springfield.
Bay, G. P., Chicago.
Beach, E. A., Chicago.
Beale, F. W., Chicago.
Bean, Anna, Peoria.
Beardsley, O. L., Chicago.
Beatty, V. L., Chicago.
Belding, Frances, Chicago.
Bendix, A., Chicago (2).
Bennett, Mrs. C. E., Des Plaines.
Bennett, Hester A., Des Plaines.
Bennett, Martha, Chicago.
Benning, Elizabeth, Chicago.
Benson, Agnes I., Chicago.
Berry, A. V., Chicago.
Berdon, Carrie, Chicago.
Berdon, Libbie, Chicago.
Bergh, Miss R., Chicago.
Borgman, E. M., Chicago.
Berry, R. L., Springfield.
Berry, Mrs. R. L., Springfield.
Bevans, Homer, Englewood.
Beynon, John, Chicago.
Beynon, Mrs. John, Chicago.
Black, Mrs. Abba, Pekin.
Block, Fredericka, Pekin.
Block, Sophia, Pekin.
Blake, Mrs. C. H., Chicago.
Blank, Mrs., Chicago.
Bliss, R. B., Chicago.
Boarke, Anna S., Peoria.
Boarke, Patricia K., Peoria.
Boer, S., Chicago.
Bostion, V., Chicago.
Bowie, Euphemia, Byron.
Bowie, Margaret, Byron.
Bowman, S. C., Serena.
Bowman, F. E., Bloomington (2).
Bowman, C. H., Serena.
Bowman, Mrs. C. H., Serena.
Boyden, Emily M., Chicago.
Boyden, Helen W., Chicago.
Bracken, Emily, Chicago.
Bracken, Emma A., Chicago.
Bradley, A., Peoria.
Bradley, John E., Jacksonville.
Bragdon, Elizabeth, Evanston.
Bragdon, Mrs. M. C., Evanston.
Brannon, Virginia S., Chicago.
Brant, H. E., Chicago.
Bratton, M. R., Chicago.
Brennan, Agnes, Chicago.
Brewster, J., Chicago.
Brewster, W. O., Chicago.
Briggs, Thos. V., Delevan.
Bright, Supt. O. T., Chicago.
Bright, Mrs. O. T., Chicago.
Brinkmeyer, John, Chicago.
Brooks, G. H., Chicago.
Brown, Blanche, Danville.
Brown, D. S., Peoria.
Brown, L., Chicago.
Bryant, John, Chicago.
Buckley, Ella, Chicago.
Budd, Ella, Chicago.
Bunn, M. E., Chicago.
Burke, Kate, Chicago.
Burke, Margaret, Chicago.
Burkholder, C. S., Chicago (2).
Burns, Flora E., Chicago.
Button, W. J., Chicago.
Byrne, L. G., Chicago.
Byrne, Catharine A., Englewood.
Byrne, Lizzie, Englewood.
Byrne, Mary, Chicago.
Callaghan, Ed, Chicago.
Card, Chas. H., Chicago.
Cashier, Alice, Chicago.
Chandler, D. B., Chicago.
Chapin, E. J., Chicago.
Chapin, A. M., Chicago.
Charles, Fred L., Austin.
Cheney, A. J., Oak Park.
Chittick, Eleanor, Englewood.
Chittick, Adnella, Englewood.
Chittick, Charlotte, Englewood.
Christie, Wm., Joliet.
Church, Geo. W., Chicago.
Church, Ted, Chicago.
Clancey, Minnie A., Chicago.
Clancey, A. W., Chicago.
Clapp, Mrs. F., Chicago.

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ILLINOIS—*Continued.*

Clark, Sarah S., Lee Center.
Clarkson, A., Chicago.
Clay, Susan I., Chicago.
Clendenen, T. C., Cairo.
Clute, R. C., Chicago.
Coddington, A. O., Chicago.
Cohn, D., Chicago.
Cohn, Mrs. Henry, Chicago.
Cohn, Jessie, Chicago.
Cole, Alfred, Aurora.
Colt, Mrs. Florence J., Chicago.
Colton, Mirian, Rockford.
Conditt, I. M., Chicago.
Connell, J. O., Chicago.
Cook, G. W., Chicago.
Cook, John W., Normal (2).
Cook, Jane, Collinsville.
Cook, Ida M., Chicago.
Cooper, A., Chicago.
Cooper, Mrs. W. T., Chicago.
Copp, Allen, Chicago.
Copp, C., Chicago.
Corthell, Mrs. J. L., Chicago.
Corwin, S. G., Chicago.
Cottrell, Mrs. T. D., Chicago.
Cowper, Mrs. J. H., Chicago.
Cowper, E. Alice, Chicago.
Cox, James A., Chicago.
Cox, Mrs. Clara, Chicago.
Coy, Miss E. Annie, Rockford.
Coyne, W. L., Rock Island.
Craft, F. W., Rochelle.
Craft, Mrs. I. C., Rochelle.
Cram, N. D., Chicago.
Crampton, Alberta, Moline.
Crane, Miss Marietta C., Chicago.
Craver, T. T., Chicago.
Crocker, J. W., Chicago. (2).
Crowley, Catharine M., Chicago.
Culbertson, Miss C., Chicago.
Cutter, Anna L., Chicago.
Cutting, S., Chicago.
Cutting, L., Chicago.
Dahlem, Flora, Naperville.
Dalton, Jas. P., Chicago.
Darley, C. H., Quincy.
Darnell, R., Chicago.
Darnell, Mrs R., Chicago.
David, V. C., Chicago.
David, Rilla A., Chicago.
David C. A., Chicago.
David, Anna A., Chicago.
Davis, Chas. E., Chicago.
Davis, W. A., Chicago.
Day, Bessie M., Peoria.
Day, Warren W., Peoria.
Day, Mrs. Kate M., Peoria.
Day, Mrs. H. F., Peoria.
Day, W. P., Peoria.
Deane, S. L., Chicago.
Deaver, S. C., Bloomington.
De Clark, Geo. W., Chicago.
De Clark, Mrs. Geo. W., Chicago.
Delmar, D. T., Chicago.
Demmon, Rose, Chicago.
Dempsey, R. J., Chicago (2).
Dickey, N. L., Chicago.
Dillman, L. M., Chicago.
Dixon, W. D., Peoria.
Dodd, Mrs. L. B., Chicago.
Donald, F. C., Chicago.
Dole, G. S., Chicago.
Dolly, Mary, Chicago.
Donald, Harry, Chicago.
Donelly, M., Chicago.
Donovan, M. C., Chicago.
Doolittle, M. J., Chicago.
Dougherty, C. H., Chicago.
Dougherty, E., Chicago.
Dougherty, M., Chicago.
Dow, Theresa M., Chicago.
Drummond, Mrs. M., Chicago.
Earl, Anita, Chicago.
Earl, Ellen E., Chicago.
Earnest, May, Peoria.
Eastlake, Josie, Chicago.
Eaton, Ira T., Chicago.
Eaton, C. L., Chicago.
Eaton, W. L., Chicago.
Edmunson, Eva, Chicago.
Edwards, R., Chicago.
Edwards, D. R., Joliet.
Edwards, R., Chicago (3).
Eiles, K., Chicago.
Ela, C. E., Bloomington.
Embree, J. R., Chicago.
Elliot, H. M., Chicago.
Elting, P. L. F., Chicago.
Erickson, E. A., Chicago.
Evans, J. G., Chicago.
Fabor, C. H., Chicago.
Farrell, F. J., Chicago.
Faust, C., Chicago.
Ferdman, A. M., Chicago.
Finley, John H., Galesburg.
Finnigan, Margaret L., Chicago.
Fishell, D. W., Chicago.
Fishell, E. W., Chicago.
Fisher, F. P., Chicago.
Fisher, J. C., Chicago.
Fisher, S. E., Chicago.
Fisher, Margaret A., Chicago.
Fitzgerald, Mary E., Chicago.
Foord, Ida S., Chicago.
Foresman, H. A., Chicago.
Forsyth, A., Chicago.
Forsyth, C., Chicago.
Foster, Geo. A., Chicago.
Foster, Mrs. Geo. A., Chicago.
Fostevin, Lillian, Chicago.
Fountain, I. M., Chicago.
Fowler, E. B., Chicago.
Fox, Geo., Chicago.
Franz, Dr. C. H., Elgin.
Franz, Mrs. C. H., Elgin.
Frink, F. G., Chicago.
Frink, Mrs. F. G., Chicago.
Fritts, Geo. W., Chicago.
Fuller, Wm., Chicago.
Fuller, Mrs. L., Chicago.
Gardner, C. B., Chicago.
Gardener, D. B., Chicago.
Gardener, G., Chicago.
Geer, D. S., Chicago.
Geer, Mrs. G., Chicago.
German, Scott, Chicago.
Gesham, Miriam L., Chicago.
Getwan, C. E., Chicago.
Giffen, M. B., Chicago.
Gifford, Mrs. H. B., Chicago.
Gilbert, Mrs. Mary E., Chicago.
Gilmore, E. L., Monticello.
Gimmell, Elizabeth, Chicago.
Gimmell, Frances, Chicago.
Gimmell, Margaret, Chicago.
Gintzberger, L. D., Chicago.
Glickauf, L., Chicago.
Glover, Ed. Allenville.
Glover, Frank, Allenville.
Goldman, E., Chicago.
Goodhue, Lincoln P., Chicago.
Goodman, B., Chicago.
Goodman, Milton F., Chicago.
Goodyer, Owen, Chicago.
Gorham, Dorothy S., Galesburg.
Graham, David, Chicago.
Graham, Mrs. David, Chicago.
Grant, Belle, Danville.
Gray, T. M., Chicago.
Green, Amy, Peoria.
Green, F. G., Galesburg.
Green, S. M., Peoria.

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ILLINOIS—*Continued.*

Greene, Jefferson, J., Dunlap.
Greenwood, Carrie, Chicago.
Gregg, Edith S., Chicago.
Gregory, C. A., Chicago.
Gray, F. M., Chicago (2).
Griffin, H. C., Chicago.
Grimshaw, Miss E. C., Chicago.
Gross, Alice, Sycamore.
Gross, Amanda, Sycamore.
Gunther, C. H., Quincy.
Gurnea, Jennie E., Downers' Grove.
Hagen, E., Chicago.
Hagen, E., Chicago.
Haggins, Cornelius E., Ravens Wood.
Hailmann, H., Lincoln.
Halkett, Belle M., Chicago.
Halkett, Margaret, Chicago.
Halsey, Mrs. N. G., Kankakee.
Hamilton, E. W., Chicago.
Hammers, Jeannette, Elgin.
Hammond, A. H., Chicago.
Hammond, Estelle P., Chicago.
Hanick, Robert, Chicago.
Hannahs, Ella, Chicago.
Hannon, A. R., Springfield.
Hansen, Norman, Franklin Grove.
Harkins, Jas. W., Chicago.
Harkins, Jas. W., Chicago.
Harris, Wm. M., Chicago.
Harrower, W. J., Barrington.
Hart, A., Chicago.
Hart, Percy, Chicago.
Hart, Mrs. S. H., Chicago.
Hartley, Helen M., Chicago.
Hartley, May, Chicago.
Hartwell, Edwin, Greenwood.
Hartwell, Bertha, Greenwood.
Hartz, Dora, Rock Island.
Hatfield, Ida, Chicago.
Havilland, W. C., Aurora.
Havde, Mary A., Chicago.
Heaford, Geo. H., Chicago.
Hein, Mrs. Emily, Peoria.
Hein, Emily, Peoria.
Helm, S. H., Chicago.
Helmke, C., Chicago.
Hemstreet, Miss E. A., Chicago.
Hemstreet, Miss H. N., Chicago.
Hemstreet, M. J., Chicago.
Hemstreet, Mrs. M. J., Chicago.
Hendricks, G. C., Chicago.
Hendrie, T. G., Chicago.
Hersteine, Kate, Peoria.
Hesser, Grace, Chicago.
Hesser, Ida, Chicago.
Huntley, Alice B., Ravenswood.
Huntley, Grace, Ravenswood.
Hibbord, A. E., Chicago.
Hicher, Kate, Chicago.
Hicks, J. R., Peoria.
Hicky, Miss J., Chicago.
Hill, Noble, Woodstock.
Hobson, W. C., Bunker Hill.
Hoff, D. W., Chicago.
Holbrook, Annie M., Chicago.
Holmes, Sarah E., Chicago.
Holt, R., Chicago.
Hootman, G. W., Eureka.
Hootman, Mrs. G. W., Eureka.
Honke, Milton, Chicago.
Horn, Alfred, A., Chicago.
Hough, A. B., Galva.
Hough, W. S., Galva (2).
Houghton, F. A., Chicago.
Howe, W. K., Chicago.
Howe, Mrs. J. K., Chicago.
Hubbell, Jennie, Rockford.
Hunt, E. B., Chicago.
Hunt, J. N. Chicago.
Hunter, A. W., Chicago.
Hurd, Mrs. D. N., Chicago.
Hutchison, Grace K., Decatur.
Irwin, Minnie I., Chicago Lawn.
Irwin, Miss J. B., Chicago.
Jack, Anna, Springfield.
Jack, Jane, Springfield.
Jayne, E. L., Chicago.
Johns, Nellie, Chicago.
Johns, S. C., Chicago.
Johns, Geo. W., Fairfield.
Johnson, A. M., Chicago.
Johnson, Annie W., Chicago.
Johnson, Helen V., Chicago.
Jones, Thomas, Chicago.
Jones, L. W., Chicago.
Jones, Nettie L., Austin.
Kane, Juliette, Chicago.
Kinn, Miss Cora A., Chicago.
Kelser, John, Chicago.
Keisteter, C. W., Chicago.
Kelliger, W. H., Pana.
Kelsey, J. M., Chicago.
Kenworthy, Charlotte, Rock Island.
Kenworthy, J. T., Rock Island.
Kerns, Chas. S., Moline.
Kerns, Mrs. L., Moline.
Kester, A. A., Fairfield.
Kimball, G., Chicago.
Kingsley, C., Evanston.
Kirby, Dorotha M., Chicago.
Kirk, Robert, Berdstown.
Kirkpatrick, A., Rock Island.
Kleine, Oscar B., Chicago.
Klemert, A., Chicago.
Knapp, Mrs. J. V., Chicago.
Knapp, Margaret, Chicago.
Knight, J. B., Sheridan.
Knight, Mrs. J. B., Sheridan.
Knobe, Bertha, Chicago.
Kretlaw, Louis, Chicago (2).
Krimmel, F. C., Chicago.
Lane, A. G., Chicago.
Lane, C. E., Chicago.
Lanstrum, Fred, Galesburg.
Lantz, C. L., Chicago.
Lavery, Nora, Kankakee.
Law, Jas. E., Dixon.
Lawrence, Nellie, Chicago.
Learnard, J. Perry, Danville.
Lebeand, Chas., Evanston.
Lee, R., Chicago.
Leigh, J. I., Chicago (2).
Letterman, Minda, Chicago.
Levering, L. R., Fairfield.
Levi, M. J., Chicago.
Levy, Louis M., Peoria.
Lewis, Edward C., Chicago.
Lewis, Julia M., Chicago (2).
Lilly, Frances, Champaign.
Lin, R. M., Paris.
Link, Mrs. R. M., Paris.
Lizer, H. B., Chicago.
Lloyd, Mrs. W. C., Chicago.
Lockhart, Grace, Danville.
Loveland, Julia, Chicago.
Low, M. C., Chicago.
Low, H. A., Chicago.
Lowell, M. H., Chicago.
Lowell, Mrs. M. H., Chicago.
Lukens, Thos. E., Chicago.
Luther, Mrs. Annie, Chicago.
Lynch, F. E., Chicago.
Lyons, Susie, Joliet.
Lyons, John, Joliet.
Lyons, Mrs. J., Joliet.
Lyman, F. A., Chicago.
Lyman, O. W., Chicago.
Macklen, W., Englewood.
MacMahon, Tena F., Chicago.
Maddux, M. Elise, Carlisle.
Malcolm, Fannie K., Ravenswood.
Maltby, Mrs. C. E., Champaign.
Manix, Elizabeth M., Chicago.
Manvall, S. B., Galesburg.

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ILLINOIS—*Continued.*

Mansfield, Sue, Englewood.
Marcus, Edw. S., Chicago.
Mars, Minnie, Chicago.
Marsh, Mrs. H. E., Rockford.
Marshall, C. B., Rock Island.
Marshall, Mrs. C. B., Rock Island.
Martin, Serena M., Chicago.
Martin, Margaret J., Chicago.
Martin, Harriet, South Chicago.
Mather, John M., Chicago.
Mathews, F. W., Chicago.
May, R. E., Chicago.
McCarthy, Agnes A., Chicago.
McCullough, J. F., Springfield.
McCurdy, Jennie, Chicago.
McDowell, H., Evanston.
McGill, C. S., Chicago.
McGirr, Lida E., Chicago.
McGrady, Mrs. C. P., Trenton.
McKeating, Wm., Chicago.
McKevitt, Agnes, Chicago.
McKillop, M. A., Chicago.
McKindley, Mary E., Sandwich.
McLean, Dora, Princeton.
McLean, Carrie, Princeton.
McPherson, L. B., Chicago.
McQuillan, Frank W., Belleville.
Mead, M. Rich., Chicago.
Mead, M. A., Chicago.
Mead, Lillian, Chicago.
Mead, Miss M. A., Chicago.
Meek, J. R., Chicago.
Meis, J., Danville.
Mellinger, N. E., Chicago.
Mellinger, N. E., Chicago.
Mendenhall, Myra, Vermillion Grove.
Mendenhall, Sallie A., Vermillion Grove.
Menke, H. J. C., Englewood.
Merkle, Mina L., Paris.
Merkle, O. T., Paris.
Meyers, Louis M., Springfield.
Meyers, Albert, Springfield.
Mickey, Florence, Keithsburg.
Miller, Mrs. Oscar, Champaign.
Miller, Rose E., Crystal Lake.
Miller, J. C., Chicago.
Miller, Mrs. J. C., Chicago.
Miller, Sally, Dwight.
Miller, Lily E., Chicago.
Miller, C. H., Chicago.
Mitchel, J. S., Chicago.
Mitchel, Zaider, Chicago.
Montgomery, Miss N., Chicago.
Mooney, Bessie, Chicago.
Mooney, Edna, Chicago.
Mooney, Clara, Chicago.
Mooney, W. H., Chicago.
Mooney, Mrs. W. H., Chicago.
Mooney, F., Chicago.
Moore, Mrs. M. A., Peoria.
Moran, J. D., Chicago.
Morgan, Nellie A., Chicago.
Morrell, Mrs. E. E., Chicago.
Morris, Mary A., Chicago.
Morris, Mrs. J. E., Chicago.
Morrison, Emma, Taylorville.
Morrow, Grace E., Champaign.
Morrow, Mrs. S. M., Champaign.
Morrow, Minne M., Champaign.
Morse, F. L., Chicago.
Munson, E., Chicago.
Munson, S., Chicago.
Murphy, Julia T., Chicago.
Murray, L., Chicago.
Murray, Chas., Chicago.
Nash, R., Chicago.
Nash, Mrs. R., Chicago.
Needle, Ruth, Chicago.
Neengosser, F., Chicago.
Neengosser, Mrs. F., Chicago.
Nottelman, Maggie, Chicago.
Newell, Ann, Chicago.
Newell, C. B., Chicago.
Nichols, F. R., Chicago.
Nichols, Mrs. F. R., Chicago.
Nicol, Mary A., Streator.
Nicol, Della, Streator.
Nightingale, A. F., Chicago.
Noa, Emily, Chicago.
Norman, C. C., Chicago.
Norman, Mrs. C. C., Chicago.
Norton, J. H., Chicago.
O'Brien, Julia, Chicago.
O'Brien, C. C., Chicago.
O'Connor, M. L., Shelbyville.
O'Donnell, Kittie, Chicago.
Okeson, Margaret A., Chicago.
Okeson, Jennie B., Chicago.
Oliver, Geo. O. P., Chicago.
Olsen, Julia, Chicago.
Olson, O. G., Chicago.
Oleson, Mrs. O. G., Chicago.
O'Meara, C. S., Chicago.
Oosterbeck, Margo, Englewood.
Oppelheimer, Adolf, Moline.
Ore, J. W., Chicago.
Ostago, Laura, Chicago.
Oston, Mrs. A. S., Chicago.
Otto, Emma, Chicago.
Page, Florence, Englewood.
Palmer, Nora, Clinton.
Parker, Chas. I., Chicago.
Parker, Col. Francis W., Chicago.
Parker, Sadie C., Downer's Grove.
Patchel, Sarah, Chicago.
Patchen, Alice M., Chicago.
Pattison, M. E., Freeport.
Peabody, S. H., Chicago.
Pearse, Ida L., Chicago.
Peasley, Evelyn, Chicago.
Peasley, Jessie, Bloomington.
Peeke, E. W., Chicago.
Peeke, W. H., Chicago.
Perry, Helen, Chicago.
Peterson, A. M., Oak Park.
Petit, A. J., Chicago.
Phelps, A. A., Rochelle (2).
Phillips, Angela, Chicago.
Pincus, L., Cleveland.
Praetorius, Gilbert, Chicago.
Praetorius, Bertha, Chicago.
Pressel, T. J., Chicago.
Price, M. W., Chicago.
Primley, S., Chicago.
Polacheck, S., Chicago.
Potter, Mrs. F. L., Rockford.
Pullen, Mrs. Mary, Chicago.
Quirk, Mary J., Chicago.
Rankin, A., Chicago.
Rankins, Mrs. Ida A., Englewood.
Rasmusun, J. C., Rock Island.
Rasmusun, Mrs. J. C., Rock Island.
Rassweiler, J. K., Downer's Grove.
Rathbun, Helen M., Chicago.
Rearick, C. C., Dixon.
Reichenbaum, Chas., Chicago.
Remick, Edward C., Chicago.
Renich, Charlotte, Woodstock.
Reynolds, D. M., Chicago.
Reynolds, H. J., Peoria.
Rice, Sarah, Chicago.
Richman, Isabell, Chicago.
Richmond, Lucetta, Chicago.
Richmond, Mrs. S. L., Peoria.
Ridder, H., Quincy.
Rink, Annie, Aurora.
Rittenhouse, L. P., Chicago.
Roberts, W. M., Chicago.
Robertson, Lilly, Chicago.
Robinson, Katie A., Peoria.
Robinson, Mamie, Peoria.
Robinson, Maud, Blue Island.
Rogerson, A., Evanston.
Rogerson, L. T., Evanston.

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ILLINOIS—*Continued.*

Romberger, Mrs. L. D., Princeton.
Roper, Ardella F., Springfield.
Rosenthal, Julia L., Chicago.
Rothschild, Harry L., Jacksonville.
Rothery, Wm. E., Chicago.
Rothery, Mrs. S. E., Chicago.
Rogers, Geo. H., Chicago.
Rueping, Olive H., Chicago.
Rueping, Robt., Chicago.
Rugg, F. D., Champaign.
Rugg, Mrs. F. D., Champaign.
Ruley, Rosie, Kankakee.
Rumbaugh, Ella, Chicago.
Rummel, Miss E., Chicago.
Russell, H. Clay, Morgan Park.
Ryan, Millie M., Englewood.
Sabin, A. R., Chicago.
Samson, Mrs. M. R., Chicago.
Sanders, C. M., Chicago.
Sanderson, Maude S., Chicago.
Sanford, F. E., La Grange.
Sanford, Mrs. F. E., La Grange.
Scharrtz, M., Chicago.
Scheible, Albert, Chicago.
Scheurer, Mina P., Englewood.
Schiess, J. C., Chicago.
Schgoldager, I. M., Chicago.
Schiff, Hannah, Chicago.
Schiff, Emma, Chicago.
Scheuer, Jack J., Chicago.
Schimel, Louis, Chicago.
Schimel, Ella, Chicago.
Schimpff, A. L., Peoria (2).
Schimpff, Mrs. A. L., Peoria (2).
Schimpff, Amelia, Peoria.
Schimpff, Lillie, Peoria.
Schlesinger, M., Chicago (2).
Schryver, J. L., Chicago.
Schukraft, Wm., Chicago.
Schukraft, Mrs. Wm., Chicago.
Schular, M. A., Chicago.
Schultz, T. J., Chicago.
Schultz, M. C., Chicago.
Selman, Minnie M., Decatur.
Servis, Howard, Chicago.
Servis, Evelyn, Chicago.
Settegren, Chas. G., Chicago.
Settegren, Mrs. C. G., Chicago.
Seward, Minnie, Danville.
Shaffer, H. R., Chicago (3).
Shaver, Ida A., Chicago.
Shaw, Ada M., Chicago.
Shaw, F. S., Chicago.
Sheorer, W. W., Chicago.
Sheorer, Mrs. W. W., Chicago.
Sheridan, ——, Chicago.
Sherwood, A. E., Chicago.
Sherwood, S. J., Chicago.
Shulenburg, Eva, Naperville.
Sick, Phoebe, Naperville.
Sick, Eliza K., Naperville.
Sickel, Nellie M., Evanston.
Silke, Lucy S., Chicago.
Silliman, Miss M., Chicago.
Silliman, Miss L. R., Chicago.
Silver, P. E., St. Louis.
Sisson, F. M., Chicago.
Skillman, John M., Canton.
Skinner, E. S., Chicago (3).
Skinner, H. M., Chicago.
Slauson, H. M., Moline.
Slauson, Mrs. C. L., Moline.
Sloan, W. H., Chicago.
Sloan, Charlotte, Englewood.
Smallwood, M. E., Englewood.
Smith, F. H. H., Chicago.
Smith, Libbie, Chicago.
Smith, J., Chicago.
Smith, David, Peoria.
Smith, M. J. R., Peoria.
Smith, E. R., Chicago.
Smith, F. A. B., Chicago.
Smyser, J. H., Irving Park, Chicago.
Sneed, M. E., Chicago.
Sneed, Bennie, Chicago.
Southworth, Wm., Chicago.
Sperry, H. F., Champaign (2).
Splering, L. E., Chicago.
Splering, Therese, Chicago.
Spooner, Catharine E., Chicago.
Spooner, Lizzie R., Chicago.
Springer, Mary M., Chicago.
Springer, C. F., Chicago.
Stacey, A. L., Chicago.
Stacey, J. F., Chicago.
Stanton, Carrie G., Chicago.
Starbuck, Ada, Chicago.
Starr, J. S., Peoria.
State, W. B., Chicago.
Stehman, Letta H., Chicago.
Stehman, J. H., Chicago.
Steele, W. L., Galesburg.
Steick, Lizzie, Rock Island.
Stevens, T. E., Chicago.
Steward, W. H., Carlinville.
Stoltz, J. H., Chicago (2).
Stone, Mrs. L., Chicago.
Stoner, H. F., Chicago.
Stoner, Josephine, Chicago.
Strauss, Eva, Chicago.
Strauss, Levy, Chicago.
Stull, John, Chicago.
Sture, Gilbert D., Chicago.
Sundheimer, Z., Chicago.
Taylor, Estelle, Chicago.
Taylor, H. C., Chicago.
Telfers, Grace A., Chicago.
Tell, A. C., Chicago.
Temple, Frances A., Chicago.
Thomas, Anna, Chicago.
Thomas, Emma M., Chicago.
Thompson, Susan, Chicago.
Thrall, W. A., Chicago.
Tinan, Jennie, Englewood.
Tinan, Dora, Englewood.
Timberlake, T. M., Chicago.
Toll, Agnes L., Chicago.
Tomlinson, Grace, Chicago.
Toole, Helen, Chicago.
Torrance, K., Chicago.
Towles, E. M., Chicago.
Towles, M., Chicago.
Townsend, R. M., Chicago.
Traney, L., Chicago.
Tucker, F. S., Peoria.
Tukey, J. B., Luverne.
Tumler, Elfreda, Chicago.
Tummermuth, Bertha, Chicago.
Valle, H. S., Chicago.
Van, C., Chicago.
Van Danelven, Taney, East St. Louis.
Van Danelven, Mrs. B., East St. Louis.
Vandruff, E. M., Rock Island.
Van Liew, C. C., Normal.
Van Pelton, E. M., Bloomington.
Vidlund, Annie, Evanston.
Vincent, Stella, Hampton.
Vonnoh, R. W., Chicago.
Wade, I. N., Champaign.
Wade, Mrs. I. N., Champaign.
Wadleigh, Grace, Galena.
Wagner, Cora, Aurora.
Walker, J. A., Chicago.
Walker, Evelyn H., Chicago.
Walker, Elizabeth, Chicago.
Wallenberg, Clara, Chicago.
Wallenberg, Ellen, Chicago.
Walsh, John H., Chicago.
Warner, Wm. F., Chicago.
Warner, W. F., Chicago.
Wash, I. N., Champaign.
Washburn, G. F., Chicago.
Wasserman, H., Chicago.
Waterhouse, L. H., Aurora.

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Waterhouse, H. C., Aurora.
Waterhouse, C. B., Aurora.
Watson, Mina M., Chicago.
Watt, J., Chicago.
Way, Birdie A., Downer's Grove.
Webster, Chancey, Canton.
Webster, Minnie, Canton.
Webster, Mrs. C. O., Chicago.
Wirsbord, F., Chicago.
Welsh, Wm., Chicago (2).
Wetter, A. R., Chicago.
Wentzell, L. F., Sugar Grove.
West, Mrs. Geo., Chicago (2).
Westlake, Isabella, Chicago.
Wheat, Edwin J., Chicago.
Wheeler, C. P., Chicago.
Wheeler, Mrs. C. P., Chicago.
White, W. C., Danville.
Whitehouse, F., Evanston.
Whiteley, C. J., Evanston.
Whitnell, Miss S. J., Lake Bluff.
Whitney, Perna M., Chicago.
Whitney, Chas. P., Chicago.
Whittlesey, Miss L. D., Chicago.
Wicker, W. B., Chicago.
Wilbauer, Mrs. Kate, Peoria.
Wilder, A. Jaen, Chicago.
Wildeman, Barak J., Chicago.
Wildman, B. J., Chicago.
Wiley, A. M., Chicago.
Wiley, W. L., Galena (3).
Wiley, John, West Jersey.
Will, E., Chicago.
Williams, Mrs. C., Chicago.
Willits, F. E., Chicago.
Wilson, Harry G., Chicago.
Wire, Jennie L., Winslow.
Wirtz, Flora M., Chicago.
Wood, Frank H., Deer Creek.
Wood, J. R., Chicago.
Woodin, Mrs. Rose, Rock Island.
Worthing, Mrs. J. M., Chicago.
Wright, W. C., Chicago.
Wyman, M., Argyle Park, Chicago.
Zollman, M. J., Chicago.

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INDIANA.

Adler, W. Scott, South Bend.
Albert, Effie, Indianapolis.
Alexander, Grace, Indianapolis.
Alexander, Georgie, Indianapolis.
Allison, J. J., Crown Point.
Aneshausel, Mrs. M., Indianapolis.
Aneshausel, W., Indianapolis.
Armstrong, James A., Ft. Wayne.
Ashby, J. M., Tipton.
Ashby, Alice, Tipton.
Ayres, Edward, Lafayette.
Ayres, Mrs. Edward, Lafayette.
Babcock, H. H., Evansville.
Badgley, A., Terre Haute.
Badgley, C., Terre Haute.
Bardo, Albert, N. Burnham.
Baird, Ernest, South Bend.
Baker, W. H., Indianapolis.
Baker, Mrs. H. W., Indianapolis.
Barton, A. B., Terre Haute.
Barton, Mrs. A. B., Terre Haute.
Basey, Jennie, Arcadia.
Beck, Anna M., Crawfordsville.
Benham, Mrs. J., Indianapolis.
Benton, G. W., Indianapolis.
Benton, Geo. W., Indianapolis.
Black, Mrs. J. A., Frankfort.
Blockedge, Irene, Indianapolis.
Bowman, Georgie, Monticello.
Briar, Mabel, Indianapolis.
Brown, Jesse H., Indianapolis.
Brown, Rosa, South Bend.
Bryan, Wm. L., Indianapolis.
Bryce, Geo. H., Indianapolis.
Burger, Franz, Ft. Wayne.
Burton, Mrs. S. P., Terre Haute.
Burton, Estelle, Indianapolis.
Burton, Annie, Indianapolis
Campbell, Miss M. A., Knightstown.
Campbell, Grace, Indianapolis.
Cantield, W. P., Indianapolis.
Chobin, Caroline, Williamsburg.
Clements, H. J., Washington.
Coale, Anna E., Richmond.
Coale, Elizabeth H., Richmond.
Coleman, W. H., Indianapolis (2).
Coombs, Mrs. A. H., Terre Haute.
Cooper, Mary T., Indianapolis.
Copeland, A. C., Rochester.
Cropsey, N., Indianapolis.
Crowell, Isaac M., Franklin.
Cunningham, Richard, Franklin.
Cunningham, Mrs. Sarah B., Franklin.
Dalmbert, L. H., Greensberg.
Dalmbert, M., Greensberg.
Davis, Mrs. F. A. W., Indianapolis.
Dean, Mary, Indianapolis.
Dean, John K., Indianapolis.
Dean, Mary E., Indianapolis.
Dietrich, A. E., Indianapolis.
Dietrich, Mrs. A. E., Indianapolis.
Dillon, A. J., Rochester.
Dillon, Mrs. A. E., Rochester.
Dobson, J. A. C., Brownsburg.
Drake, Robert, Indianapolis.
Dunree, Violet A., Dublin.
Dutcher, C. F., Indianapolis (2).
Edwards, D. W., Indianapolis.
Edwards, Mrs. D. W., Indianapolis.
Edwards, Mrs. D. W., Indianapolis.
Emerson, Bertha, Indianapolis.
Emerson, Ella, Indianapolis.
Fahnley, Fred, Indianapolis.
Farman, Mrs. S., Evansville.
Farrer, E., Rushville.
Ferguson, Geo. B., Brazil.
Ford, Chas. B., Indianapolis (2).
Frazer, Harriet B., Warsaw.
Furman, Lucy S., Evansville.
Furman, S., Evansville.
Geoke, Bell, Ft. Wayne.
Geoke, Marian J., Ft. Wayne.
Gern, Sophie E., Terre Haute.
Gilbert, C. H., Rushville.
Gilbert, Elizabeth, Rushville.
Gilbert, Florence, Rushville.
Goodlett, N. M., Evansville.
Goodlett, Mrs. N. M., Evansville.
Godicke, E. L., Terre Haute.
Graden, Ellen D., Indianapolis.
Gregg, Fred M., Crawfordsville.
Griffith C. T., Indianapolis.
Griffith, T. E., Indianapolis.
Hamilton, M., Indianapolis (2).
Hanover, A. R., Spray Ferry.
Hart, Stella, Indianapolis.
Havens, James, Marion.
Heeb, E. J., Indianapolis.
Henninger, Pauline, Terre Haute.
Henson A. E., South Bend.
Hoagland, John S., Terre Haute.
Hoffmann, W. F., Washington.
Homff, T. J., Indianapolis.
Horton, J. S., Vincennes.
Hufford, G. W., Indianapolis.
Humke, A. E., Vincennes.
Isbell, W. C., Terre Haute.
Isbell, W. C. Jr., Terre Haute.
Jackson, Mrs. Anna M., Richmond.
Jackson, Mrs. Mary, La Porte.
Jennings, F. R., Indianapolis.
Johnson, S. Arthur, Elkhart.
Johnson, W. S., Indianapolis.
Jones, L. H., Indianapolis.

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INDIANA—*Continued.*

Jones, W. H., Evansville.
Kelm, Chas. E., Lima.
Kernan, Susan, Indianapolis.
King, R. M., Indianapolis.
King, Mrs. R. M., Indianapolis.
Kockley, Thos. R., Indianapolis.
Kohn, H. L., Indianapolis.
Kramer, H. N., Richmond.
Landrum, Robert D., Terre Haute.
Lewis, Prudena, Indianapolis.
Lewis, Annie, Indianapolis.
Loughry, A. W., Monticello.
Low, H. P., Star City.
MacDougal, C. M., Ft. Wayne.
Mahoney, Kate, Terre Haute.
Marble, Fannie, South Bend.
Marble, Florence, South Bend.
Marmon, Caroline, Indianapolis.
Martin, G. W., Indianapolis.
Mason, H., Indianapolis.
McDowell, Harriet, Frankfort.
McEhleman, Isabella, Indianapolis.
McKernon, Leo A., Indianapolis.
McMahon, Nannie, Crawfordsville.
Meyer, F. J. L., South Bend.
Meyers, Wm., Terre Haute.
Miller, J. F., Terre Haute.
Morris, J. W., Indianapolis.
Morris, Mrs. J. W., Indianapolis.
Morris, W. G., Frankfort.
Mount, Q. A., Connersville.
Mount, Kate N., Connersville.
Muir, Mrs. Clara A., Indianapolis.
Muir, H. W., Indianapolis.
Muir, J. W., Indianapolis.
Merlin, Mrs. L. H., Vincennes.
Mygrants, Alben, Huntingdon.
Mygrants, Mary, Huntingdon.
Neely, Thos., Indianapolis.
Newlin, Emma, Richmond.
Newlin, Finley, Richmond.
Nicholson, Mary E., Indianapolis.
Northlof, W. H., Evansville.
Park, Cora, Memphis.
Pattison, J. H., Indianapolis.
Patton, W. H., Richmond.
Pfafflin, H. J., Indianapolis.
Phelps, E. F., Indianapolis.
Porter, Harry, Richmond.
Powers, F. J., Notre Dame.
Quigley, Mary, Indianapolis (2).
Raphael, G., Terre Haute.
Reade, Gertrude, Lafayette.
Reaums, Mamie, Indianapolis.
Reeves, E., Indianapolis.
Reiff, W. G., Albion.
Rennoly, Mrs., Terre Haute.
Reynolds, E. L., Richmond (2).
Richardson, R. D., Evansville.
Rippetoe, Mrs. R. W., Terrre Haute.
Roberts, Flora, Lafayette.
Robinson, E. H., Richmond.
Robinson, Frances M., Richmond.
Robinson, F. W., Richmond.
Robinson, Susan, Richmond.
Rottinghouse, Carrie, Gas City.
Rottinghouse, O. H., Gas City.
Rubush, P. C., Indianapolis.
Schley, Geo. B., Indianapolis.
Schmuck Emilie, Indianapolis.
Schoonover, Mrs. A., Warsaw.
Schroyer, J. E., Indianapolis.
Sconey, Ora, Ft. Wayne.
Scribner, M. J., Indianapolis.
Shafer, Ada, Indianapolis.
Shilling, Mrs. A. C., Knightstown.
Shreve, W. D., Indianapolis.
Simon, H., Evansville.
Sloan, Geo. B., Indianapolis.
Small, James, Idaville.
Smith, Jessie J., Indianapolis.
Smith, Agnes N., Crawfordsville.
Smith, May, Crawfordsville.
Spencer, K. M., Indianapolis.
Stach, Mrs. Anna, South Bend.
Starback, Agnes, Mishawaka.
Stempfel, Theo., Indianapolis.
Stilwell, M. D., Indianapolis.
Straus, M., Terre Haute.
Strunk, I. G., New Albany.
Sullivan, D. J., Indianapolis.
Sullivan, Mrs. D. J., Indianapolis.
Swain, Joseph, Bloomington.
Swain, Mrs. Joseph, Bloomington.
Swain, Rachel, Indianapolis.
Swayne, Mrs. Sue, Richmond.
Swayne, Juliet, Richmond.
Swift, L. B., Indianapolis.
Swiggett, C. H. Indianapolis.
Talbert, G. A., La Porte.
Tanner, Geo. G., Indianapolis (2).
Terry, Chas., Lafayette (2).
Todd, Sue, Indianapolis.
Torrance, Anna, Indianapolis.
Torrence, Flora, Indianapolis.
Walt, Mrs. Della, Winamac.
Wales, R. W., Indianapolis.
Walker, J. W., Vincennes.
Wallis, Eddy, Indianapolis.
Wallis, Ernest, Indianapolis.
Wallis, Theo., Indianapolis.
Wallis, Mrs. Theo., Indianapolis.
Weaver, I. D., Greencastle.
Weaver, J. R., Greencastle.
Weaver, A. S., Greencastle.
Weaver, V. E., Greencastle.
Weinyss, C., New Albany.
Weir, Ella, Indianapolis.
Weiss, Leo, Richmond.
Whitson, J. S., Gas City.
Wicking, E., Bluffton.
Wiles, F. N., Indianapolis.
Wilson, Anna, Crawfordsville.
Wilson, J. C., Logansport.
Williams, H., Ft. Wayne.
Willson, Mary E., Indianapolis.
Willson, Victoria A., Indianapolis.
Woeberking, Wm., Ft. Wayne.
Wood, Chas. E., Evansville.
Wood, Wm. Terre Haute.
Wood, Mrs. Wm., Terre Haute.
Woodward, Ada, Richmond.
Woody, Mrs. Alice B., Kokomo.
Woody, H. G., Kokomo.
Wright, H. O., Terre Haute.
Wright, Mary E., Terre Haute.

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INDIAN TERRITORY.

Bowman, Anna B., Fort Sill. *Indian Territory—1.*

IOWA.

Abbey, Abbie S., Cedar Rapids.
Anderson, J. W., Missouri Valley.
Amsken, Hattie, Manchester.
Ashbrooks, Minnie D., Marshalltown.
Bailey, Edith, Marion.
Bane, I. W., Newell.
Bardwell, Virginia, Marion.
Baylis, A. W., Cedar Rapids.
Baylis, W. H., Cedar Rapids (2).
Beardshear, Wm., Ames.
Bell, Amy, Cedar Falls.
Benson, Geo. L., Burlington.
Berch, Chas., Council Bluffs.
Bishop, Clara, Cedar Falls.
Boehler, Carlie, Cedar Falls.
Bostwick, Mrs. C. B. Clinton.

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IOWA—*Continued.*

Bostwick, O. P., Clinton.
Brotherton, Cora, Waverly.
Brotherton, S. S., Cedar Rapids.
Brown, G. W., Sioux City.
Browne, G., Keokuk (3).
Buck, James G., Grinnell.
Buck, S. J., Grinnell.
Buechele, Mrs. J. L., Waterloo.
Burt, M. J., Keokuk.
Burton, A. F., Villisca.
Child, J. E., Mason City.
Clark, R. W., Grinnell.
Clift, Della, Marshalltown.
Clift, N. R., Marshalltown.
Clute, Helen F., Montezuma.
Clute, Jennie W., Montezuma.
Collin, Alonzo, Mt. Vernon.
Collin, Chloe, Mt. Vernon.
Compton, D., Dubuque (4).
Cooley, Grace, Dubuque.
Curtiss, Julia E., Cedar Falls.
Daniells, F. B., Dubuque.
Dofflemyer, J. J., Marion.
Dougherty, Sade, Marion.
Dunbar, Mrs. C. E., Clinton.
Edmonds, Earl, Correctionville.
Edmonds, Mary E., Correctionville.
Ellis, B. B., Cedar Rapids.
Fry, A. E., Marshalltown.
Fulton, Florence, Epsworth.
Gillis, A. I., Pacific Junction.
Gormnon, Mrs. Caroline, Cedar Rapids.
Grandy, Mary A., Sioux City.
Greenlee, Ida K., Sioux City.
Ham, Ella M., Iowa City.
Harper, M. C., Victor.
Harris, G. M., Crescoe.
Hatch, Eluth, Rock Rapids.
Holt, Mrs. Mary, Waverly.
Hubbard, W. A., Cedar Rapids.
Hubbard, Mrs. W. A., Cedar Rapids.
Huber, S. C., Tama.
Johnson, C. P., E. Des Moines.
Johnson, P., E. Des Moines.
Kannengeiser, H., Charles City.
King, Alice C., Cedar Falls.
King, Wm. F., Mt. Vernon.
King O. E., Keokuk.
King Zaida L., Waterloo.
Kirkham, J. E., Clinton.
Kistner, Minnie L., Waterloo.
Lark, F. E., Onawa.
Loveland, Vinnie, Janesville.
Mandeville, J. A., Manchester.
Marshall, Mrs. Levi, Cedar Rapids.
Mathews, Alphons, Dubuque (2).
Maxham, F. W., Sioux City.
McMillen, Lena, Oskaloosa.
Mehan, J. M., Des Moines.
Merrill, J. T., Cedar Rapids.
Metcalf, F. S., Cedar Rapids.
Mitchell, Mary E., Clarion.
Moffatt, Mildred, Marshalltown.
Moore, Sophia, Iowa City.
Morris, R. A., Des Moines.
Myers, Magaret, Waterloo.
Olmsted, G. H., Sibley.
Olmsted, G. B., Des Moines.
Osincup, K. L., Shelby.
Osincup, N. J., Quasqueton.
Otto, E. D., Council Bluffs.
Paissley, T. J., Dubuque.
Parker, J. M., Marshalltown.
Parson, L. S., Waterloo.
Parsons, Henry T., Grinnell.
Peck, Emily D., DeWitt.
Peck, Mary, DeWitt.
Phillips, J. H., Des Moines.
Pierce, H. B., Rock Rapids.
Pierce, Mrs. Ida, Rock Rapids.
Porter, Carrie, Cedar Rapids.
Richards, N. H. Marion.
Ried, Amy G., Bellevue.
Rodenberg, Dora, Cedar Falls.
Rogers, C. P., Marshalltown.
Rogers, H. A. Clinton.
Rubesky, Anna, Dubuque.
Sabin, Henry, Des Moines.
Schaeffer, Charles A., Iowa City.
Schell, Ida L., Fort Dodge.
Schenck, L. C., Clinton.
Schuler, John R., Keokuk.
Seerley, O. C., Cedar Falls.
Seerley, H. H., Cedar Falls.
Seymore, John F., Sigourney.
Shurtz, Mrs. Addie, Bradford.
Smith Gertrude, Grinnell.
Smith, G. A., Cedar Rapids (2).
Smith, J. Fred., Grinnell.
Smith, Mrs. J. Fred, Grinnell.
Smith Lillian, Grinnell.
Smith, Margaret R., Sioux City.
Spaulding, J. M., Sioux City.
Spencer, Mrs. C. T., Clinton.
Spurr, Cora A. P., Correctionville.
Stipp, W. H., State Center.
Storm, A. V., Storm Lake.
Strasser, F. L., Belleview.
Teope, Hattie, Rockford.
Thompson, W. C., Shell Rock.
Timpane, Tressa, De Witt.
Tolerton, Mary E., Cedar Falls.
Tordyce, Emma J., Cedar Rapids.
Tracy, Bendel, Des Moines.
Tracy, Jas. M., Des Moines.
Tracy, Mabel, Des Moines.
Van Onnan, Gertrude, Marshalltown.
Van Saun, Geo. B., Cedar Falls.
Van Saun, Mrs. Geo. W., Cedar Falls.
Van Tine, Mrs. O. L., Marshalltown.
Van Vlack, A., Cedar Rapids.
Van Vlack, Chas. A., Waverly.
Veber, Edna M., Marshalltown.
Waite, C. W., Council Bluffs.
Walley, Susan L. G., Waterloo.
Waterfield, Wm., Raymond.
Waterfield, Mrs. Wm., Raymond.
Webster, E. L., Sioux City.
Wetwer, Mrs. E. H., Cedar Rapids.
White, Cynthia M., Marion.
Wilcox, Franc, Montour.
Wilcox, Minnie E., Des Moines.
Wilcoxen, W. M., Des Moines.
Williams, Robert, Waterloo.
Wilson, A. G., Hopkington.
Wilson, Mrs. A. G., Hopkington.
Wilson, V. L., Ottumwa.
Willey, R. J., Sioux City (2).
Wolteshek, W. A., Cedar Rapids.
Woodbury, H. A., Council Bluffs.

KANSAS.

Appleton, J. E., Williamsburg.
Bailey, A. T., Lawrence.
Bailey. E. H., Lawrence.
Bailey, E. H., Lawrence.
Bailey, E. H., Lawrence.
Balcomb, E. E., Emporia.
Berkeley, M. C., Burr Oak.
Bellringer, John, Green, Clay Co.
Bohgren, A., Manhattan.
Boss, Thos. M., Leavenworth.
Boss, Thos. M., Leavenworth.
Bowman, Anna, Leavenworth.
Bowman, Alice, Wawbensee.
Brennan, Lena, Leavenworth.
Brennan, Katie, Leavenworth.
Briggs, Ada E., Lawrence.
Burton, G. G., Topeka.
Callahan, B. L., Leavenworth.
Campbell, Melissa, Atchison.
Campbell, Mrs. W. W., Atchison.
Churchill, W. S., Osawatomie.
Churchill, Mrs. S. N., Osawatomie.

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KANSAS—*Continued.*

Clarke, Della, Emporia.
Clarke, Elva, Emporia.
Clarkson, Jennie M., Topeka.
Clemens, Mrs. J. A., Olatha.
Conrow, Sarah, Wabonsee.
Coon, Mamie, Leavenworth.
Cooper, J. W., Newton.
Cooper, J. W., Newton.
Cory, T. L., Hutchinson.
Crandall, Edna, Nortonville.
Crandall, Mrs. C. B., Nortonville.
Crane, C. D., Ottawa.
Cranen, Mrs. G. W., Leavenworth.
Cromby, W. T., Topeka.
Cromby, Della K., Topeka.
Crowell, Mrs. H. R., Columbus.
Crowell, H. R., Columbus.
Cunningham, Mary, Emporia.
Davidson, W. M., Topeka.
Dickson, Lucy E., Emporia.
Dornald, N. S., Atchinson.
Dyer, E. C., Williamsburg.
Dyer, F. R., Wichita.
Fales, P., Ottawa.
Fales, P., Ottawa.
Flagg, L. M., Lawrence.
Foresman, J. O., Burlingame.
Foresman, J. O., Burlingame.
Francis, Mrs. E. H., Olatha.
Fulton, G. P., Kincaid.
Giddings, C., Atchinson.
Goodrich, G. B., Springvale.
Greelien, James S., Ottawa.
Graham, B., Leavenworth.
Griffin, Gertrude, Nortonville.
Griffin, Mrs. S. C., Nortonville.
Harper, O. W., Topeka.
Havens, Paul E., Leavenworth.
Hawes, W. G., Kansas City.
Higginson, E., Wichita.
Hite, D. R., Topeka.
Hoag, Lulu E., Kansas City.
Hoaglin, Sue D., Emporia.
Johnson, Estelle, Kansas City.
King, Anna, Leavenworth.
Kittlaus, Ida L., Leavenworth.
Learned, A. J., Lawrence.
Learned, A. J., Lawrence.
Lehman, J. L., Osage City.
Lehman, Mrs. J. S., Osage City.
Leidy, M., Leavenworth.
Logan, Frank, Topeka.
McClintock, O. P., Topeka.
McDonald, John, Topeka.
McKernan, Ella, Topeka.
McMillan, L. W., Lawrence.
McMillan, M. I., Lawrence.
Miller, Sadie F., Salina.
Miller, E. L., Seneca.
Miller, C. G., Salina.
Meller, Johnny, Salina (2).
Miner, L. W., Wichita.
Mull, Charlotte, Lawrence.
Newcomb, Katie, Atchison.
Newcomb, H. H. Atchison.
Penny, Geo. B., Lawrence.
Penny, B. R., Lawrence.
Phelps, Frank, Leavenworth.
Phelps, Helen, Leavenworth.
Reeves, Susan, Topeka.
Riggs, S. H., Atchison.
Robertson, Mrs. Helen, Wichita.
Rogers, Sadie, Leavenworth.
Roseburgh, E. B., Lawrence.
Ross, W. D., McClouth.
Ryan, L. E., Leavenworth.
Satterthwaite, A. R., Girard.
Shannon, W. A., Augusta.
Sinclair, H., Eldorado
Smith, Wm., Jr., Burlingame (2).
Snow, Frank H., Lawrence.
Stevens, C. S., Leavenworth.
Taylor, Cora, Leavenworth.
Walker, Miss, Topeka.
Wilkinson, J. N., Emporia.
Williams, Laura, Norton.
Wilson, J. C., Wichita.
Wilson, Thos. C., Wichita.

Kansas—111.

KENTUCKY.

Albert, Sophie, Maysville.
Allen, Mrs. Eva, Louisville.
Adamson, Alice K., Maysville.
Anderson, Anna S., Louisville.
Badger, O. F., Louisville.
Bailey, John, Newport.
Bardine, Lillie C., Paducah.
Bartholomew, W. H., Louisville.
Bartholomew, Susie M., Louisville.
Bauman, K., Louisville.
Beattie, Alice M., Louisville.
Beattie, James W., Louisville.
Bell, Austin E., Louisville.
Beyer, F. A., Louisville.
Bierman, A., Louisville
Blaisdell, H. R., Covington.
Blaisdell, Mrs. H. R., Covington.
Cain, L. B., Louisville.
Cassidy, L. D., Covington.
Chalfant, Cornelia, Louisville.
Chandler, Edward, Clinton.
Chandler, Mrs. Alice A., Clinton.
Cochran, Julia M., Louisville.
Collins, L. G., Maysville.
Cook, Robert N., Bardstown.
Courts, J. B., Russellville.
Cox, Lula, Livermore.
Dameron, Mrs. L. M., Newport.
Dawson, Mary, Oakville.
Dietrich, C. H., Hopkinsville.
Dietrich, Mrs. C. H., Honkinsville.
Dinklespee, Guss, Louisville.
Dixon, Mrs. J., Louisville.
Dodson, Mary, Paducah.
Dorland, J. E., Louisville.
Deler, W. H., Louisville.
Fagin, Elizabeth, Newport.
Fenft, Anne, Louisville.
Fleshman, A. C., Winchester.
Foley, O., Bardstown.
Frazer, L., Covington.
Frick, Emma, Louisville.
Fritschner, Willetta, Louisville.
Fritschner, Geo., Louisville.
Frobue, L. S. Louisville (2).
Getteys, Mrs. J. C., Louisville.
Getteys, W. C., Louisville.
Glentworth, Mrs., Louisville.
Grinstead, Wm. C., Danville.
Grinstead, P. W., Lexington.
Grinstead, Irene, Lexington.
Grom, Wm., Louisville.
Grubitz, E., Louisville.
Grubitz, A., Louisville.
Hall, S., Louisville.
Hall, C., Louisville.
Hall, Walker, Covington.
Hall, Mrs. Walker, Covington.
Hamilton, Sam'l. L., Louisville.
Harley, C. L., Richmond.
Hichman, A. E., Paris.
Hillerich, J. A., Louisville.
Howe, W. H., Carrollton.
Hurst, Gertrude, Louisville.
Jacob, Mrs. Helene, Louisville.
Jacob, Helene, Louisville.
Jacobs, Belle, Louisville.
Johnson, J. N., Louisville.
Johnson, M., Louisville.
Johnston, Mrs. M. E., Louisville.

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KENTUCKY—*Continued.*

Keating, Mary K., Louisville.
Kerr, Mattie V., Louisville.
Kinney, P., Louisville.
Kneose, E. W., Covington.
Kobert, Mrs. Chas., Lebanon (2).
Koye, Mrs. O. A., Louisville.
Lake, O. J., Louisville.
Lake, Mrs. O. J., Louisville.
Lee, Wm. W., Louisville.
Lowry, Mrs. Max, Louisville.
Mount, Annie B., Louisville.
McConathy, W. J., Louisville.
McDonald, J. P., Louisville.
McGinniss, James, Owensborough.
Mindermann, C., Covington.
Morgan, Emma, Paducah.
Newbarger, J. L., Louisville.
Nield, C., London.
Nield, Mrs. C. S., Barbevville.
Norman, Gertrude, Louisville.
Norman, A. E., Louisville.
Norman, Kate L., Louisville.
Payne, Cornelia, Newport.
Pepper, Dixie, Lexington.
Priest, W. C., Louisville.
Railey, Ada M., Lexington.
Rankin, Maude, Louisville.
Rhoads, McHenry, Frankfort.
Robbins, George, Frankfort.
Schwabachel, W. P., Louisville.
Scott, W. J., Louisville.
Shapinsky, S., Louisville.
Sheckler, M. S., Louisville.
Shuttleworth, J. A., Louisville.
Simmons, W. H., Louisville.
Singleton, Lulu, Paducah.
Sohan, J. A., Louisville.
Spencer, Enos, Louisville.
Steinberger, W. S. Louisville.
Steinfeld, F. L., Louisville.
Tearne, M. E., Covington.
Todd, A. E., Berea.
Tucker, Mrs. M. B., Louisville.
Tucker, L. B., Louisville.
Vaupel, Hattie, Louisville.
Venn, Jas. H., Louisville.
Wallack, Louis, Louisville.
Waller, Emma, Louisville.
Warfield, W. C., Covington.
Warfield, Mrs. W. C., Covington.
Weaver, E. W., Newport (2).
Weber, Alice, Louisville.
Wilson, W., Bardstown.
Winslow, H. M., Carrollton.
Winslow, Lucy C., Carrollton.
Wright, E. J., Louisville.

Kentucky—128.

LOUISIANA.

Beer, Ferd, New Orleans.
Bennett, Edward, New Orleans.
Brown, Marian, New Orleans.
Chamberlain, Ethel, New Orleans.
Coe, W., New Orleans.
Cohn, L. H., New Orleans.
Dwyer, A. J., New Orleans.
Fortier, L. A., New Orleans.
Gold, Samuel, New Orleans.
Graw, E. G., New Orleans.
Hedges, F. C., New Orleans.
Hurt, A. D., New Orleans.
Kilgrove, A. E., New Orleans.
Lee, T. J., New Orleans.
Lewis, M., New Orleans (3).
McGuigan, Carrie, New Orleans.
Mulford, M. W., New Orleans.
Nick, H. L., New Orleans.
Quinn, Mrs. J., New Orleans (2).
Ramsey, Geo. J., Clinton.
Ray, B., New Orleans.
Smith, E. N., New Iberia.
Soule, Geo., New Orleans.
Sthele, T. G., New Orleans.
Suter, H. A., New Orleans.
Tyrman, A., New Orleans (2).
Weil, D. L., New Orleans.
Weil, Wm. L., New Orleans.
White, S., New Orleans.
Wolf, I. J., New Orleans.

Louisiana—24.

MAINE.

Corthell, W. J., Gorham.
Drake, O. H., Pittsfield.
Emery, Geo. B., Gorham.
Gray, L. A., Portland.
Munger, L. M., Old Orchard.

Maine—5.

MARYLAND.

Anderson, E. M., Mount Airy.
Bannon, John C., Annapolis.
Beatty, Louis L., Centreville.
Blades, Fannie L., Baltimore.
Bond, F. Estelle, Baltimore.
Browning, Sue, Baltimore.
Claude, Dr. W. C., Annapolis.
Cox, Esther Lamb, Baltimore.
Denny, Dr. Wm., Centreville.
Diffenbaugh, James, A., Westminster.
Dobben, Robert A., St. Denis.
Dulany, William J. C., Baltimore.
Ebaugh, Annie L., Baltimore.
Ebaugh, A. Newton, Baltimore.
Foreman, S. E., Baltimore.
Franz, M., Baltimore.
Franz, E. E., Baltimore.
Gardner, Mary E., Lonaconing.
Garesche, E., Belcamp.
Hardey, John T., Clarkville.
Hebb, Dr. John W., West Friendship.
Hill, J. E., Ellicott City.
Hazell, J. B., Sudlersville.
Joice, Mary A., Baltimore.
Lamb, Rachel E., Baltimore.
Lamb, Eli M., Baltimore.
Lamb, Mrs. Eli M., Baltimore.
League, M. E., Baltimore.
McCahan, John E., Baltimore.
Prettyman, E. B., Baltimore.
Reid, C. W., Chestertown.
Reid, A. A., Chestertown.
Scull, Chas. O., Baltimore.
Shaffer, Cora H., Baltimore.
Shelley, Wm. H., Baltimore.
Smith, Wilbur F., Baltimore.
Spedden, Sadie, Baltimore.
Stephens, M. Bates, Denton.
Sumering, Kate, Baltimore.
Sumering, F., Baltimore.
Sudler, Dr. A. E., Centerville.
Weston, Laura A., Baltimore.
Wise, Henry A., Baltimore.
Woodall, Lottie L., Sudlersville.
Worthington, John D., Belair.

Maryland—45.

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MASSACHUSETTS.

Bacon, Geo. A., Boston.
Baker, O. M., Springfield.
Barker, Mrs. Mary H., Scituate (2).
Bill, C. R., Salem.
Blake, Mrs. Henry W., Springfield.
Bourne, Clara F., Attleboro.
Bradley, Mrs. E. M., Springfield.
Bradley, Milton, Springfield.
Carrington, H. B., Boston.
Chapman, Frederick E., Cambridgeport.
Childs, C. H., Holyoke.
Clarke, John S., Boston.
Cooper, Frank Irwing, Bridgewater.
Day, B. Clifton, E. Hampton.
Dewey, Mrs. J. M., North Adams.
Downs, Edgar R., Boston.
Dreslar, F. B., Worcester.
Galwan, James J., Boston.
Hatch, Wm. E., New Bedford.
Heath, D. C., Boston.
Hicks, Mrs. Mary Dana, Boston.
Hoyt, W. A., N. Brookfield.
Huling, Ray Greene, Cambridge.
Johnson, G. E. Worcester.
Kellogg, Eva D., Boston.
King, Rachel, Newton.
King, Isabell, Newton.
Lull, H. W., Quincy.
Martin, Geo. H., Lynn.
Metcalf, Robert C., Boston.
Mowry, William A., Hyde Park.
Packard, Anna W., Hudson.
Parry, Elizabeth H., Springfield.
Perkins, Isabell, Boston.
Pratt, Maria L., Boston.
Pritchard, M. T., Boston.
Ramsey, Chas. O., Fall River.
Rodman, C. D., Welfleet.
Sanborn, Walter L., Newton Center.
Seaver, Edwin P., Boston.
Silver, Edgar O., Boston.
Smith, Frank, Boston.
Spence, Prof., Salem.
Stratton, J. D., Springfield.
Sutton, Mary M., Needham.
Tapley, Wm. W., Springfield.
Washburn, K. N., Springfield.
Wheeler, H. M., Boston.
Wheelock, Lucy, Boston.
Wiltse, Sarah E., Boston.
Winship, A. E., Boston.

Massachusetts—51.

MICHIGAN.

Adams, Geo. A., Detroit.
Allen, Camille, Saginaw.
Amsden, Lillian C., Detroit.
Amsden, Mrs. G. A., Detroit.
Andrew, Sarah E., Detroit.
Armstrong, E. V., St. Joseph.
Barker, Georgia, Grand Rapids.
Bassett, M. E., Detroit.
Bassett, E. V., Detroit.
Belding, E. A., Detroit.
Beverly, Clara, Detroit.
Beverly, Ada, Detroit.
Blackwell, H. E., Detroit.
Boone, R. G., Ypsilanti.
Brown, Garret S., Detroit.
Brown, Mrs. Garret S., Detroit.
Bryant, Lavia O., Plymouth.
Buchanan, L. M., Detroit.
Buchanan, J. I., Detroit.
Buck, Mrs. C. P., Three Rivers.
Buson, Mrs. Esther, Ypsilanti.
Campbell, Mrs. R., Ann Arbor.
Campbell, Elizabeth, Ann Arbor.
Carter, Julia, Detroit.
Carter, Ellen, Detroit.
Chapin Anna, Detroit.
Childs, F. E., Gratiot.
Clark, Elnora M., Grass Lake.
Cole, H. S., Grand Rapids.
Conklin, Mrs. M. S., Detroit.
Conroy, Wm. E., Saginaw.
Converse, Mamie, Saginaw.
Converse, R. E., Hillsdale.
Cook, W. G., Saginaw, E. S.
Cook, Mrs. V. B., Detroit.
Crozier, E. A., Grand Rapids.
Culver, John, Alanson.
Dees, Johanna, Detroit.
Dolson, Sarah K., Bay City.
Doyle, M. E., Grand Rapids.
Dunham, Mary, Jackson.
Eby, Emma, Detroit.
Edwards, A. D., Jackson.
Edward, J. H., Dollar Bay.
Eldrich, Emily G., Ann Arbor.
Ellis, W. A., Detroit.
Evans, T. L., Jackson.
Fisher, Mrs. J. P. Detroit.
Foster, Emma, Coldwater.
Foster, Floyd, Coldwater.
Gates, Will R., Morenci.
Gillis, Elizabeth, Detroit.
Goeden, L., Detroit.
Graham, Mrs. A., Flint.
Griel, Katherine, Detroit.
Guest, Grace D., Detroit.
Hall, Matilda E., Detroit.
Hamilton, Anna G., Detroit.
Hanchett, M., Leslie.
Hart, H. V. C., Adrian.
Hart, Clara, Adrian.
Hinsdale, B. A., Ann Arbor.
Howard, Sarah M., Detroit.
Howard, Mrs. Emily, Detroit.
Hughes, Sarah L., Detroit.
Hughes, Mabel M., Detroit.
Hughes, Fannie K., Detroit.
Hunter, J. W., Grand Rapids.
Hutchins, Adella A., Detroit.
Jacobson, J., Grand Rapids.
Johnston, Josephine, Saginaw.
Judd, Mrs. R. Y., Jackson.
Keeler, F. A., Mt. Clemens.
Keplar Chas. H., Saginaw.
Kimberlin, Nettie D., Detroit.
Knight, E., Jackson.
Lawrence, J. E., Ann Arbor.
Levi, Geo. I., Grand Rapids.
Logie, Wm., Grand Rapids.
Lott, Emma M., Lansing.
Low, J. M., Detroit.
Lyon, W. F., Detroit.
Marsh, M. J., Detroit.
Maynard, M. L., Detroit.
McCarthy, K. E., Detroit.
McCulloch, G. L., Jackson.
McKay, E. I., Detroit.
McKerrell, Belle, Detroit.
Murray, A. J., Sault St. Marie.
Murray, Grace M., Sault St. Marie.
Nicholson, Georgie, Detroit.
Nicholson, Florence A., Detroit.
O'Dwyer, J. G., Jackson.
Osborn, Clara M., Rice Lake.
Pattengill, H. R., Lansing (2).
Peet, B. W., Grand Rapids.
Perry, W. S., Ann Arbor.
Phillips, Henry W., Ogden.
Pierce, E. J., Ann Arbor.
Powell, L. M., Detroit.
Pulsipher, Ida, Detroit.
Randall, Elizabeth, Detroit.
Randall, H., Ann Arbor.
Remington, Mrs. L. D., Fenton.
Remington, Lew D., Fenton.
Richmond, W. E., Grand Rapids (2).

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MICHIGAN—*Continued.*

Roberts, Mrs. J. B., Three Rivers.
Robinson, Wm. E., Detroit.
Russell, Fannie M., Mt. Clemens.
Sackett, R. L., Mt. Clemens.
Schaff, E. E., Ann Arbor.
Scott, John P., Detroit.
Scranton, W. S., Detroit.
Sharpstein, N. B., Lansing.
Sherzer, W. H., Ypsilanti.
Shull, D. N., Lansing.
Smith, Mrs. Chas. H., Detroit.
Smith, Mrs. Jennie C., Detroit.
Smith, B. M., Detroit.
Smith, E. L., Jackson.
Smith, Clara, Niles.
Spear, J., Grand Rapids.
Springer, D. W., Ann Arbor.
Stewart, J. A., Bay City.
Strong, Miss L. M., Ypsilanti.
Strong, E. A., Ypsilanti.
Taylor, Edith, Bay City.
Thayer, R. C., Detroit.
Thompson, E. C., Saginaw, W. S.
Thorne, V. S., Detroit.
Traver, Mrs. C. H., Detroit.
Tressler, A. W., Monroe.
Van Wagoner, R., Detroit.
Wadsworth, D., Detroit.
Walsh, H. A., Detroit.
Warde, E. F., Detroit.
Watkins, Bell, Detroit.
Watkins, M., Detroit.
Watson, Nellie, Detroit.
Welling, Mrs. Frank, Jackson.
Whitley, Sarah, Detroit.
Whitney, E. C., Detroit.
Whitney, E. J., Ypsilanti.
Whitney, M. A., Ypsilanti.
Whitney, A. S., Saginaw, E. S.
Wilcoxson, T. R., Ann Arbor.
Williams, May L., Detroit.
Williams, E., Detroit.
Williams, C. C., Detroit.
Wolfe, G. A., Grand Rapids (2).
Yeats, R. W., Detroit.
Yeats, Stella W., Detroit.

Michigan—155

MINNESOTA.

Abbott, W. D., Winona.
Abbott, Mrs. W. D., Winona.
Alton, George B., Minneapolis.
Burchard, Miss H. M., Winona.
Chidester, W. E., St. Paul.
Chidester, F. E., St. Paul.
Colburn, W. S., Red Wing.
Davis, Buel T., Winona.
Denfeld, R. E., Duluth.
Doud, Jennie V., Winona.
Dow, J. J., Faribault.
Doyle, Rose M., St. Peter.
Durkee, Carrie, St. Paul.
Eberman, W. S., St. Paul.
Elmer, Frances A., Winona.
Farnsworth, S. A., St. Paul.
Finn, Paula, St. Paul.
Finn, Mrs. Geo. H., St. Paul.
Ford, Ellen A., Moorhead.
Galbreath, Louis H., Winona.
Gallagher, Winifred N., Winona.
Gardner, W. H., St. Paul.
Garlock, Florence, Winona.
Glazer, Marcus L., St. Cloud.
Goodhue, Horace, Northfield.
Grant, Clara, Winona.
Grant, Mary, Winona.
Greenleaf, W. H., Litchfield.
Gregory, Mrs. R. C., Winona.
Harris, Ada Vanstone, Duluth.
Hartigan, John A., St. Paul.
Hartigan, Mrs. John A., St. Paul.
Hazzard, Geo. H., St. Paul (2).
Heiser, J. H., Minneapolis.
Heritige, M. A., Minneapolis.
Heritage, M. A., Minneapolis.
Hibbard, C. B., Minneapolis.
Holbrook, F. G., Minneapolis (2).
Hopkins, L. Grace, Winona.
Hopkins, J. G., Winona.
Hoyt, Library, St. Paul.
Jordan, C. M., Minneapolis.
Kelly, John C., Minneapolis.
Kiehle, D. L., Minneapolis.
King, J. C. E., Minneapolis.
King, Anna S., Minneapolis.
Locke, C. M., Minneapolis.
Lord, L. C., Moorhead.
Lynch, J. L., Wiscoy.
Mallaney, James, Lanesboro.
Mallaney, Mrs., Lanesboro.
Mars, Bessie G., West Duluth.
Mars, F. S., West Duluth.
McGlachin, M., Minneapolis.
Miller, Mrs. Emma, Winona.
Miller, Lilah, Winona.
Moore, M. E., Minneapolis.
Muldberg, D. S., Minneapolis.
Mumford, B. K., Rochester.
Nettleton, P. B., Minneapolis.
Norway, F. A., Minneapolis.
Norway, Annie, Minneapolis.
Norway, Walter, Minneapolis.
Nunn, Janet H., Winona.
Olds, Mary L., Duluth.
O'Shea, M. V., Mankato.
Osmer, J. M., Minneapolis.
Pendergast, W. W., St. Paul.
Peterson, Geo., Albert Lea.
Pettit, Katie, St. Paul.
Pierce, Mrs. M. W., Winona.
Pierson, Mrs. J. C., Minneapolis.
Preece, Louise, Minneapolis.
Runyon, Miss, Winona.
Sadler, W. H., Minneapolis.
Scott, Charles B., St. Paul.
Selover, Julia, Winona.
Shepard, Irwin, Winona.
Sherin, S., St. Paul.
Soudon, Miss A. P., Minneapolis.
Stebbins, L. C., Winnebago.
Thomas, Jennie, Minneapolis.
Van Ness, E. S., Anoka.
Van Ness, Mrs. E. S., Anoka.
White, E. T., Minneapolis.

Minnesota—57.

MISSISSIPPI.

Able, C. M., Oxford.
Ayres, C. H., Columbus.
Burke, L., Aberdeen.
Chilton, L., Oxford.
Frazer, Robert, Columbus.
Frazer, Florence, Columbus.
Fulton, R. B., University.
Lawrence, J. M., Greenville.
Lawrence, Nellie, Greenville.
Leatherman, Mrs. M. S., Commerce.
Lowe, L. C., Columbus.
McCauley, C., Greenville.
McKay, R. E., Port Gibson.
Nassauer, H., West Point.
Preston, Supt. J. R., Jackson.
Schwab, S., Aberdeen.
Sherman, B. C., Oxford.
Thompson, E. K., Natchez (2).
Trigg, M. A., Greenville.

Mississippi—10.

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MISSOURI.

Abbott, Laura E., St. Louis.
Abel, J. E., St. Louis.
Abel, Mrs. M. G., St. Louis.
Abernathy, M. S. Kansas City.
Adams, J. W., Marshall.
Adams, Mrs. D. S., Kansas City.
Adams, Jessie, St. Louis.
Adams, Julia, St. Louis.
Aide, Jesse M., Kansas City.
Akin, T. R., St. Louis.
Allen, Mrs. H., St. Louis.
Allen, Olive S., St. Joseph.
Apple, J. R., St. Louis.
Archer, Ruby, Kansas City.
Arnold, Abble, Kansas City.
Arnold, W. W., Kansas City.
Arnold, K., Kansas City.
Atwill, F. R., St. Joseph.
Bailey, E. E., Kansas City.
Baker, Geo. A., St. Louis.
Bannister, E. B., St. Louis.
Baptiste, Geo., St. Louis.
Barber, L. S., St. Louis.
Barnard, William, St. Louis.
Barnes, Arthur J., St. Louis.
Barrett, E. D., St. Louis.
Barrett, Mrs. E. G., St. Louis.
Barrett, W. H., Kansas City.
Batterton, Viginia, Carthage.
Benesch, A., St. Louis.
Bery, E. F., St. Joseph.
Berry, Ella F., St. Joseph.
Blest, Ida, St. Louis.
Billings, Jennie, St. Louis.
Blanch, J., St. Louis.
Blanchard, Elene, St. Louis.
Block, F., St. Louis.
Block, Geo. M., St. Louis.
Block, Helen D., St. Louis.
Block, Helen, St. Louis.
Bler, Wm. M., St. Louis.
Bler, M. A., St. Louis.
Boddie, J., St. Louis.
Bogy, C., Kansas City
Bohn, Harry F, St. Louis.
Baughen, Nellie C., Nevada.
Bowles, J. J., Hannibal.
Bowles, Mrs. J. J., Hannibal.
Brennon, Florence, St. Louis.
Bright, Mrs. W., St. Louis.
Buchanan, John T., Kansas City.
Buchanan, Mrs. John T., Kansas City.
Buchanan, G. V., Sedalia.
Burlin, Mrs. A. M., St. Louis.
Byrnes, J. W., St Louis.
Byrnes, Genevieve P., St. Louis.
Byrnes, Lee M., St. Louis.
Byrnes, M. J., St. Louis.
Cabanne, C. G., St. Louis.
Cahill James I., Kansas City.
Caldwell, E. N., St. Louis.
Caldwell, J., St. Louis.
Calkins, Mrs. W. T., Warrensburg.
Calout, John W., Kansas City.
Campbell, James E., Warrensburgh.
Campbell, Edith, Warrensburg.
Cannon, J. M., St. Louis.
Carlie, H., St. Louis.
Cartwright, G. S., Kansas City (2).
Cartwright, Mrs. G. S., Kansas City.
Casey Michael, St. Louis.
Caudy, W. E., St. Louis.
Chandler, Anna H., St. Louis.
Chapman, M., St. Louis.
Chapman, S. B., St. Louis.
Chase, Wm., St. Louis.
Chase, Frederick J., Kansas City.
Clark, Laura, Kansas City.
Clement, Bertha, St. Louis.
Cohen, Miss Ray, St. Louis.
Combs, F. F., Sedalia.
Condit, I. H., Kansas City.
Conn, Joe C., St. Louis (2).
Cook, Mrs. S. A., St. Louis.
Cooper, W. H., St. Louis.
Cooper, Nellie, St. Louis.
Cox, Mrs. R. H., St. Louis.
Cox, R. H., Jr., St. Louis.
Cox, Ida, St. Louis.
Cox, Stella, St. Louis.
Cox, R. H., St. Louis.
Crestman, T. W., St. Louis.
Cummins, Hattie, Jefferson City.
Cunningham, C. A., St Louis (2).
Cunningham, Mrs. C. A., St. Louis.
Curtis, E. A., St. Louis.
Curtis, N., St. Louis.
Davison, J. L., St. Joseph.
Davison, Mrs., St. Joseph.
DeClue, John, St. Joseph.
DeClue, Mrs. John, st. Joseph.
Delen, Agnes, St. Louis.
Devine, Mamie, St. Lolus.
De Witt, Miss M., Kansas City.
Dickinson, Wm. W., Kansas City.
Dieterich, Lena K., St. Louis.
Doane, L. F., Kansas City.
Dodson, Mrs. Chas. L., St. Louis.
Donlon, Thos., St. Louis.
Donlon, Mrs. Thos., St. Louis.
Dorsett, Mrs. W. B., St. Louis.
Duenckel, Minnie, St. Louis.
Dumay, Henri, St. Louis.
Dunne, E. L., St. Louis.
Duross, Kate, St. Louis.
Dyer, Romeyn A., St. Louis.
Eisenstadt, Samuel, St. Louis.
Elbe, I., St. Louis.
Ely, Mrs. Frank, St. Louis.
Engel, Caroline, St. Louis.
Engel, J., St. Louis.
Evans, Mrs. W. E., Kansas City.
Fairchild, Mrs. S. P., St. Louis.
Feldman, Mrs. M., St. Louis.
Ferrel, H. E., St. Louis.
Findley, A. D., Kansas City.
Findley, Mrs. A. D., Kansas City.
Fitzgerald, Alice, Clayton.
Fitzgerald, Wm. F., St. Louis.
Ford, J. L., Jr., St. Louis.
Ford, Mrs. J. L., St. Louis.
Ford, Elsie, St Louis.
Foresman, Robt., Kansas City.
Forney, Irwin B., Moberly.
Foster, H. W., Kansas City.
Foster, Mrs. J. W., Kansas City.
Foster, O. A., St Louis.
Fraley, Mrs. M., St. Louis.
Francisco, H. C., Marshall.
Franke, Geo. C., St. Louis.
Franke, Mrs. Geo. C., St. Louis.
Frisble, Jennie W., St. Louis.
Frost, Sara, Kansas City.
Fuller, Blanch, St. Louis.
Gage, E. F., St. Louis.
Gallagher, Miss, Kansas City.
Geary, Miss, Kansas City.
Gerner, Frances, Kansas City.
Gill, M. E., St. Louis.
Gill, E. P., St. Louis.
Gill, A. H., St. Louis.
Gladfelter, Lisbeth, St Louis.
Goerner, Mrs. M. L., St. Louis.
Goettler, Laura H., St. Louis.
Goffney, L., St. Louis.
Goldberg, S., St. Louis.
Goldberg, Mrs. R., St. Louis.
Graff, M, Kansas City.
Green, I., Kansas City.
Green, M., Kansas City.
Green, M. J., Kansas City.
Green, S. M., St. Louis.
Greenwood, J. M., Kansas City.
Grisham, C. N., Kansas City.

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MISSOURI—*Continued.*

Hall, E. Lee, Kansas City.
Hammerstein, C. L., St. Louis.
Hammerstein, Lilly J., St. Louis.
Hammett, B. F. Jr., St. Louis.
Hammett, Mrs. B. F., St. Louis.
Harris, J. W., Kansas City.
Harvey, H. A., Kansas City.
Hassett, W. E., St. Louis.
Hausmann, M., St. Louis.
Hausmann, A., St. Louis.
Hayward, F. M., Kansas City.
Hayward, Mrs. F. M., Kansas City.
Hazard, E., St. Louis.
Hazard, L. C., St. Louis.
Hedge, Lillian, St. Louis.
Henry, J. A., St. Louis.
Hinsman, C., St. Louis (2).
Hinton, T. J., Kansas City.
Hirsch, Mrs. S., Kansas City.
Hirschel, S., St. Louis.
Hirschberg, Sadie, St. Louis.
Hirschverg, A., St. Louis.
Hisey, J. C., Kansas City.
Hisey, Mrs. J. C., Kansas City.
Hixon, J. C., Kansas City.
Hodkinson, G. F., St. Louis.
Holbrook, Mrs. J. A., St. Louis.
Hollingsworth, J. G., Kansas City.
Humphrey, O. F., St. Louis.
Humphrey, Mrs. J. N., Mexico.
Jamerson, C. R., St. Louis.
Jamerson, Mrs. C. R., St. Louis.
Jenkins, E. J., Kansas City.
Jenkins, J. W., Kansas City.
Johnson, J., Kansas City.
Johnson, M., Kansas City.
Johnson, W., Kansas City.
Johnson, S., Kansas City.
Johnson, Jennie C., St. Louis.
Johnson, E. P., St. Louis.
Johnson, Mrs. E. P., St. Louis.
Johnson, Geo. E., Kirkville.
Kahn, Henrietta, St. Joseph.
Kahn, M. M., St. Joseph.
Kahn, A., St. Joseph.
Keller, D., St. Louis.
Kelley, A. T., St. Louis.
Kelley, A. T. Jr., St. Louis.
Kelley, A. E., St. Louis.
Kelley, I. B., St. Louis.
Kidd, Lelia M., Sedalia.
Kimberly, A. S., Kansas City.
King, M. B., St. Louis.
King, Mrs. Eva, St. Louis.
King, T. C., E. St. Louis.
Kingman, S. E., St. Louis.
Kirk, John R., Westport.
Kirtley, R. A., Kansas City.
Knapp, Ralph H., St. Louis.
Knapp, Mrs. Leigh O., St. Louis.
Knight, G. A., Creighton.
Kroeger, E. R., St. Louis.
Kroeger, Mrs. E. R., St. Louis.
Kuehn, E. W., St. Louis.
Laffoy, Richard, St. Louis.
Langman, Mrs. E., Kansas City.
Lang, B., Warrensburg.
Lazarovic, Mauris, Kansas City.
Leaming, Ruth, Sedalia.
Leighton, J. F., St. Louis.
Lewis, Virgil A., Charleston.
Lohman, B. H., St. Louis.
Lohman, Regina, St. Louis.
Lohst, Bertha, St. Louis.
Long, W. J., Kansas City.
Long, E. H., St. Louis.
Long, Sadie E., St. Louis.
Long, Elvira, St. Louis.
Loring, Cosmer J., St. Louis.
Loring Ethlyn, St. Louis.
Lougan, G. B., Kansas City.
Luckey, E. D., St. Louis.
Ludlow, Josephine, St. Louis.
Macken, M., St. Louis.
Maloy, T., St. Louis.
Marlatt, A. L., Kansas City.
Martin, Geo. N., St. Louis.
Martin, Mrs. Geo. N., St. Louis.
Martin, Miss C. C., Kansas City.
Mason, Mrs. J. C., Kansas City.
Mason, Hortense, Kansas City.
Mason, Paul, Kansas City.
Mason, W. H., St. Louis.
Maule, E. P., St. Louis.
May, J., St. Louis.
McAlister, W. H., St. Louis.
McAlister, Mrs. W. H., St. Louis.
McAlister, Amelia, St. Louis.
McAlister, Florence, St. Louis.
McAuliff, Ed., Kansas City.
McElhinney, Alex, Clayton.
McElhinney, S. A., Clayton.
McIntire, E. V., St. Louis.
McIntire, Mrs. S., St. Louis.
McIntire, Nellie, St. Louis.
McNeill, I. C., Kansas City.
McNeill, Mrs. I. C., Kansas City.
Medburg, F. H., Independence.
Meissner, A., Bushberg.
Merriman, Agnes M., St. Louis.
Merriman, A. M., St. Louis.
Merriman, Katie, St. Louis.
Metcalfe, L. B., St. Louis.
Metcalfe, D. B., St. Louis.
Miller, Mrs. Elem, Kansas City.
Miller, Nellie, Kansas City.
Minckwitz, Richard A., Kansas City.
Mitchell, Mrs. Blanche, Kansas City.
Moore, Rob't. St. Louis.
Moore, Alice, St. Louis.
Moore, Chas. W., St. Louis.
Morrison, G. M. St. Louis.
Morrison, L. S., St. Louis.
Mullaly, Lizzie, St. Louis.
Munson, A. E., St. Louis.
Munson, H. A., St. Louis.
Murphy, J. G., Kansas City.
Nearing, C. H., Kansas City.
Neet, Mary V., Warrensburg.
Neet, Mary G., Warrensburg.
Newland, H., St. Louis.
Nicholls, Lizzie, St. Louis.
Norris, Celia, Mexico.
Norris, Mrs. W. H., Mexico.
Oppenheimer, Mrs. H., Kansas City.
Orr, H. C., Kansas City.
Oviatt, Frank L., Kansas City.
Packard, E. E., St. Louis.
Parish, D. L., St. Louis.
Parson, Miss C. W., St. Louis.
Pelletier, F. D., Kansas City.
Perkins, J. W., Kansas City.
Perkins, Mrs. J. W., Kansas City.
Pitt, J. B., Kansas City.
Poole, B. F., St. Louis.
Poole, Mrs. B. F., St. Louis.
Poole, John, St. Louis.
Powell, W. A., Kansas City.
Powell, Mrs. W. H., Sedalia.
Prentis, H. W., St. Louis.
Priestmeyer, M. A., St. Louis.
Proctor, Marcella, St. Louis.
Puckette, L. Francis, Kansas City.
Quaile, Pepe L., Moberly.
Queatin, August, St. Joseph.
Quentin, Mrs. August, St. Joseph.
Radford, C. M., Kansas City.
Ratchiff, F. G., St. Louis.
Richards, J. S., St. Louis.
Richardson, J. S., St. Louis.
Richards, M., St. Louis.
Riley, Mary J., St. Louis.
Robbins, C. W., Sedalia.
Robinson, E. I., St. Louis.

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MISSOURI—*Continued.*

Rockwell, Mrs. R. E., St. Louis.
Rosenheim, Robert F., St. Louis.
Rosenthal, C., St. Louis.
Rosenthal, I. B., St. Louis.
Rothwell, Y. O., Liberty.
Rothwell, J. H., Liberty.
Rowland, J. H., Kansas City.
Russell, W. A., St. Joseph.
Ryan, Miss N., St. Louis.
Salmon, E. L., Kansas City.
Salmon, Mrs. E. L., Kansas City.
Sawyer, I. H., St. Louis.
Sawyer, Mrs. R. E., Kansas City.
Scarr, P. R., St. Louis.
Schnell, Annie, St. Louis.
Schnell, C., St. Louis.
Schram, Mrs. F. W., St. Louis.
Schnyder, Mrs. D. J., St. Louis.
Schoonmaker, Emma W., Kansas City.
Sebastian, N., St. Louis.
Seward, F. D., St. Louis.
Shaughnessy, Kate E., St. Louis.
Shaughnessy, Margarette, St. Louis.
Shannon, R. D., Joplin.
Shea, J. E., St. Louis.
Shields, Ella L., St. Louis.
Shultz, Mollie, St. Louis.
Shultz, C. T., St. Louis.
Sibley, Jno. T., St. Louis.
Smith, Miss O. G., Clayton.
Smith, Miss C. B., Clayton.
Smith, F. M., Kansas City.
Smith, G. W., Kansas City.
Snowden, Cora, St. Joseph.
Spalding, J. F., Kansas City.
Spencer, Kate, Kansas City.
Soloeter, C., St. Louis.
Stanbary, F. H., St. Louis.
Steele, E. K., Holden.
Stellar, Minnie E., St. Louis.
Stevens, Charles B., St. Louis.
Stevens, Mrs. Charles B., St. Louis.
Stevenson, Chas. W., Warrensburg.
Stevenson, Jas. S., St. Louis.
Stiefel, Mrs. C., Kansas City.
Stix, C. A., St. Louis.
Stockum, Miss J. M., St. Louis.
Stoll, Caroline F., Independence.
Stone, E. F., St. Louis.
Stracke, Marie, St. Louis.
Sylvester, Jas. J., St. Louis.
Sylvester, Cissie L., St. Louis.
Tapscott, Fannie, Holden.
Taylor, Annie, Kansas City.
Taylor, W., Kansas City.
Taylor, Mrs. C. O., Sedalia.
Teadale, W. C. Jr., St. Louis.
Tehlmann, Anna, St. Louis.
Terpening, F. W., St. Louis.
Terpening, Mrs. F. W., St. Louis.
Thompson, Chas. W., Kansas City.
Thompson, Mrs. C. W., Kansas City.
Thorpe, F. D., Kansas City.
Tontrup, Alice, St. Louis.
Tontrup, Ella, St. Louis.
Tufts, F., St. Louis (2).
Tyzzer, W. G., St. Louis.
Van Antwerp, Harriet, Sedalia.
Varrelmann, Charles, St. Louis.
Venable, M. Alice, Kansas City.
Venable, Mrs. E. May, Kansas City.
Vierling, Fred, St. Louis.
Vineyard, Jesse, Kansas City.
Von Volkacz, Valerie, St. Louis.
Wadleigh, G. A., Joplin.
Watkins, M. E., Macon.
Webb, Miss Willie, St. Louis.
Webb, Miss, St. Louis.
Weber, John F., St. Louis.
Weber, M. A., St. Louis.
Weiner, M., St. Louis.
Weissels, J. N., St. Louis.
Wengler, Katie, Clayton.
Wiggans, J. F., St. Louis.
Wilkins, A. L., St. Louis.
Wilkins, E., St. Louis.
Wilkinson, Carolyn V., St. Louis.
Willman, H., St. Louis.
Willson, C. R., St. Louis.
Willson, R. K., St. Louis.
Wing, S. C., Kansas City.
Withington, Florence, St. Louis.
Wittenburg, Chas., St. Louis.
Wolfe, Hon. L. E., Jefferson City.
Wood, O. M., St. Louis.
Woodward, C. M., St. Louis.
Woodworth, Ella V., St. Joseph.
Wright, Francis A., Kansas City.
Wright, Mrs. Francis A., Kansas City.
Yates, W. W., Kansas City.
Yatum, Harry, Benton.
Young, Marrianne R. S., St. Joseph.

Missouri—435.

MONTANA.

Steele, E. A., Helena.
Tower, F. P., Helena.
Young, R. G., Helena.

Montana—3.

NEBRASKA.

Aitken, Grace, Lincoln.
Aitken, Gertrude, Lincoln.
Arnold, Fannie, Omaha.
Arnot, Chas., Howells.
Arnot, S. P., Sterling.
Atwood, Anna, Humboldt.
Barber, H. G., Lincoln.
Bartson, H., Omaha.
Bing, S. Emma, Lincoln.
Boulon, Rosa, Lincoln.
Bowen, Eliza H., Lincoln (2).
Butler, Sybil, Columbus.
Canfield, James A., Lincoln.
Carmicheal, H. E., Omaha.
Cayton, Lina C., Fremont.
Clark, Doline, Fremont.
Clark, W. H., Omaha.
Cook, Andrew, Tecumseh.
Daign, May, Humboldt.
Dakin, Sarah T., Lincoln.
Dinsmore, J. W., Humboldt.
Dinsmore, Mrs. J. W., Humboldt.
Dye, Miss N. S., Omaha.
Evans, S. M., Omaha.
Ewing, M. L., Beatrice.
Folsom, A. M., Lincoln.
Folsom, H. T., Lincoln.
Folsom, M. W., Lincoln.
Fowler, Phillip, Wayne.
Gates, W. H., Omaha.
Gates, Mrs. W. H., Omaha.
Gray, W. L., Lincoln.
Gray, Mrs. L., Lincoln.
Gund, I. May, Lincoln.
Hart, Mrs. F. M., Chicago.
Haskinson, Jennis, Ponca.
Hawkins, Mrs., Ashland.
Hellwig, Margaret, Lincoln.
Hoskins, J. M., Ponca (2).
Howe, H. C., Ponca.
Hutchinson, Agnes, Omaha.
Jacobs, Mrs. Ida L., Wayne.
Jordan, E., Omaha.
Jordan, C., Omaha (2).

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NEBRASKA—*Continued.*

Jourdan, Mrs. C. E., Omaha.
Jourdan, W. S., Omaha.
Kelsey, E. J., Omaha.
Kenedy, Marie, Omaha.
Kent, S. J., Lincoln.
Knight, M. A., Lincoln.
Law, Bertha A., Lincoln.
Law, J. C., Lincoln.
Law, Jessie M., Lincoln.
Leathers, Miss, Lincoln.
Leighton, Miss, Omaha.
Leighton, Florence, Omaha.
Lindsey, Mrs. Rachel, Omaha.
Littlefield, Geo. H., Syracuse.
McCarthy, J. J., Ponca.
McCarthy, Mrs. J. J., Ponca.
McDuffee, W. V., Lincoln.
McKoon, Jennie M., Omaha.
Meserve, Edna T., McCook.
Miller, J. H., Lincoln.
Moore, J. W., Lincoln.
Moore, Mrs. J. W., Lincoln.
Moore, R. T., Alma (2).
Morey, J. T., Kearney.
Mullen, Lydia, Lincoln.
Naudain, T. N., Omaha.
Naudain, T. N., Jr., Omaha.
Newton, Alberta, Omaha.
Newton, Mary B., Omaha.
Norton, A. W., Peru.
Norton, Mrs. A. W., Peru.
Norton, C. S., Peru.
Norton, S. W., Peru.
O'Connell, T. J., Lincoln.
Packard, A. O., Fremont.
Peacock, Mrs. J., Omaha.
Phelps, J. M., Omaha.
Preston, R., Omaha.
Potter, Phil., Omaha.
Potter, Mrs. Phil, Omaha.
Ramsey, Grace, Lincoln.
Rooney, Elizabeth, Omaha.
Rosenthal, A., Omaha.
Ross, A. F., Omaha.
Schroer, Lena, Ponca.
Schroer, Mary, Ponca.
Schwab, Sara, Lincoln.
Schwolenberg, Mrs. L. G., Omaha.
Sheldon, C. M., Holdredge.
Sheldon, Mrs. C. M., Holdredge.
Shoelds, Belle, Omaha.
Sipe, B. I., Lincoln.
Spackman, Hester M., Fullerton.
Spickard, Daisy, Fremont.
Stephens, W. L., Fullerton.
Strawhorn, Mrs. Carrie, Newcastle.
Stevens, Mary, Lincoln.
Stevens, Mathilda, Lincoln.
Tibbetts, Anna, Lincoln.
Tibbetts, Emma B., Lincoln.
Towner, C. H. Lincoln.
Turner, Geo. M., Omaha.
Turner, G. W., Omaha.
Van Ness, L., Lincoln.
Van Ness, Mrs. L., Lincoln.
Wolfe, H. K., Lincoln (2).
Wolfe, Katharine B., Lincoln.
Wolfe, Thomas, David City.
Wood, Coryell, Omaha.
Wood, F. C., Ashville.
Wood, Mrs. F. C., Ashville.
Yates, E. D., Lincoln.
Yates, E. G., Lincoln.
Young, C. E., Omaha.
Young, Frank L., Edgar.
Young, Sarah E., Omaha.

Nebraska—127.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Cochran, H., Antrim.
Curtis, Annie M., Wilton.
Drake, B. I., Bethlehem.
Houston, Mary E., Plymouth.
Joslin, J. M., S. Lyndeboro.
Rounds, K. E., Plymouth.
Russel, J. M., Somersworth.

New Hampshire—7.

NEW JERSEY.

Ackerman, Paul P., Maywood.
Ackerson, Josie A., Paterson.
Ahrens, Minnie C., Weehawken.
Alden, Caroline E., Hammonton.
Allan, Elizabeth F., Bayonne.
Allen, Elizabeth A., Hoboken.
Allen, I. C., Hoboken.
Allen, Milton H., Medford.
Alpaugh, Hester E., Dover.
Anderson, Henry S., Newark.
Anderson, Jno. L., Somerville.
Anderson, Lizzie, Camden.
Andrews, Mrs. Phoebe D., Jersey City.
Angelo, Marguerite L., Massboro.
Angle, F. F., Waterloo.
Apgar, Roxie, Califon.
Appleby, T. Frank, Asbury Park.
Appolot, Clara, Weehawken.
Armstrong, Chas. B., Fort Lee.
Armstrong, Jennie, New Brunswick.
Arrowsmith, Emma V., Keyport.
Arrowsmith, S. V., Keyport.
Atkinson, Lizzie M., Clayton.
Atwater, Geo. A., Bayonne.
Atwood, E. H., Milton.
Atwood, F. T., Oxford.
Austin, Elizabeth G., Warrenville.
Ayers, Mrs. D. M., Vienna.
Ayers, Kate, Dover.
Balcom, A. G., Kearney.
Ballon, Emma L., Jersey City.
Bamberger, Morris, Carlstadt.
Baumgartner, Minnie, Weehawken.
Baptis, Hattie, Hoboken.
Barber, Annie F., Pennsgrove.
Barkman, B. B., Hackensack.
Barnet, Clara L., Bayonne.
Barricklo, W. R., Jersey City.
Barringer, Wm. N., Newark.
Barstow, Georgia, Atlantic City.
Bartle, Christie, Martinsville.
Bartolette, Miss O. C., Raritan.
Batt, Miss A. N., Elizabeth.
Beach, Wm. H., Jersey City.
Beach, Mrs. Lucy, Harrison.
Beach, Elva C., Rockaway.
Bebont, Edwin, New Providence.
Beckley, Sam'l C., Allensdale.
Bedle, Anna H., Keyport.
Bedle, Maggie, Keyport.
Benard, Lizzie, Asbury Park.
Benard, Alice, Manasquam.
Benard, Ada, Manasquam.
Benard, Rosale, Manasquam.
Bennett, Mrs. Lydia A., Carlton Hill.
Bent, Isabel M., Jersey City.
Bentley, Rachell G., Burlington.
Benton, Mary E., Jersey City.
Bergen, Jas. J., Somerville.
Bergman, Henrietta, Weehawken.
Bernam, M. Elizabeth, Passaic.
Berkan, Miss M. C., Passaic.
Berry, Mrs. D. B., Hammonton.
Bernart, Sarah, Dayton.
Betts, Elva A., Jersey City.
Betts, J. B., Somerville.

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NEW JERSEY—*Continued.*

Bice, E. E., New Providence.
Bielitz, Mabel L., W. Hoboken.
Billings, Miss C. W., Hoboken.
Billings, N. C. Weehawken.
Bissell, Wm. E., Newark.
Black, B. N., Paterson.
Blakeslee, Anna W., Perth Amboy.
Blakeslee, C. W., Long Branch.
Bleakly, Helen M., Camden.
Bodine, Emma, Trenton.
Bogert, Alice J., Wyckoff.
Bolce, Anna, Freehold.
Bolce, Nellie, Freehold.
Booz, Nellie, Allensdale.
Border, Marie J., Camden.
Bosch, Nellie V., Stanhope.
Bowen, Mrs. Frank, Glassboro.
Bowen, Frank W., Glassboro.
Bowers, Mamie E., Warrenville.
Bownall, Margaret C., Jamesburg.
Boyer, Chas. B., Atlantic City.
Boyer, Arthur T., Somerville.
Boyle, Hattie P., Liberty Corner.
Brady, Kate, Harrison.
Brady, Kate, Jersey City.
Brain, Florence, Camden.
Braun, Miss S. M., Elizabeth.
Brigham, Phoebe A., Jersey City.
Britton, Grace E., Long Branch.
Breckenridge, C. E., Maywood.
Brensinger, J. H., Jersey City.
Bresnahan, Mamie, Hightstown.
Brockway, Irene, Hoboken.
Brockway, Orice, W. Hoboken.
Bronson, T. B., Lawrenceville.
Brophy, Annie, Harrison.
Brower, Cornelius J., Hoboken.
Brower, Casper, Matawan.
Brown, Isabella, Paterson.
Brown, Emma, Asbury Park.
Brown, James, Paterson.
Brown, Mrs. James, Paterson.
Brown, John, Camden.
Bryan, Wm. H., Lanoka.
Bryce, Margaret T., Passaic.
Burkhard, Rosalie A., Jersey City.
Burd, Lizzie H., Union.
Burke, Mary B., Jersey City.
Burke, Marguerite T., Weehawken.
Butcher, F. P., Ocean Grove.
Butler, Nicholas Murray, Paterson.
Byard, Stella, Paterson.
Calhopper, Sallie W., Keyport.
Campbell, D. S., Dunellen.
Carey, Margaret, Weehawken.
Carney, Ed., Harrison.
Carpenter, James D., Woodbury.
Carr, Elias F., Trenton.
Carringer, Wm. M., Newark.
Carter, Sarah F., Jersey City.
Case, Anna M., Stanhope.
Case, Richard, Red Bank.
Cassady, Lizzie, Camden.
Cathers, M. H., Bound Brook.
Causdell, Clara L., Vineland.
Chamberlain, Raymond, Milton.
Chambers, Wm., Vineland.
Chambers, Mary N., Camden.
Champion, Ella, Port Oram.
Chance, N. L., Hasbrouck Heights.
Childs, Maud E., Jersey City.
Childs, Edith L., Jersey City.
Chinery, Serena, Keyport.
Chiswell, Mary, Paterson.
Christie B. C., Trenton.
Clark, J. H., Leonia.
Clark, Joseph, Newark.
Clark, A. T. S., Metuchen.
Clark, J. H., Leonia.
Cline, Charlotte S., Madison.
Coffin, Mary E., Asbury Park.
Cogill, Miss W., Gloucester City.
Coker, Florence, Kingston.
Coleman, Mrs. M. F., Jersey City.
Collard, T. T., Newark.
Collings, Eva, Gloucester City.
Collings, C. C., Gloucester City.
Collins, Maria T., Port Republic.
Condell, L., Elizabeth.
Condon, Miss, Harrison.
Conery, Magdalene, Jersey City.
Conklin, Lavinia H., Morristown.
Constantine, Mrs. E. V., W. Hoboken.
Contessa, Mary C., Hudson Co.
Cook, W. Collom, Clayton.
Cooke, Miss S. M., Hackettstown.
Cooper, James O., Dover.
Cope, A. B., Stanhope.
Corliss, Alonzo B., Old Bridge.
Corse, Miles J., Paterson.
Corson, D. B., Rahway.
Corson Rodman W., Collingswood.
Cosine, Fannie M., Ridgewood.
Cox, M. L., Dover.
Coyle, Kate A., Monroe.
Coyle, Nellie R., Monroe.
Cramer, Lillian, Camden.
Crane, Minnie A., Cranford.
Crane, Ida M., Rutherford.
Creasey, Hannah M., Jersey City.
Creden, Francis I., Raritan.
Crispin, W. C., Hackettstown.
Cullum, Sarah, Jersey City.
Cumback, I. N., Mt. Freedom.
Curry, Jennie S., Weehawken.
Curtis, Annie E., Newark.
Dadmun, Mary H., Long Branch.
Dalrymple, Chas. M., Ridgefield Park.
Danforth, H. J., Passaic.
Daniels, Emma M., Hackensack.
Dashrell, Caroline, Arlington.
Davey, Vernon L., East Orange.
Davidson, Elizabeth R., W. Hoboken.
Davies, Mary H., Jersey City.
Davis, Ella, Cranberry.
Davis, Edna A., Hopewell.
Davis, Chas. M., Bayonne.
Davis, Florence, Asbury Park.
Davis, David, Haddonfield.
Davis, Mary, Camden.
Davidson Kate E., Old Bridge.
Demarest, Abraham J., Hoboken.
Denison, Sadie, Ridgewood.
DeWaltearss, Ethel E., Long Branch.
Dillingham, James D., Jersey City.
Dinon, Annie, Harrison.
Dix, J. A., Elizabeth.
Dodson, Elizabeth A., Cramer Hill.
Donahay, Etta, Asbury Park.
Donnell, Margaret, Hightstown.
Donohoe, Mary J., Bayonne.
Doren, Lida A., Asbury Park.
Dorlan, Virginia E., Wrightstown.
Dorphley, Mabel, Hammonton.
Dotterer, Joseph, Gloucester City.
Dougherty, A. L., Jersey City.
Dougherty, Wm., Camden.
Doughty, Joshua, Jr., Somerville.
Doyle, Robert S., Cresskill.
Downs, Katherine, Trenton.
Drake, Chas. M., Hackettstown.
Drake, W. E., Jersey City.
Draper, Horatio, Camden.
DuBois, Alice, Freehold.
DuBois, Sarah A., Freehold.
Dumbacher, Emily, Hoboken.
Dumont, Martha N., Asbury Park.
Dunham, Alice A., Ocean Grove.
Dunham, Elizabeth A., Ocean Grove.
Durand, Sara B., Manasquam.
Duerkes, Frances, Weehawken.
DuRie, Wm. B., Rahway.
Darling, Mayme O., Raritan.
Dutcher, Mrs. E. H., East Orange.
Dwyer, John, Harrison.
Eakins, Elizabeth, Paterson.

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NEW JERSEY—*Continued.*

Eakins, Marie, Paterson.
Earl, Ebenezer C., Bayonne.
Eastburn, Mary B., Trenton.
Eastlack, Emma C., Blackwood.
Ebensperger, Christian, Gloucester City.
Eisenhowser, A. D., Norristown.
Eldridge, Wm. H., Williamstown.
Ellis, Mary E., Whippany.
Ellsworth, H. W., Montvale.
Elmendorf, Martha S., Bayonne.
Ely, Sarah Y., Trenton.
Emmell, Alice R., Glassboro.
Enright, Julia, Long Branch.
Enright, John, Freehold.
Eppley, Grace, Asbury Park.
Estelle, Sarah D., Leonia.
Evans, Abigail, Cinnaminson.
Evans, Lydia T., Cinnaminson.
Evans, May, Milltown.
Evans, Etta, Milltown.
Eveland, Eliza J., Jersey City.
Eveleth, F. W., Jersey City.
Everett, R. M., Hibernia.
Everett, Miss S. R., Eatontown.
Everett, Anna, Lafayette.
Eversole, W. S., Blairstown.
Ewing, Olive M., Long Branch.
Farley, D. H., Trenton.
Farrell, Anna, Camden.
Farrell, May, Hudson Co.
Faussett, Emma C., Somerville.
Feidler, Wm. F., Hackensack.
Fell, Anna M., Trenton.
Fellenbaum, Emma, Merchantsville.
Field, Charlotte, Red Bank.
Field, Mary C., Trenton.
Fields, Jennie M., Jersey City.
Fields, Anna W., Jersey City.
Fillips, Susan M., Oak Tree.
Finke, Carrie L., Jersey City.
Fisher, Carrie, Dunellen.
Fiske, Cora E., Weehawken.
Fitzer, J. A., Salem.
Fitzherbert, Edw., Succasunna.
Flandreau, A. M. T., Farmingdale.
Fleming, Geo., Judson.
Fleming, Ida H., Somerville.
Flint, Nettie J., Cramer Hill.
Flock, Jacob D., Hackettstown.
Foen, Kate G., Glassboro.
Foley, Ella T., Morristown.
Foote, H. E., Jersey City.
Force, L. C., Ledgewood.
Force, Ella G., Ledgewood.
Ford, Julia B., Morristown.
Foster, Kate E., Jersey City.
Fountain, James, Browntown.
Fountain, E. G., Clarksburg.
Fountain, Hortense, Clarksburg.
Fox, Walter T., Williamstown.
Francis, Mrs. Annie B., Hoboken.
Freeland, M. Frances, Asbury Park.
Frey, Geo. A., Camden.
Frost, Jennie M., Jersey City.
Frost, Marion J., Hudson Co.
Fry, Geo. E., Camden.
Gaffney, Kate, Jersey City.
Gallivan, Mary J., Harrison.
Gamble, G. W., Woodbridge.
Gardner, Sarah L., Jersey City.
Garnier, Bessie M., Passaic.
Garretson, Henrietta, Bound Brook.
Garrison, Gertrude, Swedesboro.
Garry, J. A., Jersey City.
Gaw, Elizabeth, Weehawken.
Geary, Ella J., Weehawken.
Genung, Josephine S., Weehawken.
Gerdts, Mrs. E., Hoboken.
Gifford, Emma L., Passaic.
Giles, Edith, Hoboken.
Gilhuly, S. B., Flemington.
Gilman, Emma A., Perth Amboy.
Ginn, E. R., Plainfield.
Ginocchio, Jennie, Jersey City.
Goldsmith, Emma, Freehold.
Good, Henrietta M., Hoboken.
Goodenough, Louis A., Scotch Plains.
Gorman, Wm. C., Montclair.
Goslee, Mrs. M. Q., Long Branch.
Gould, W. H., Newark.
Grant, Charles A., Leed's Point.
Gravart, Sadie, West Hoboken.
Graves, Mrs. E. M., Hasbrouck Heights.
Gray, Emma, Morristown.
Gray, Jessie M., Princeton.
Green, Olive, Trenton.
Gregory, B. C., Trenton.
Gregory, Lillie, Jersey City.
Gregory, Christopher, Long Branch.
Grenelle, W. H., Deckerton.
Griffin, Clara M., Asbury Park.
Griffin, Edith A., Granford.
Griffith, Clara L., Wichatunk.
Griggs, Mrs. Arthur, Newark.
Griggs, Mrs. Lottie B., Union.
Grork, Genevieve S., Newark.
Grove, Anna S., Camden.
Guden, Anna J., Bayonne.
Gilford, Anson B., Jersey City.
Gulick, Edw. L., Lawrence.
Gunn, Lottie, Woodburn.
Gunther, Lillian, Metuchen.
Gwynne, Robt. Jr., Salem.
Haas, Nelson, Hackensack.
Haas, Edgar, Bordentown.
Hadden, Estelle, Jersey City.
Hall, Peter B., Neshanic.
Hall, Eleanor, Hudson Co.
Hall, Sallie E., Camden.
Hall, Emma, Camden.
Hallock, J. A., Newark.
Hamilton, Charles S., South Branch.
Hamilton, C. V., Hackettstown.
Hampton, Chas. G., Bridgeton.
Hancock, Clara F., Long Branch.
Harned, Adele, Morristown.
Harper, Jennie S., East Orange.
Hates, Fanny, Medford.
Harris, Henry E., Bayonne.
Harris, Ethel P., Allendale.
Harris, Emily, Ocean Grove.
Harrop, Laura J., Newbold.
Hartwell, Abel W., Princeton.
Harvey, J. H., Imlaystown.
Hasbrouck, Margaret, Hudson Co.
Hascall, Dr. T. B., Rutherford.
Haskell, C. S., Jersey City.
Haven, Supt. W. L. R., Morristown.
Havens, Louise M., Hudson Co.
Hawkins, Sadie, Boonton.
Haynes, John S., Somerville.
Hays, J. L., Newark.
Heineken, John F. D., Burlington.
Heineken, W. L., South Amboy.
Hendricks, Cora, New Brunswick.
Hendrickson, Mrs. P. K., Jackson's Mills.
Hendrickson, Mrs. L. M., Middleton.
Hendrickson, Ida, Little Silver.
Herbert, Edith, Asbury Park.
Herbst, Helen, Newark.
Hewitt, Amelia Cooper, Trenton.
Heyer, W. D., Elizabeth.
Healy, Ruth E., Newark.
Healy, Myra C., Weehawken.
Heaney, Edith G., Camden.
Heath, E. M., Lockton.
Higbee, Mina A., Leeds Point.
Higginson, Stephen, Hazlet.
Hill, Alice, Dividing Creek.
Hill, Luther, Andover.
Hillas, Miss M. L., Hudson Co.
Hinks, Nellie, Lakeview.
Hoff, Emma C., Frenchtown.
Hoffman, Gaius, Bound Brook.
Hoffman, Edgar H., Demarest.
Hoffman, Hattie F., Pennsgrove.

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NEW JERSEY—*Continued.*

Hoffman, Caroline J., Wechawken.
Hoffner, Richard J., Jr., Gloucester.
Holdrum, Abram C., River Vale.
Holdrum, John C., Norwood.
Hollinshed, Lizzie, Sparta.
Holloway, Anna A., Freehold.
Holmes, B., Elizabeth.
Holsmann, Minnie, Hoboken.
Hoover, Jennie K., Paterson.
Hopkins, James J., Jersey City.
Hopping, Louisa B., Afton.
Horner, C. G., Neshanic.
Horton, Joel, Guttenburg.
Houghton, G. C., Hudson Co.
Houston, Eva A., Jersey City.
Hover, Lillie F., Englewood.
Hovey, E. O., Newark.
Howell, H. B., Phillipsburg.
Howell, Sabilla R., Hackensack.
Howell, W. G., East Orange.
Howell, Mrs. W. G., East Orange.
Hoyt, C. A., Newark.
Hudson, Anna, Haddonfield.
Hughes, Saidee, Ridgewood.
Hughes, Florence, Camden.
Hull, L. C., Lawrenceville.
Hulsart, J. H., Dover.
Hulsey, Blanche, Jersey City.
Hulsinger, P. S., Jersey City.
Hummer, Ida, Middlebush.
Humphrey, Bercy, Trenton.
Hurley, Belle, Asbury Park.
Husted, May E., Gloucester City.
Husted, George, Gloucester City.
Hutton, H. H., Passaic.
Hyde, Lizzie C., Franklin Furncae.
Hyde, Margaret A., Franklin Furnace.
Ingersoll, Chas. W., Pleasantville.
Ivins, Geo. W. Jr., New Egypt.
Jester, Alice M., Camden.
Jewett, R. B., Passaic.
Johnston, Mrs. A. T., Elizabeth.
Jones, Florence, Asbury Park.
Jones, Anna Q., Camden.
Jones, Jennie, Freehold.
Jordan, Stella, Woodbury.
Jordan, Mary K., New Brunswick.
Joslin, A. D., Jersey City.
Joutras, May, West Hoboken.
Justin, Geo. McC., Wenonah.
Kachlene, Mary D., Asbury Park.
Karns, Mary, Harrison.
Kase, Mattie, Ledgwood.
Kaysar, C. F., Newark.
Kelly, Isaline, Weehawken.
Kelly, Edward, Jersey City.
Kempf, Emily M., Newark.
Kennedy, J. Wilmer, Newark.
Kennedy, Georgena, Hoboken.
Kennedy, Anna, Asbury Park.
Kernan, Edward, Hudson Co.
Kerr, Alex P., Lambertville.
Kerr, Sue H. C., Woodbury.
Keynton, Jno., Kearney.
Kiernan, E. H., Hoboken.
Kirby, Ida, Hackensack.
Kirby, Mrs., Harrison.
Kirkbride, Lizzie P., Medford.
Klein, H. C., Weehawken.
Kline, Miss L. E., New Monmouth.
Kline, Ambrose B., Union.
Klock, Ella, Woodbury.
Knapp, E. Fred, Summit.
Knutson, C., Jersey City.
Kost, Ida, Weehawken.
Krebs, Henry C., Egg Harbor City.
Laird, Henry Dover.
Lambert, Cecilia, Passaic.
Landrine, Lawrence D., Maywood.
Langstroth, Margaret, Clifton.
LaPierre, Hallie, Camden.
Larkin, Hannah, Dunellen.
LaRue, Martha, Dover.
Lavess, Mary A., Plainfield.
Layton, Julia N., South Orange.
Leach, H. Allen, Sparta.
Lees, Minnie A., Passaic.
Lenes, Mrs. Andrew, Trenton.
Leonard, Geo. M., Keansburgh.
Leslie, Miss H. S, Blackwood.
Lewis, J. M., Jersey City.
Light, J. R., Jersey City.
Lindsley, Miss Margaret, Raritan.
Linsley, Geo. N., Jersey City.
Luitkimann, Mary, Weehawken.
Lodor, Elizabeth, Lambertville.
Loudenslager, William B., Atlantic City.
Love, John H., Belmar.
Ludlow, Cleffie L., Westfield.
Lufburrow, Linnie, Keyport.
Lull, Ida J., Hoboken.
Lundy, E. S., Linden.
Lynch, Rev. W. A., Newark.
Lyon, Adrian, Perth Amboy.
Lyon, Mary A., Hibernia.
Lyon, A. L., Colt's Neck.
Macfarland, Wm., Bordentown.
Mack, Mary L., Phillipsburg.
Mackey, Julia, Elizabeth.
Mackey, J. T. Jersey City.
MacNair, Lizzie W., Harlingen.
Madden, Katie A., Jersey City.
Majory, Chas. J., Newton.
Manness, S. E., Camden.
Manning, John D., Camden.
Marinus, Mrs. Margaret, Paterson.
Martemis, Alice D., Asbury Park.
Martin, John V., Somerville.
Martin, Daisy, Boonton.
Martin, Sarah W., Trenton.
Martin, Miss S. C., Elizabeth.
Marvin, Mrs. Susan C., Jersey City.
Mathews, B. C., Newark.
Matthews, Cora S., Asbury Park.
Matthews, W. B. Madison.
Maugham, R. S., Tenafly.
Maxson, H. M., Plainfield (2).
Mayberry, Belle, Camden.
McCain, J. S., Mt. Hermon.
McCarter, Clara S., Jersey City.
McConnell, Howard W., Smith's Landing.
McCoy, Kate L., South Amboy.
McCue, Cornelia, Freehold.
McCully, Clara E., Camden.
McGorem, Miss, Harrison.
McGown, E. S., Jersey City.
McGuire, Caroline, Trenton.
Mckain, Jennie, Jersey City.
McKenzie, Wm., Carlton Hill.
McKernan, Julia, Weehawken.
McKinney, Frank D., Paterson.
McNally, Lizzie, Dover.
McNary Sarah J., Newark.
McWilliams, Anna, Bernardsville.
Meehan, Mary, Jersey City.
Meeker, Martha, Succasunna.
Megargee, G. E., Morristown.
Meharg, Anna S., Jersey City.
Mehlin, H. Paul, Maywood.
Mehrhof, Lucinda D., Ridgefield Park.
Meley, Florence P., Camden.
Messenger, Jane E., Somerville.
Meseroll, Elizabeth A., Trenton.
Middletown, Chas. K., Camden.
Miller, R. Anna, Somerville.
Miller Mary R., Cold Spring.
Miller, Phoebe S., Cold Spring.
Milligan, Wm., Woodbury.
Millington, C. M., Passaic.
Mills, Annie E., Morristown.
Minihan, Julian A., Jersey City.
Mitchell, Hannah W., Woodbury.
Mordorf, Oliver C., Trenton.
Morris, M. Jennie, Newark.
Morris, George, Keansburg.

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NEW JERSEY—*Continued.*

Morris, Mrs. Jennie L., Long Branch.
Morris, Dorothy, Cramer Hill.
Morse, C. E., East Orange.
Mulford, A. I., East Orange.
Mulford, Miss S. M., Roselle.
Mullinger, Clara L., Camden.
Mumper, W. N., Trenton.
Mundy, Carrie, Madison.
Munn, Abby M., Montclair.
Munson, Hattie D., Sparta.
Murphy, E. A., New Durham.
Musgrave, A., Hoboken.
Neafie, Emma, Hoboken.
Neff, M. Josie, Passaic.
Nelson, Emma L., Warrenville.
Nelson, Carrie, Ocean Grove.
Newell, Marion L., Passaic.
Nolan, Agnes, Jersey City.
Nolan, Anna M., Passaic.
North, F. A., Toms River.
Norris, Alice L., Boonton.
Norrish, J. W., Park Ridge.
Norwood, Jos. M., Paterson.
Nye, Myrtie E., Camden.
O'Brien, Theresa B., Weehawken.
O'Connor, Mary A., Bound Brook.
O'Donnell, Mary, Weehawken.
O'Dyer, Mary C., W. Hoboken.
Ortel, Otto, Weehawken.
Osborne, Fannie, Ocean Grove.
Outwater, Maria, Jersey City.
Owen, James, Montclair.
Paddock, M. H., Jersey City.
Palmborg, Elin V., Dunellen.
Palmer, Anna, New Brunswick.
Park, Myra, Paterson.
Patton, Marion C., Camden.
Payson, E. R., New Brunswick.
Pearson, Miss J. E., Jersey City.
Pease, N. W., Elizabeth.
Peck, Mary L., Dover.
Peek, Adelaine, Newark.
Peetz, Gustav, Maywood.
Pember, Miss F. J., New Providence.
Pemberton, Jennie, Perth Amboy.
Pennypacker, James L., Haddonfield.
Perine, Emma, Jersey City.
Perrine, Kate H., Cranberry.
Pettit, Linda S., Gloucester City.
Phelan, James W., Weehawken.
Phillips, Mary L., East Orange.
Pidcock, Annette, Dover.
Pierson, Mary M., Weehawken.
Pierson, Lydia G., Woodbury.
Pike, Laura A., Camden.
Platt, Belle, Bridgeport.
Plum, Flora V., Rahway.
Polhemus, Edgar W., Herbertsville.
Poole, Ada F., Keyport.
Porter, E. H., Mt. Hope.
Porter, A. J., Forest Grove.
Powell, Lou, Gloucester.
Powell, Fannie, Jullustown.
Prendergast, James F., Harrison.
Pressy, Mark A., Hammonton.
Price, R. S., Hackettstown.
Price, Mrs. R. S., Hackettstown.
Prickitt, William A., Lower Squankum.
Prudden, Geneva, Mt. Arlington.
Pruden, Katie K., New Vernon.
Pugh, Mary L., Plainfield.
Quint, Anna E., Camden.
Raine, Charles D., Mount Holly.
Ralston, J. M., Asbury Park.
Ramsdell, W. C., Jersey City.
Ranken, Mrs. Alice B., Jersey City.
Rappleyea, Mary J., Jersey City.
Ray, Agnes, Hudson Co.
Read, Mary E., Weehawken.
Reading, Mary, Ringoes.
Redfield, Miss P. H., Gloucester City.
Reed, Flora A., Johnsonburg.
Reed, Sarah E., Johnsonburg.
Reed, Ada, Spring Lake.
Reeves, Lillie N., Hasbrouck Heights.
Reeves, Marie, Ocean Grove.
Reger, May A., Raritan.
Reid, Ophelia, Weehawken.
Reid, Lucinda M., Hoboken.
Reilly, Addie M., Hibernia.
Reilly, Agnes R., Jersey City.
Reinhardt, Carrie, Hudson Co.
Reinnart, J. A., Paterson.
Ressmiller, Isaac, Mantua.
Ribble, S. Lizzie, Harlingen.
Rice, Mary L., Harrison.
Rice, Miss Kitty, Harrison.
Rice, Emily A., Ocean Grove.
Richards, Anna, Metuchen.
Richards, Edwin S., Englewood.
Richardson, Ella T., Jersey City.
Richdale, Mrs. E. F., Red Bank.
Rider, Helena T., Dover.
Rinehart, J. C., Jersey City,
Rittenhouse, Alwilda, Somerville.
Roberts, G. E., Cinnaminson.
Robertson, Julia, Weehawken.
Robertson, S. A., Hudson Co.
Robinson, Winfield, Perrineville.
Robinson, Emily B., Jersey City.
Robinson A., Allentown.
Rogers, A. Jackson, Englishtown.
Romaine, Mary E., Newark.
Romer, Clara E., Rutherford.
Root, Miss S. J., Jersey City.
Rose, Emily S., South River.
Rosewall, M. Louise, Asbury Park.
Ruby, Lilia, Madison.
Rudd, Katherine E., Morristown.
Rudiboc, Mary B., Copper Hill.
Rue, David E., Hoboken.
Rumsey, Mary L, Weehawken.
Runyon, Sarah D., Millington.
Russ, Edward, Hoboken.
Ryan, Geo. G., New Brunswick.
Ryer, Gertrude E., Newark.
Ryerson, Mary E., Prompton Plains.
Salisbury, Ora W., Hammonton.
Salisbury, Rhyland E., Hammonton.
Sanderson, Katherine, Bound Brook.
Sargent, Fanny, West New York.
Sawkins, George, Bayville.
Sayless, Hattie W., Keyport.
Sayre, Ann E., Newark.
Sayre, Jennie, Glassboro.
Scarlett, Augustus, Newark.
Scheck, Chas. T., West Hoboken.
Schinder, Rosa, Hoboken.
Schlabach, Flora, Hackettstown.
Schrader, Ida C., Hoboken.
Schuster, John, Egg Harbor City (2).
Schuyler, E. H., Haworth.
Schuyler, Elizabeth M., Camden.
Scobey, Frank H., Trenton.
Scott, Edith, Woodbridge.
Scott, Isabella, Jersey City.
Scott, Dr. Austin, New Brunswick.
Scudder, Laura, Cranberry.
Searle, Selina M., Jersey City.
Seguine, Nellie, Jersey City.
Senter, R. N., Freehold.
Severance, Lizzie H., Weehawken.
Sexton, Elmer K., Closter.
Shackelton, Oscar O., Hackensack.
Shafer, Martha R., Hackettstown.
Shafer, Ida M., Rahway.
Shaffer, Lulu R., Ridgewood.
Shaffer, Ada L., Hackensack.
Shafto, Ellsworth, Garfield.
Shaw, Mary W., Asbury Park.
Shepard, Edwin, Newark.
Sheppard, W. W., Shiloh.
Sherman, Angie M., Dover.
Sherrill, Helen L., Hibernia.

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NEW JERSEY—*Continued.*

Sherwood, Mrs. I. M., Newark.
Shipley, Isabel, Camden.
Shirley, Miss M. A., Elizabeth.
Sholes, Mary A., Dover.
Sickles, Sadie, Red Bank.
Sieb, Carrie, Hudson Co.
Silvers, Winnie, Cranbury.
Simmerman, Mary M., Glassboro.
Simmons, Effie, Hackettstown.
Skinner, A. H., Hackettstown.
Slattery, William J., Paterson.
Smalley, Phoebe A., Long Branch.
Smith, Elizabeth A., Raritan.
Smith, Madora R., Hightstown.
Smith, Madge S., South Amboy.
Smith, Agnes, Weehawken.
Smith, Mary F., Jersey City.
Smith, Carrie S., Camden.
Smith, May L. Jersey City.
Smith, J. Harry, Pennsgrove.
Smith, Anna, Camden.
Snook, J. L. Chatham.
Snyder, Henry, Jersey City.
Soper, Frances, Jersey City (2).
Spaulding, Randall, Montclair.
Spence, Louise H., Weehawken.
Spencer, Emma C., Passaic.
Standinger, Louisa T., Jersey City.
Stanley, Mrs. Louise H., Jersey City.
Starkey, Warren L., Paterson.
Steelman, Daniel T, Smith's Landing.
Stellges, Amanda M., Jersey City.
Stephens, Augustus W., Hackettstown.
Sterner, Henry W., Manasquam.
Stewart, Jos. J., Camden.
Stewiter, Lizzie H., Swedesboro.
Stiles, M. J, Hilton
Stinson, Mrs. Alice B., Gloucester.
Stinson Miss A. E., Gloucester.
Stinson, Miss E. Augusta, Gloucester.
Stinson, J. C., Gloucester.
Stokes, E. C., Millville
Stoops, William H., Riverside.
Stout, C. L., Englishtown.
Stowell, Willard A., Ramsey's
Stradling, J. M, Edgewater Park.
Strang, Arabella, Camden.
Strickland, Carrie D., New Brunswick.
Strong, Mrs. R H., Berlin.
Strubbie, Mary G., High Bridge.
Stryker, Emma L., Middlebush.
Stryker, Frank A., Raritan.
Stults, Ella, Plainsboro.
Sturges, Emma, Weehawken.
Sturges, Lowell, Gloucester.
Sullivan, Ella F., Passaic.
Sullivan, Mayte, Passaic.
Swayze, A. A., Hope.
Sydenham, Laura M., N. Plainfield.
Talbot, L F., Hoboken.
Tantum, Emma U., Ocean Grove.
Tappen, Ella C., Newton.
Taylor, Kate, Frenchtown.
Taylor, Geo. O. F., Newark.
Terhune Jno, Hackensack
Tharp, John H., Swedesboro.
Thistle, May E., West Hoboken.
Thompson, J. W., Upper Mt. Clair.
Thompson, Helen, Trenton.
Thompson, Irene, Manasquam.
Thorn, Franklin, Paterson.
Thornall, Dillie, Metuchen.
Tice, R. Howell, Roselle.
Tierney, Mary E., Raritan.
Tilton, Peter, Toms Rivers.
Tilton, J. C., Belford.
Tilton, A. S., Bayville.
Tingley, Jennie E., Rahway
Titman, A. J., Dover.
Titsworth, Maud, Dunellen.
Titsworth, Savilla, Somerville.
Titus, Mary D., Asbury Park.
Todd, Mary A., Newark.
Tomlinson, Cora, Asbury Park.
Toombs, Mrs. M. F., Bound Brook.
Towne, Irving P., Paterson.
Tudor, Nellie E., Hammonton.
Tuers, W. J., Paterson (2).
Tuoley, Margarite A., West Hoboken.
Tusting, R. A., Asbury Park.
Twichell, William S., Paterson
Twomey, Maggie A., Jersey City.
Tyack, Laura, Port Oram.
Vail, Dr. M. H. C., Vailsburg.
Vanderbeek, Louisa E, Paterson.
Vanderveer, Georgia A., Vanderburg.
Van Dike, Jno. S., Hopewell.
Van Etten, F. L., Newton.
Van Etten, Mrs. F. L., Newton.
Van Horn, R. M., Belvidere.
Van Horn, Mrs. R. M., Belvidere.
Van Houten, Isaac, Passaic.
Van Kirk, Elizabeth, Camden.
Van Kirk, T. G., Spottswood.
Van Middlesworth, Ella V. D., Middlebush.
Van Ormer, A. B., Burna, West Summit.
Van Sickle, Wm. M., Weehawken.
Van Syckel, Rachel, Newark.
Van Syckel, Bethany D., Bound Brook.
Van Syckel, L. H., Passaic.
Van Winkle, M. L., Jersey City .
Van Winkle, Daniel, Jersey City.
Van Winkle, Esther, Jersey City.
Van Zandt, Fannie H., Blawenburg.
Vincent, Grace, Asbury Park.
Vogel, Arnold, Newark.
Vogel, Geo. J., West Summit.
Von Gottschalck, Mary H., Jersey City Heights.
Von Seyfried, Emma, Newark.
Von Seyfried, Miss S. E., Newark.
Voorhees, Ada Y., Somerville.
Voorhis, Geo. H., Trenton.
Vose, Marie H., Hoboken.
Voyer, Lucie, West Hoboken.
Vreeland, Gettie, New Brunswick.
Vreeland, Maggie, Ridgewood.
Vroom, Philip G., Bayonne.
Wade, Margaret I., Asbury Park.
Waite, J. Edgar, River Edge.
Wakeman, J. Walker. Jersey City.
Wall, Annie S., Englishtown.
Wall, Lillie C., Englishtown.
Wallace, Annie L., Weehawken.
Walling, C. Herbert, Keyport.
Walling, Eleanor S., New Monmouth
Walter, Addie, Englishtown.
Ward, Mary A., Leed's Point.
Ward, Philip M., Guttenburg.
Ward, May, Hackensack.
Warne, Mamie S. Matawan.
Warne, Annie, Matewan.
Warner, W. W., Perth Amboy.
Warwick, Bessie B., Medford.
Waters, Robert, Hudson Co.
Weber, Lottie M., Jersey City.
Weekes, Kate, Trenton.
Weir, Rachel, Weehawken.
Weismann, Martha, West Hoboken.
Welch, T. P., Keyport.
Welsh, Myrtle M., Dover.
West, Sarah K., Swedesboro.
West, Lizzie, Camden.
West, Geo. A., Raritan
Wever, Cora L. Sommerville.
Wheeler, Imogene H., Jersey City.
Wheelihan, Margaret A., Jersey City.
White, Thos. M., Trenton.
White, Jennie, Trenton.
White, James E., Weehawken.
White, La Salle H., Paterson.
Whitney, A. J., Dunellen.
Whitney, L. J., Boonton.
Whittington, Mary, Gloucester.
Wichmann, Sophie, West Hoboken.
Wickham, Lillian, West Hoboken.
Wiener, Wm., Newark.
Wightman, H. J., Vineland.

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NEW JERSEY—*Continued.*

Wilcox, Marie E., Rutherford.
Wilde, Cora E., Long Branch.
Willis, W. S., Perth Amboy.
Willis, H. Brewster, New Brunswick.
Willis, Mrs. H. B., New Brunswick.
Willits, M. P., South Amboy.
Wilson, Lizzie A., Asbury Park.
Wilson, J. Russell, Atlantic City.
Wilson, A. H., East Orange.
Wilson, Mary R., Morristown.
Wilson, Alice E., Bayonne.
Wilson, H. S., Kingston.
Wilson, John H., Fieldsborough.
Wilson, Alexander S., Paterson.
Wilson, J. R., Paterson
Winter Matie E., Plainfield.
Winter, William, Lower Squankum.
Woods, Mary, Long Branch.
Woodward, Jos. B., Bordentown.
Wooley, L. C., Trenton.
Woolston, Kate, Asbury Park
Wooster, Benj. C., Ridgewood.
Wright, Wm. R., Nutley.
Wright, M. M., Trenton.
Wright, Annie V., Princeton.
Wright, Grace, Grahamsville.
Wright, Carrie, Grahamsville.
Wright, Margaret R., Rutherford.
Wyckoff, Peter G., Bayonne.
Yates, Mary E., West Hoboken.
Yeager, Emma V., Camden.
Young, Margaret A., Jersey City.
Young, Frank A., Hackensack.
Zach, Barbara, Woodburn.
Ziders, Wm. J., Westville.
Zimmerman, George, Carlstadt.

New Jersey—969.

NEW YORK.

Abbott, Frona, Harpersville.
Ainsworth, Franklin F., New York City.
Alrich, E. F., Acuebogue.
Aldridge, Vincent, Brooklyn
Alexander, C. D., New York.
Allen, Mary E., Brooklyn.
Amen, Harlan P., Poughkeepsie.
Anderson, S. W., Jamestown.
Anderson, J. W., Jamestown.
Anthony, Julia B., Brooklyn.
Appelt, Anna, New York.
Arrowsmith, R., Brooklyn.
Babcock, J. W., Dunkirk.
Babcock, Stephen, New York.
Bagen, Eugene D., New York.
Bailey, H. H., New York.
Balker, Stella M., Catlin.
Bardeen, C. W., Syracuse.
Barus, Clara S., Brockport.
Bates, N. J., Oxford.
Baxter, Helen, Penn Yan.
Beattie, Alma, Rochester.
Beattys, Frank D., New York.
Becker, Mrs. Lucy, Erie.
Belderhase, Mrs. Josephine, New York City.
Belknap, Emmet, Lockport.
Belknap, Mrs. Kate C., Lockport.
Bell, Thomas Stone, Jordan.
Bennett, B. G, Rochester.
Bennett, Hattie, Fero.
Bennett, Mrs. B. G., Rochester.
Bishop, Mrs E. A., Randolph.
Blanding, Maria H., Brooklyn.
Blum, A., Buffalo.
Bridgham, Kate E., Brooklyn.
Bridgham, Emily G., Brooklyn.
Brown, Mary, Rochester.
Brown, L. J., Rochester.
Brownell, Mary F., Brooklyn.
Bryant, J., New York.
Buckelew, Sarah F., New York.
Bugbee, Mrs. P. I., Oneonta.
Bull, Nathaniel N., Oneonta.
Bull, Mary, Oneonta.
Burdick, A. Hall, Stapleton.
Burke, Mrs. B. E., Malone.
Burns, John D., Brockport.
Burton, Orie L., Oxford.
Carnell, J. R., Albany.
Carr, Miss E. J., Elmira.
Chandler, John W., Ellenville.
Cheeney, F. J., Courtland.
Christie, S. N., Poughkeepsie.
Claghorn, C. C., Brooklyn.
Cohn, Adolphe, New York.
Cole, Frances A., Albany.
Cole, Donald, Rochester.
Cole, Mrs. W. L., Rochester.
Cole, J. W., Troy.
Cole, Charles W., Albany.
Connell, M. E., Rochester.
Cook, E. H., Flushing.
Coon, Richard E., Newhamburg.
Coon, Geo. W., Clifton.
Coon, Geo. W., Clifton Springs.
Cooper, George, New York City.
Cornell, Martha, Wilcott.
Cox, C., New York.
Crawford, Frances M., Cohoes.
Crist, Henry M., New York.
Crist, Mrs. Henry M., New York.
Crocker, James F., Albany.
Daley, Charlotte F., W. New Brighton.
Daniels, Geo. H., New York.
Davis, M. Alice, Utica.
Dayton, C., Elmira.
Dayton, Mrs. C., Elmira.
Devoll, Mary F., Glens Falls.
Diamond, F. J., Tonawanda.
Dias, Annie L., New York.
Dimmick, F. H., Buffalo.
Douglass, Rebecca J., New York.
Douglas, Alice A., Brooklyn.
Downing, A. S., Palmyra.
Downing, Mrs. A. S., Palmyra.
Dudley, Mrs. C. H., Rochester.
Dudley, Elizabeth, Rochester
Durries, Kate S., New York.
Ellis, Miss M. H., Brooklyn.
Elwood, Mrs. A., Rochester.
Elwood, Mrs. Ellis, Ilion.
Elwood, Mrs. Ellis, Ilion.
Elwood, Emma, Rochester.
Emerick, Lulu, Rochester.
Emerson, H. P., Buffalo.
Emerson, Helen L., Saratoga Springs.
Farmer, L. P., New York.
Farrell, Edward D., New York.
Fenton, Geo., Broadalbin.
Fenton, Mrs. Geo., Broadalbin
Ferrie, Miss S. G., Brooklyn.
Fish, Emily I., Brooklyn.
Fisk, A. S., New York.
Fitch, Mrs. S. B., Elmira.
Fitzgibbons, Wm L., Brooklyn.
Fleming, Mary A., Buffalo.
Flint, Frances E. H., Jamestown.
Foote, Marie A., Brooklyn.
Ford, Agnes H., Syracuse.
Ford, Mary E. B., Brooklyn.
Fox, Wayne C., Dobbs Ferry.
Foye, C. H., New York.
Francis, Elizabeth S., New York.
French, H. P., Albany.
Friedberg, Wm. B., New York.
Galusha, E. G., Rochester.
Galusha, M. E., Rochester.
Gilbert, E. D., Rochester.
Goddard, James C., New York.
Goodman, E. J., New York.
Goodnough, Walter S., Brooklyn.
Gookin, Mrs. Virginia, New York.
Gorton, Charles E., Yonkers.
Goulding, Clora, Randolph.

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NEW YORK—*Continued.*

Green, M. J., New York.
Greene, J. A., New York (2).
Griffith, Geo., Utica.
Grostzmann, M. P. E., New York.
Grove, Geo., Brooklyn (2).
Hall, Mrs. F. A., Westfield.
Hall, M. B., Liberty.
Haney, Emma J., Seneca Falls.
Harison, Wm. Beverly, New York.
Harris, Ada A., Syracuse.
Harris, Charles, New York.
Haskell, A. I., Brooklyn.
Hawkins, E. J., Buffalo.
Hayes, Frances C., Albany.
Hayes, Henry C., New York.
Haynes, Chas. H., New York.
Hernstein, A. L., New York.
Heyward, Julia, Brooklyn.
Hicks, Lois M., New York.
Himes, F. B., Albany.
Himpton, Geo. A., New York.
Hinman, Russell, New York.
Hodgdon, Josephine E., Brooklyn.
Hogarth, Mary O., Cornwall.
Hollenbeck, Jessie L., Syracuse.
Hudelno, F. B., New York.
Hudson, Mary E., Elmira.
Hudson, Mattie E., Elmira.
Hueston, Miss Jessie, Flushing.
Huise, P. B., New York.
Hunt, Grace E., Brooklyn.
Husted, A. N., Albany.
Ingalls, W. C., Flushing.
Inscho, Ada, Elmira.
Jackson, Helen M., Brooklyn.
Jacobs, F. E., Syracuse.
Jacobs, M. E., Syracuse.
Jacobson, M. E., Jamestown.
Jennings, F. A., Rochester.
Jones, E. N., Plattsburgh.
Johnson, C. S., New York.
Johnson, Emma A., New York City.
Joslyn, F. M., Buffalo.
Keeler, Emma A., Brooklyn.
Kelsey, David M., Saratoga Springs.
Kendall, Mrs. J. W., Waverly.
Kenyon, Ellen E., New York.
Kerr, M., Geneva.
King, J. E., Rochester.
Koth, Robert, Pawille, L. I.
Kyle, R. J., New York.
Ladd, A., New York.
Lagomarsino, Miss C., New York.
Lane, Frederick H., Babylon.
Lang, O. H., New York.
Latham, Mary E., Cornelsville.
Latimer, Grace Bell, Oneonta.
Lench, Orlando, New York.
Leader, Ellen S., Rochester.
Leipziger, Henry M., New York.
Lenri, Le Roy F., Brooklyn.
Leonard, Albert, Binghampton.
Le Row, Caroline B., Brooklyn.
Long, Lulu B., Livonia.
Lord, A., Buffalo.
Luther, Miss E. M., Trenton.
Lyles, Mary L., Flushing.
Mac Burney, J., Rochester.
Mackey, W. A., Millbrook.
Main, A. E., Alfred.
Marsh, Clinton S., North Tonawanda.
Mattison, Florence M., Oneonta.
Maxwell, W. H., Brooklyn.
McClain, Mrs. J. F., New York.
McCord, W. E., New York.
McCrum, E. Howard, New York.
McLachlan, A. C., Seneca.
McLachlan, A. H., Seneca Falls.
McLean, C. D., Brockport.
McLean, Martha B., Brockport.
Meineke, Miss E. M., New York.
Meleney, C. E., New York.
Merrill, Jenny B., New York.
Merriman, S. Francis, Rochester.
Merwin, A. G., New York.
Mickey, Gertrude, Northport.
Miller, Chas. M., New York.
Mills, Mary Regina, Pleasant Valley.
Milne, James M., Oneonta.
Milne, John M., Geneseo.
Mixer, A. H., Rochester.
Moffett, J. F., New York.
Monteser, Frederick, New York.
Montfort, R. V. K., Newburg.
Moore, H. A., Elmira.
Moore, H., New York.
Mueller, A. V., Lockport.
Mueller, W., New York.
Murphy, Ruth, Herman.
Murphy, J. M., Buffalo.
Murray, Margaret T., Hornellsville.
Myer, M., New York.
Newton, E. W., Binghampton.
Nott, E. E., Hamburg.
Oakley, M. R., Buffalo.
Orgill, Fred, Brooklyn.
Orr, Miss M. E., New York.
Orr, Susan M., Brooklyn.
Osborne, A. S., Rochester.
O'Shea, D. J., Rochester.
Packard, S. S., New York.
Patton, C. L., New York.
Pearse, Louise M., Brooklyn.
Pearson, T. H., Suspension Bridge.
Perkins, Frank K., Brooklyn.
Perkins, A. D., Syracuse.
Perry, Cora, Brooklyn.
Picaso, Henrietta, Brooklyn.
Pink, L. May, Brooklyn.
Plimpton, Geo. A., New York.
Porter, M. E., Rochester.
Post, Amy H., Batavia.
Power, Gertie, Hudson.
Power, Gussie, Hudson.
Powers, Minnie M., Oxford.
Pratt, E., New York.
Purdy, Henry S., Brewster.
Reibold, Leonard E., New York.
Rice, Gratia L., Buffalo.
Rickoff, Andrew, New York.
Riddle, C. F., Elmira.
Riddle, Mrs. C. F., Elmira.
Roberts, Hester A., New York.
Robinson, Oscar B., Albany.
Rogers, Belle C., Lima.
Rutledge, John E., Rochester.
Ryder, Harriet L., Brooklyn.
Ryon, Chas. M., Kingston.
Sargent, E. A., New York.
Schiller, Blanca, College Point.
Seegmiller, Miss W., Brooklyn.
Shaw, Edward R., New York.
Shipley, Melissa, Rochester.
Smith, Geo. W., New York.
Smith, Anna H., Binghampton.
Smith, Edward, Syracuse.
Smith, May A., Rochester.
Smith, Ruby, Indianapolis.
Speer, Mrs. P. A. M., Brooklyn.
Squires, F. N., Jamestown.
Squires, F. F., Jamestown.
Stocker, Mrs. E. C., Brooklyn.
Stearns, W. H., Rochester.
Stevens, Mrs. H., Rochester.
Stevens, Mary, Elmira.
Stewart, Seth T., Brooklyn.
Stewart, A. M., Rochester.
Stout, I. H., Geneva.
Stout, Mrs. I. H., Geneva.
Stowell, T. B., Potsdam.
Strachan, Grace C., Brooklyn.
Sullivan, L. A., Jamestown.
Talson, Emma V., New York City.
Taylor, Joseph S., New York.
Ternan, James C., Rochester.
Thompson, Harriet E., Rochester.
Thurber, C. H., Hamilton.

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NEW YORK—*Continued.*

Turner, Sarah L., Rochester.
Turner, A., Brooklyn.
Van Aken, Mrs. G., New York City.
Van Bergh, T., Rochester.
Van Bergn, S., Rochester.
Van Buren, E. M., Brooklyn.
Van Rensselaer, Martha, Randolph.
Vedder, C., Suspension Bridge.
Vernon, Elizabeth, New York.
Vogel, M., Rochester.
Walker, Samuel L., New York.
Wallau, George I., Brooklyn.
Walsk, A. K. Niagara Falls.
Ward, Edward G., Brooklyn.
Webster, C. I., New York.
Webster, A. C., New York.
Wedd, H. A., Rochester.
Weed, M. G., Rochester.
White, Albert, Rochester.
White, Susan C., Rochester.
White, Katharine M., Brooklyn.
Whitney, E. R., Binghampton.
Wilber, T. C., Waterloo.
Williams, L. L., Rochester.
Williams, S. G., Ithaca.
Williamson, Joseph, Rochester (2).
Willis, Lizbeth, Huntingdon.
Wilson, Mrs. James, Rochester.
Winne, James, Poughkeepsie.
Wood, Judson L., Ilion.
Worth, Lizzie, Rochester.
Wyckoff, Miss A. E., Brooklyn.

New York—326.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Clayton, P. P., Greenboro.
Cotton, Mrs. R. R., Falkland.
Cozart, Hallie, Durham.
Cozart, Alta, Durham.
Denson, C. B., Raleigh.
Edmiston, F. G. Jr., Ashville.
Goodson, Louise, Durham.
Graham, Flora May, Ridgeway.
Harrison, Corinne, Newburn.
Howell, Logan D., Goldsboro.
Lesley, John C., Charlotte.
McCoy, T. Q., Ashville.
McDonald, J. A., Winston.
Smoot, W. B., Salisbury.
Toms, C. W., Durham.

North Carolina—15.

NORTH DAKOTA.

Allen, L. H., Wahpeton.
Benedict, Ida H., Fargo.
Brannon, M. A., Grand Forks.
Brannon, Mrs. M. A., Grand Forks.
Kanouse, Mrs. Geo., Valley City.
Nellson, Minnie, Valley City.
Spurr, Belle, Valley City.
Stockwell, W. L., Grafton.

North Dako'a—8.

OHIO.

Aberle, Maria, Mansfield.
Adelsperger, Sadie, Toledo.
Albery, W. H., Columbus.
Alexander, Mrs. J. W., Cleveland.
Allen, Bertha D., Dayton.
Allen, Geo. G., Akron.
Allen, D. O., Akron.
Alword, C. C., Columbus.
Alword, Mrs. C. C., Columbus.
Ambahl, Ella, Xenia.
Anderson, H. E., Cleveland.
Anderson, Mrs. H. E., Cleveland (2).
Anderson, E. G., Portsmouth.
Averbeck, P., Youngstown.
Bainter, Miss E. L., Columbus.
Baldwin, Harriet L., Akron.
Baldwin, Arthur C., Granville.
Ballard, E. J., Canton.
Bane, Mrs. J. W. Newell.
Barstow, E. B., Cincinnati (3).
Bartholomew, Ella R., Springfield.
Barmann, Belle, Chillicothe.
Bashford, J. W., Delaware.
Bashford, Mrs. J. F., Delaware.
Beaumont, Miss M., Cleveland.
Beck, Minnie, Cincinnati.
Beecher, H. E., Youngstown.
Beekey, Mary, Columbus.
Beers, L. B., Cleveland (3).
Beers, N. O., East Cleveland.
Beggs, John J., Cincinnati.
Bell, E., Dayton.
Bell, Lizzie, Dayton.
Bender, H. G., Akron.
Bender, Mrs. H. G., Akron.
Bennett, S. C., Dayton.
Bergmann, L., Dayton.
Bergmann, Gustav, Cincinnati.
Bernstein, A., Cincinnati.
Berry, D. C., Tiffin.
Berteh, Mrs. A., East Liverpool.
Biddle, Laura, Columbus.
Biggs, Emile, Columbus.
Bishop, J. R., Cincinnati.
Black, Sam'l, Cincinnati.
Black, Simon, Cincinnati.
Blitz, J., Cincinnati.
Blodgett, Esther, Toledo.
Blum, J., Bellaire.
Blumerschein, W. L., Dayton.
Boar, Lizzie E., Canton.
Boehle, F., Cincinnati.
Bodkin, M., Cleveland.
Bohling, Lena, Cincinnati.
Bold, John T., Springfield.
Boltz, Minnie, Cincinnati.
Booth, E. R., Cincinnati.
Borroway, Jesse, Canton.
Botkin, J. W., Columbus.
Botkin, Mrs. J. W., Columbus.
Bowie, Miss S. M., Portsmouth.
Bowman, May, Massillon.
Bowman, Mrs. Fannie, New Lisbon.
Boyd, Dorothy, Cincinnati.
Boyd, W. W., Marietta.
Boyd, W. H., Cincinnati.
Boynton, E. M., Portsmouth.
Brachmann, Fred C., Cincinnati.
Brackett, Kate, Youngstown.
Brackman, Mrs. Wm., Cincinnati.
Bradbury, E. P., Cleveland.
Bradford, Mrs. R. W., Cincinnati.
Bradford, Myrtle, Cincinnati.
Bradshaw, F. J., Columbus (2).
Brainerd, Mabel, Cleveland.
Brandon, J. A., Akron (2).
Brandon, J. H., Akron (2).
Brenan Mary, Toledo.
Brennan, Maggie, Toledo.
Brian, A., Salem (2).
Broekhoven, John A., Cincinnati.
Brooks, H. Columbus.
Broome, Mrs. Daisy, Columbus.
Bryan, Marie A., Madisonville.
Buchman, A. N., Cleveland.
Bundey, John E., Cincinnati.

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OHIO—*Continued.*

Bundey, Mrs. John E., Cincinnati.
Bunker, Addie, Columbus.
Burdorf, Henry, Cincinnati.
Burk, Ellice, Cleveland.
Burn, J. J., Canton.
Burham, Belle, Cincinnati.
Burnham, Pauline, Cincinnati.
Burns, J. J., Canton.
Burns, Kate E., Canton.
Burns, Mrs. J., Cincinnati.
Burns, Jas., Cincinnati.
Burns, Joseph, Cincinnati.
Burrington, Leora, Columbus.
Burrington, Viola N., Columbus.
Bushman, W. T., Van Wert (2).
Butler, R., Cleveland.
Byer, A., Cincinnati.
Caine, A. H., Cincinnati.
Caine, Mrs. C., Cincinnati.
Caldwell, Katie, Canton.
Caldwell, Anna M., Canton.
Callow, Emma R., Cleveland.
Callow, Louise, Cleveland.
Cameron, Ella, Columbus.
Campbell, Carrie D., Cincinnati.
Campbell, E. J., Youngstown.
Campbell, B. W., Cincinnati (3).
Carlisle, Robert, Cincinnati.
Carlisle, Annie, Cincinnati.
Carothers, N., Cleveland.
Caruthers, A., Cleveland.
Carpenter, Alvin, Akron.
Carpenter, A. W., Cincinnati.
Carpenter, Mrs. A. W., Cincinnati.
Carr, J. M., Columbus.
Carroll, Anna, Cleveland.
Cartwright, Kate E., Youngstown.
Cartwright, Helen, Youngstown.
Chacksfield, S., Cincinnati.
Chamberlain, Olive, New Carlisle.
Champlin, H., Cincinnati.
Chapin, H. E., Atkins.
Chapman, H. W., Chillicothe.
Cheney, H. M., Toledo.
Clark, Miss Katie, Dayton.
Clark, Ida, Columbus.
Clary, Etta, Cleveland.
Claypool, C. K., Toledo.
Clayton, T. A., Cincinnati.
Clevinger, Mrs. Carrie, Cincinnati.
Clyde, E. M., Cincinnati.
Cobb, Mrs. Lura M., Cincinnati.
Coleman, Mrs. R., Columbus.
Compton, H. W., Toledo.
Compton, Mrs. H. W., Toledo.
Condon, D. L., Columbus.
Condon, Emma, Columbus.
Conklin, Lizzie, Cincinnati.
Connely, John E., Cincinnati.
Cook, Wm. G., Cleveland.
Cooper, Mrs. M. J., Cincinnati.
Copeland, Florence P., Cincinnati.
Coppock, P., Cincinnati.
Corbin, Lucy, Columbus.
Corcoran, Tressa, Dayton.
Corey, Wm., Cincinnati.
Corlett, Wm. K., Cleveland (4).
Corson, O. T., Columbus (2).
Corson, Ella M., Columbus.
Cox, Edwin B., Xenia.
Coy, Gena L., Cincinnati.
Coy, Alla B., Cincinnati.
Coy, E. W., Cincinnati.
Coy, Helen H., Cincinnati.
Crane, Cora B., Columbus.
Creighton, Jessie, Columbus.
Critchfield, C. W., Columbus.
Crevolsie, J. A., Canton.
Crook, Lizzie L., Columbus.
Crosby, Jennie, Springfield.
Crowell, Mary B., Clenville.
Crumm, Nellie, Columbus.
Crumm, Cornelia Z., Columbus.
Curtis, Maggie E., Cleveland.
Curtis, Marian, Cleveland.
Daniels, Ida M., Urbana.
Davis, Marilla, Cleveland.
Davis, Emma C., Cleveland.
Davis, Bertha D., Hartwell.
Davis, Mrs. John, Hartwell.
Davis, Angie, Hartwell.
Davis, Carrie L., Canton.
Daymude, Mrs. E. L., Columbus.
DeBane, J. G., Ironton.
DeCamp, H. A., Cincinnati.
Decker, L. R., Marysville.
Defrees, Lydia Belle, Dayton.
Diedrick, H. C., East Liverpool.
Diedrick, Mrs. H. C., East Liverpoool.
Dennis, M. E., Columbus.
Dennison, Marilla J., Youngstown.
Derrig, M., Akron.
Dettenhofer, T. S., Canton.
Dickerson, W. H., Columbus (3).
Dickson, J. M., Youngstown (4).
Diether, Mary A., Massillon.
Dill, Miss Anna, Columbus.
Doe, Carrie E., Columbus.
Doering, Wm. Geo., Cincinnati.
Dougherty, Frank, Salem.
Douthirt, M. L., Columbus.
Draper, Andrew S., Cleveland.
Ducholne, V. E., Cincinnati.
Dunham, Mrs. S. G., Blanchester.
Dupuy, I. T., Cincinnati.
Dussel, Minnie, Akron.
Dutton, Bettie, Cleveland.
Dutton, Kate E., Cleveland.
Dwyer, M. A., Akron.
Dyas, Jas., Sandwich.
Eadie, Mrs., Cleveland.
Echert, R., Cincinnati.
Echert, Miss Sallie, Cincinnati.
Edgeter, Helen, Dayton.
Edwards, Thomas, Newark.
Edwards, Margaret, Waynsville.
Edwards, Trilliena, Waynsville.
Ely, Gertrude, Akron.
Eplar, Alice, Sidney.
Eppley, R. M., New Carlisle.
Estabrook, C. O., Dayton.
Estabrook, L. C., Dayton.
Estes, Mrs. D., Springfield.
Euphrat, Mrs. E., Cincinnati.
Euphrat, Ottella, Cincinnati.
Euphrat, Laura, Cincinnati.
Evans, Ida, Columbus.
Evans, Mrs. G. H., Cincinnati.
Fahastock, M. A., Cleveland (8).
Fassig, L. R., Columbus.
Fauss, H. LaVerne, Cleveland.
Felch, Margaret, Columbus.
Fellner, Johanna, Cincinnati.
Fenner, Foster, Bucyrus.
Fettivels, C., Cincinnati.
Fettivels, E. R., Cincinnati.
Fillmore, Nettie, Cincinnati.
Firey, A. W., Columbus.
Fitzpatrick, W. E., Cincinnati.
Flannery, M. J., Jamestown.
Fletcher, Emma, Bellsville.
Feltz, L. C., Canton.
Ford, Collin, Cincinnati.
Ford, Elizabeth, Cincinnati.
Ford, Abby M., Cincinnati.
Forsch, J., Cincinnati.
Forsche, W. E., Columbus.
Foster, Ethel M., Akron.
Foster, L. M., Mansfield.
Fox, Mrs. Clara, Cleveland (2).
Franklin, Charles, Cleveland.
Frederick, Nellie, Canton.
Frederick, Jessie, Canton.
Freeman, Helen L., Cleveland.
French, C. L., Norwalk.
Frizell, Lamme, Dayton.

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Fuchs, Julius, Cincinnati.
Fuchs, Mrs. Julius, Cincinnati.
Funts, G. E., Cleveland.
Gadden, W., Cincinnati.
Gadden, L., Cincinnati.
Gadden, Mrs. A. L., Cincinnati.
Galloway, Alice, Xenia.
Galloway, Lee, Xenia.
Galloway, Mrs. Lee, Xenia.
Galloway, Sallie, Xenia.
Galloway, Anna, Xenia.
Garno, Mrs. A., Cincinnati.
Garno, Albino, Cincinnati.
Gates, Emma M., Columbus.
Gault, Wm. P., Cincinnati.
Gayer, Mary E., Akron.
Gayman, C. W., Canal Winchester.
Gephart, H., New Carlisle.
Gilbert, Frank, Cleveland.
Gilchrist, Mattie, Youngstown.
Gilchrist, Mrs., Youngstown.
Gillen, John, Youngstown.
Gillespie, Grace, Cincinnati.
Gleim, Lisette E., Cleveland.
Glover, N. L., Akron.
Golden, Cora P., Athens.
Goldstein, Anna, Youngstown.
Goodspead, J. M., Athens.
Goulding, M. K., Columbus.
Graeser, Amelia, Cincinnati.
Graeser, Louis, Cincinnati (2).
Gratar, Louis P., Cincinnati.
Grau, Mrs. Otto, Cincinnati.
Gray, Clara, Columbus.
Greenman, H., Cincinnati.
Greene, Mrs. J. W., Toledo.
Greene, L. M., Wilmington.
Greene, Mrs. L. M., Wilmington.
Greenslade, J. M., Lima.
Greenslade, J. M., Bellevue.
Greenslade, Emma, Bellevue.
Grever, E. J., Cincinnati.
Griffith, Etta, Cleveland.
Gutman, L., Cincinnati.
Haas, Alma, Cincinnati.
Haas, Stanley, Cincinnati.
Haas, Mrs. S., Cincinnati.
Haas, Marcus, Cincinnati.
Haas, Mrs. B., Cincinnati.
Haas, Carrie, Cincinnati.
Haas, Marx, Cincinnati.
Haas, Jessie, Cincinnati.
Haas, Grace, Cincinnati.
Haas, Estelle, Cincinnati.
Haas, Mrs. A., Cincinnati.
Haas, Harold M., Cincinnati.
Hablitzel, Thekla, Cincinnati.
Hablitzel, B., Cincinnati.
Hadsell, Delia, Lima.
Hahn, Frances A., Columbus.
Hahn, Louis, Cincinnati.
Haines, Isaac S., Wakeman.
Hale, Nan B., Dayton.
Hall, L. A., Cincinnati.
Hall, Anna M., Cincinnati.
Hall, Edith M., Cincinnati.
Hall, E. C., Cincinnati.
Hall, J. R., Oberlin (2).
Hall, Mrs. L. A., Cincinnati.
Halle, A., Cleveland.
Halle, Joseph, Cleveland.
Halle, Julia, Cleveland.
Hallett, Mrs. Theo., Cincinnati.
Halliday, Blanche, Zanesville.
Haluman, L., Akron.
Hammond, E. D., Springfield.
Hammond, Mrs. Flora R., Springfield.
Hannet, Maude F., Columbus.
Hanson, W. J., Canal Dover.
Hard, M. E. Salem.
Harding, Mrs. Emma, Canton.
Homan, Grace, Columbus.
Harris, Julia A., Cincinnati.
Harris, Edward L., Cleveland.
Harsh, Clara, Massillon.
Hart, Mrs. J. B., Norwood (2).
Hart, John B., Norwood.
Hart, Jos. H., Norwood.
Hart, J. H., Cincinnati.
Hart, Emma, Cincinnati.
Hartman, Mary, Tiffin.
Hartman, Dora, Tiffin.
Harwitz, Mrs. Henry, Cleveland (4).
Hauss, Lena, Cincinnati.
Hawthorn, F., Cincinnati.
Hayward, F. M., Kenton.
Hazeltine, A. P., Youngstown.
Heckerman, Alice, Dayton.
Heilbrun, S., Cincinnati.
Heldman, F., Cincinnati.
Helfferish, E. C., Cincinnati.
Henderson, H. B., Cleveland.
Henking Frances, Gallipolis.
Hesse, Ella, Columbus.
Heyn, J., Toledo.
Heyn, Mrs. J., Toledo.
Hickok, H. M., Cincinnati (4).
Hildreth, C. B., Cleveland (2).
Hinkley, Mrs. E. R., Cleveland.
Hislop, H. R., Columbus.
Hislop, Mrs. H. R., Columbus.
Hislop, John, Columbus.
Hoehr, C., Norwood.
Hoffman, Geo., Cincinnati.
Holton, Francis H., Akron.
Holz, Emma, Dayton.
Holz, Minnie, Dayton.
Homan Clara, Cincinnati.
Hornburg, Freda, Cincinnati.
Hornburg, F., Cincinnati.
Hornburg, E., Cincinnati.
House, Mrs. E. L., Painesville.
Howard, G. A., Cincinnati (3).
Huggins, Laura, Cincinnati.
Huggins, Zoura, Cincinnati.
Hughes, John J., Ironton.
Hunter, Agnes, Cincinnati.
Hurst, Maude, Canton.
Huss, Mrs. W., Cincinnati.
Huss, Frank W., Cincinnati.
Hutchins, H. S., Toledo.
Hypes, O. F., Springfield.
Ilsen, Carrie, Cincinnati.
Ilsen, G., Cincinnati.
Ilsen, Theo., Cincinnati.
Jackson, R. H., Toledo.
Jackson, Jeannette, Cleveland.
Jackson, Ellen, Cleveland.
Jaeger, Mrs. W., Columbus.
Janeway, W. F., Columbus (2).
Jasper, John, Cleveland (3).
Jeffers, Anna, Akron.
Jeffers, John, Akron.
Jefferson, A., Painesville.
Johnson, G. B., Cleveland.
Johnson, H. H., Mansfield.
Johnson, Mrs. Julia, Stubenville.
Johnson, Melissa S., Cleveland.
Johnson, Mrs. A. E., Dayton.
Johnson, Minnie, Dayton.
Johnson, L., Lancaster.
Johnston, J. A., Cincinnati.
Johnston, E., Cincinnati.
Jones, Walter E., Massillon.
Jones, Mrs. Flora R., Massillon.
Jones, E. A., Massillon.
Jones, Henry W., Grantville.
Jones, A. C., Akron.
Jones, Mrs. Jennie, Newark.
Jones, Irene C., Grantville.
Jones, O. C., Newark.
Jones, Louise, Newark.
Jones, Arthur O., Cincinnati.
Jones, E. A., Massillon.
Joska, John, Cleveland (2).
Junge, Matilda, Cleveland.

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Kahn, Mrs. Chas. Jr., Cincinnati.
Kamnacher, Louise, Columbus.
Kamor, Mrs. A. D., East Liverpool.
Kauffman, H. L., Columbus.
Kauffman, H. P., Columbus.
Kauffman, Mrs. Columbus.
Keadin, M., Cincinnati.
Keadin, K., Cincinnati.
Keck, Amanda, Cincinnati.
Keeler, Harriet L., Cleveland.
Keeler, Will W., Cleveland.
Keffer, Mrs. John, Cleveland.
Keffer, Bertha, Cleveland.
Kelley, F. J., Cleveland.
Kemper, C. R., Cincinnati.
Kendall, F. H., Painesville.
Kendall, Mrs. F. H., Painesville.
Kenurick, Helen F., Cincinnati.
Kerr, Theodora, Cincinnati.
Kerr, Geo. E., Cincinnati.
Kershaw, Ella, Columbus.
Kerwer, Phillipine, Youngstown.
Kett, Frank, Cincinnati.
Klentz, Libbie C., Cardington.
Klentz, Wm. A., Cardington.
Kimmel, M. A., Youngstown.
Kingsbury, A. T., Akron.
Kingsbury, Mrs. A. T., Akron.
Kirby, Harriet R., Columbus.
Kirwan, Bessie M., Cleveland.
Klemm, Mrs. Clara B., Cincinnati.
Knapp, A. N., Cincinnati.
Knott, James W., Mansfield.
Knott, Mrs. J. W., Mansfield.
Knowles, L., Portsmouth.
Koenecke, Mrs., Columbus.
Kohnky, Frances, Cincinnati.
Koontz, Laura E., Canton.
Korf, Mrs. Henry Jr., Cincinnati.
Karger, Annie, Columbus.
Kronacher, D. F., Cincinnati.
Krout, C. A., Tiffin.
Kuhn, Lewis, Cincinnati.
Kuhn, Mrs. Lewis, Cincinnati.
Kuhn, Eda, Cincinnati.
Laird, Mrs. Ada E., Cleveland.
Lake, Mrs. S. C., Akron.
Lamers, Mattie, Portsmouth.
Lamert, C. J., Cincinnati.
Lamert, Mrs. C. J., Cincinnati.
Lane, B., Cincinnati.
Lane, Mary, Batavia.
Lane, Mary F., Batavia.
Lang, Lillie D., Toledo.
Lange, Chas., Cincinnati.
Langsdorf, W. B., Oxford.
Langsdorf, Mrs., Oxford.
Lasch, Mrs., Columbus.
Lascutt, Eva L., Cincinnati.
Lathrop, C. N., Cincinnati.
Lathrop, Mrs. H., Cincinnati.
Layman, Geo. M., Piqua.
Lawrence, Josephine, Marysville.
Leavitt, Percy W., Cleveland.
Leibenderfer, Ed. C., Dayton.
Lemoine, S. E, Akron.
Leonard, Isaac, Columbus.
Leonard, Mrs. Isaac, Columbus.
Levy, Ed, Cincinnati.
Levy, Lillian, Cincinnati.
Lewis, Dorothy, Medina.
Light, Mrs., Akron.
Link, Emma L., Columbus.
Loeb, Clora, Cincinnati.
Longwell, Susan A., Springfield.
Lonn, Francis, Massillon.
Loomis, H. T., Cleveland.
Lorey, P. G., Portsmouth.
Losee, Mrs. F. B., Toledo.
Losee, Irene, Toledo.
Loth, Sabina, Cincinnati.
Lovon, M. A., Cincinnati.
Lucas, G., Bucyrus (2).
Luker, B., Cincinnati.
Lundquist, Anna C., Springfield.
Luth, Theo., Cincinnati.
Luthey, J. Oliver, Cincinnati.
Lynch, C. P., Cleveland.
Lynch, John F., Canton.
Mabley, A. H., Cleveland.
Mack, M., Cincinnati.
Mack, J., Cincinnati.
Magrane, Chas., Hammonsburg.
Magrane, Mrs. Chas., Hammonsburg.
Mann, G. C., Dayton.
Manter, Miss M. H., Cleveland.
Marcellus, Jean, Toledo.
March, Arabella, London.
Martin, W. P., Canton.
Martin, O. W., Loveland.
Martin, William B., Cleveland.
Martin, Lydia, Columbus.
Mathews, G. D., Tiffin.
Mayer, Mrs. W. E., Dayton.
Mayer, Wm. C., Dayton.
McAninch, Orville, Cleveland.
McAninch, Emma, Cleveland.
McBroom, F. W., Cleveland.
McBroom, Mrs. F. W., Cleveland.
McCague, Addie M., Akron.
McClelland, J., Columbus.
McCully, Frank J., Newark.
McCully, William M., Newark.
McDonald, Emma L., Cincinnati.
McFadden, W. C., Columbus.
McGonan, Mayme, Cincinnati.
McGowen, Ida, Cincinnati.
McGowan, Mary E., Cincinnati.
McGregor, Robert R., Springfield.
McGregor, David, Springfield.
McGurk, E., Cleveland.
McGurk, Irwin, Cleveland.
McGurk, M. E., Cleveland.
McHenry, W., Cleveland.
McHenry, B., Cleveland.
McKell, M. W., Chillicothe.
McKinney, Carrie C., Cincinnati.
McKoy, T. H., Marietta.
McRay, H. R., Somerset.
Meagher, Edward J., Toledo.
Meir, F., Cincinnati (2).
Meixell, Grenville H., Tiffin.
Mencke, F., Cincinnati.
Mencke, Mrs. F., Cincinnati.
Merchant, W. W., Columbus.
Murry, Julia E., Belleview.
Merkel, Louisa, Cincinnati.
Merkel, G. H., Cincinnati.
Meyer, Eda, Cleveland.
Meyers, Minnie, Orrville.
Milburn, N. F., Cincinnati.
Miller, J. L., Dayton.
Miller, H. C., Cleveland.
Miller, Mrs. H. C., Cleveland.
Miller, C. C., Hamilton.
Miller, J. S., Shreve.
Miller, Julia E., Cleveland.
Miller, Maude, Akron.
Mills, Mrs. James E., Cincinnati.
Mitchell, Lenora, Tiffin.
Mitchell, Sadie C., Akron.
Mitchell, T. J., Cleveland.
Mitchell, Florine, Akron.
Mitchell, Thos., Dayton (3).
Mitchell, C., Toledo.
Monfort, E. M., Marietta.
Moore, Jessie, Salem.
Moore, Emily A., Newark.
Morgan, C., Akron.
Morgan, Lew, Ironton.
Morgan, W. H., Cincinnati.
Morgan, R. M., Cleveland.
Morgenthau, Mrs. S., Cincinnati.
Morgenthau, Ricca, Cincinnati.
Morris, W. E., Connellsville.
Morrison, E. R., Chillicothe.
Morrison, N. J., Marietta.

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Moulton, M., Cleveland.
Mount, R. C., Carlisle.
Muckley, H. C., Cleveland.
Mullen, Mary E., Cleveland.
Mullen, Libbie, Cleveland.
Mullen, C. B., Cleveland.
Mueller, Marie, Cleveland.
Mueller, C. Louise, Cleveland.
Mulligan, Ella J., Wooster.
Munford, K., Sidney.
Murdock, Jessie B., Youngstown.
Murray, Sallie, Cincinnati.
Murray, Kate J., Cincinnati.
Murphy, M., Cincinnati.
Murphy, Hannah L., Toledo.
Mussbaum, B., Bucyrus.
Neare, C. J., Cincinnati.
Neare, Mrs. Clarence J., Cincinnati.
Neare, Cora M., Cincinnati.
Neare, Emma, Youngstown.
Neeb, Matilda, Dayton.
Neereamer, Cora J., Columbus.
Neereamer, Jennie, Columbus.
Neereamer, Kate, Columbus.
Nelson, Ella, Cincinnati.
Nevin, Ella C., Columbus.
Newman, A., Cincinnati.
Noble, H. R., Shallow (2).
Nott, Belle C., Dayton.
Nott, Lucy A., Dayton.
Oakes, Nellie V., Cleveland.
O'Brien, Mrs. John, Cleveland.
O'Connel, F. J., Ironton.
Oeh, Kate, Cincinnati.
Ogier, Ida, Cambridge.
Ogier, Myrtle, Cambridge.
Oglesby, E. C., Cedarville.
Oglesby, Mrs. E. C., Cedarville.
O'Kane, Henry, Columbus.
O'Neill, N., Akron.
Osgood, R. H., Columbus (2).
Oviatt, Mary A., Cleveland.
Owen, C. D., Dayton.
Pabodie, Robert J., Cincinnati.
Pabodie, W. H., Wyoming.
Pabodie, Mrs. W. H., Wyoming.
Painter, Jonathan E., Newark.
Palmer, Mary C., Youngstown.
Palmer, Caroline L., Youngstown.
Park, Wm. J., Cleveland.
Park, Mrs. Wm. J., Cleveland.
Peacock, Sarah, Cincinnati.
Pease, L. M., Toledo.
Perman, Mrs B., Cincinnati.
Perry, Florence, Columbus.
Peters, Alice, Columbus.
Phelan, M., Cincinnati.
Phelps, Anna L., Columbus.
Phillips, Geo. W., Dayton.
Phillips, Mrs. Geo. W., Dayton (2).
Pichel, Adelbert, Cincinnati.
Pichel, Mrs. C., Cincinnati.
Pichel, J., Cincinnati.
Pichel, Laura, Cincinnati.
Pickett, Annie E., Toledo.
Pickett, Mary B., Toledo.
Pierce, H., Cincinnati.
Pierrez, A. S., Akron.
Piersol, Mary J., Cincinnati.
Pike, A. E., Cleveland.
Pinkley, Virgil A., Cincinnati.
Piper, H. P., Cincinnati.
Pisel John R., Akron.
Pisel, Mrs. John R., Akron.
Plout, B., Cincinnati.
Poyser, Grace M., Canton.
Poland, L., Cincinnati.
Poet, Nellie, Cuyahoga Falls.
Porterfield, W. D., Warnock.
Pratt, D. B., Portsmouth.
Price, W. M., Columbus.
Price, C. W., Mansfield.
Pruess, Emilie, Cincinnati.
Purinton, John J., East Liverpool.
Purinton, M. L., East Liverpool.
Quayle, G. Chrissa, Cleveland.
Race, C., West Union.
Raedel, M. A., Canton.
Randall, Olive, Toledo.
Ray, James M., Canton.
Ray, M., Cincinnati.
Rayen, Mary C., Cleveland.
Read, Will H., Salem.
Reah, G. D., Zaleski.
Reah, Mrs. G. D., Zaleski.
Redge, J. C., Cincinnati.
Redmond, David, Ironton.
Reese, Fred, Canton.
Reibenstein Pauline, Canton.
Reifert, Anna, Cincinnati.
Reinhart, J. D., Cincinnati.
Reis, Harry, Cincinnati.
Reis, Mrs. Abe, Cincinnati.
Retsch, Ernest L., Cincinnati.
Reuter, Sallie, Cincinnati.
Reverley, Ellen G., Cleveland.
Rex, Ella J., Canton.
Rex, Ruth, Canton.
Rex, E. J., Canton.
Rex, Ella J., Canton.
Reynolds, J. S., Cincinnati.
Reynolds, Jessie E., Canton.
Reynolds, W., Fairhaven.
Rice, S. L., Cincinnati.
Rice, Adaie M., Springfield.
Rice, Sarah L., Springfield.
Rice, Mamie L., Cleveland.
Rice, C. W., Columbus (3).
Reich, Jenny, Cincinnati.
Richard, E. E., Newark.
Richards, Mrs. W. M., Urbana.
Riebel, O. W., Toledo.
Rininger, Jerry, Akron.
Robb, Lillian, Salem.
Robbins, Maggie, Youngstown.
Robertson, Mrs. J., Hamilton.
Robinson, C. B., Cincinnati.
Robinson, James H., Cleveland.
Rodenfels, Catharine, Columbus.
Rodgers, A. C., Cincinnati.
Roettinger, Ph., Cincinnati.
Roettinger, Mrs. E. A., Cincinnati.
Roetinger, Bessie, Cincinnati.
Rogan, L. C., Springfield.
Roller, Rev. J. R., Niles.
Roller, F. J., Niles.
Rood, W. V., Akron.
Rood, Mrs. W. V., Akron.
Roositer, G., Cincinnati (2).
Rosenburg, H., Cleveland.
Rosseter, Geo., St. Clairesville.
Sachs, Leon J., Cincinnati.
Sanders, Wm., Cincinnati.
Sanders, Ida M., Cincinnati.
Sandwich, H., Cincinnati.
Sassiein, Mary P., Cincinnati.
Saynor, S. D., East Liverpool.
Scarborough, W. S., Wilberforce.
Schapiro, A., Portsmouth.
Scherman, Clara, Portsmouth.
Scheuer, Jacob, Cincinnati.
Scheuer, Teressa, Cincinnati.
Schulter, G., Cincinnati.
Schlotterbeck, Lula, Dayton.
Schmidt, Alvina, Cincinnati.
Schmidt, Ida, Cincinnati.
Schorndorfer, Matilda, Cleveland.
Schraffenberger, F., Cincinnati.
Schralshuhn, Emma, Canton.
Schreyer, Tine, Columbus.
Schwill, Ferd, Portsmouth.
Schwill, M. A., Cincinnati.
Scott, Mary H., Springfield.
Scott, Walter, Springfield.
Scott, Douglas, Springfield.
Seagraves, Clara, Niles.
Searight, Clarissa, Youngstown.
Sechlar, D. M., Cincinnati.

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OHIO—*Continued.*

Sechlar, Mrs. D. M., Cincinnati.
Seelye, A. C., Wooster.
Seelye, W. J., Wooster.
Senne, Leonora B., Sandusky.
Sexton, C. G., Columbus.
Shaffer, F. N., Xenia.
Shaffer, Mrs. F. N., Xenia.
Sharkey, J. P., Eaton.
Shawan, J. A., Columbus (2).
Shawan, Mrs. J. A., Columbus.
Sherwood, M. E., Cincinnati.
Sherwood, J. E., Cincinnati.
Shipley, Wm. E., Cincinnati.
Shobe, J. S., Columbus.
Shobe, J. W., Columbus.
Sholes, Maud, Cleveland.
Shoemaker, Carrie O., Columbus.
Shoemaker, Mrs. W. A., Columbus.
Shomo, Robert, Dayton.
Shumaker, F. P., Chagrin Falls.
Shumaker, Mrs. F. P., Chagrin Falls.
Shunk, F. R., Cleveland.
Shunk, Mrs. F. R., Cleveland.
Siebert, Mrs. H. L., Columbus.
Silcox, Julia C., Cleveland.
Silver M. T., Cleveland (4).
Simpson, R. D., Columbus.
Simpson, Mrs. R. D., Columbus.
Simpson, John W., Marietta.
Sims, Annie E., Columbus.
Sinnor, S. D., East Liverpool.
Skey, Caroline P., Cleveland.
Slaght, G. E., Cleveland.
Slattery, J. A., Cincinnati.
Smith, Margaret, Cincinnati.
Smith, S. W., Columbus (3).
Smith, M. F., Zanesville.
Smith, Julia A. A., Zanesville.
Smith, H., Cincinnati.
Smythe, A. H., Columbus.
Smythe, Mrs. A. H., Columbus.
Snyder, E. M., Salem.
Snyder, J. H., Tiffin.
Snyder, Alice G., Coshocton.
Snyder, Mrs. S. A., Coshocton.
Souerston, Geo., Cincinnati.
Spangenberg, Agnes, Cincinnati.
Spielman, W. C., Cincinnati.
Spindlar, Mrs. John, Cleveland.
Spring, Helen A., Columbus.
Stack, Augusta, Cleveland.
Steeley, J. G., Dayton.
Stewart, N. Coe, Cleveland.
Stewart, M., Dayton.
Stickler, A., Cincinnati.
Stickney, Lucia, Cincinnati.
Stone, Margaret O., Canton.
Stone, Belle H., Canton.
Stoppelman, Margaret, Dayton.
Stough, Libbie, Canton.
Stough, C. L., Ravena (2).
Stough, Mrs. C. L., Ravena.
Stoy, J. D., Cleveland.
Strauss, Mrs. C. E., Akron.
Strauss, W. J., Cincinnati.
Strobridge, H., Cincinnati (2).
Strobridge, N. C., Cincinnati.
Sullivan, Christine, Cincinnati.
Super, C. W., Athens.
Sutphin, G., Cincinnati.
Swan, E. W., Cleveland.
Swaynie, M., Dayton.
Tassig, F. O., Columbus.
Taylor, Mrs. H. M., Columbus.
Taylor, Miss M., Columbus.
Terrell, L. M., Columbus.
Thomas, James E., Newark.
Thompson, Mrs. Elizabeth, Akron (2).
Thompson, W. O., Oxford.
Tinte, J. M., Cincinnati.
Tinte, M. E., Cincinnati.
Tobin, K., Akron.
Todd, Edwin S., Springfield.
Townsend, J. F., Canal Dover.
Treudley, F., Youngstown.
Trounstine, L. H., Cincinnati.
Twiss, G., Columbus.
Ulrich, Julia, Cincinnati.
Ulrich, Kate, Cincinnati.
Upson, Luther, M., Cleveland.
Van Ansdal, Mary, Dayton.
Van Ansdal, Isaac, Dayton.
Van Bibber, Andrew, Cincinnati (2).
Van Cleve, E. M., Bumsville.
Van Fossen, W. H., New Lisbon.
Vedder, Eliza, Cincinnati.
Veltman, C. A., Urbana.
Verhage, Florence, Cincinnati.
Verhage, Clara, Cincinnati.
Verhage, Emma L., Cincinnati.
Vickers, Thomas, Portsmouth.
Voelckel, B., Cincinnati.
Vogel, Wm. H., Cincinnati.
Voight, W. L., Cincinnati.
Volz, Edward J., Columbus.
Vornees, S. R., Cincinnati.
Wagner, W. H., Cleveland.
Walke, Matilda, Cincinnati.
Walke, Augusta, Cincinnati.
Walke, Laura, Cincinnati.
Walker, Jane G., Cincinnati.
Walker, Hazel, Canton.
Walker, Helen, Canton.
Walker, Mrs. A. D., Canton.
Walker, Jane G., Cincinnati.
Wallace, Eugene, Newark.
Warbrick, William, Youngstown.
Warman, E. G., Cincinnati.
Warner, L. K., Clyde (2).
Weaver, Carry E., Toledo.
Webber, Theresa, Youngstown.
Weechter, Samuel, Canton.
Weidenkopf, Josie J., Cleveland.
Weidenkopf, Nellie I., Cleveland.
Weil, M., Cincinnati.
Weil, S., Cincinnati.
Weil B., Cincinnati.
Weiler, H. J., Cincinnati.
Weinstein, C., Niles.
Weirich, Retta, Orville.
Wentz, Charles H., South Charleston.
Weyer, Jennie, Cambridge.
Wheatley, Miss Mary, Medina.
Whitaker, Miss H. B., Cincinnati.
Whitaker, Miss L. J., Cincinnati.
White, J. M., Cleveland.
White, W. J., Dayton.
Whitehead, Minnie R., Cleveland.
Wickham, Iola, Columbus.
Wiecher, E. H., Cincinnati.
Wiecher, Anna, Cincinnati.
Wilds, Augusta M., Akron.
Wiley, Margaret, Glendale.
Williams, Stella G., Cincinnati.
Williams, Sallye, Cincinnati.
Wilmot, Addie, Youngstown.
Wilson, Eva, Niles.
Wilson, H. W., Cleveland.
Wilson, Mrs. Jno., Bucyrus.
Wilson, F. N., Toledo.
Wilt, A. D., Dayton.
Wissinger, Mrs. T. K., Columbus.
Wissler, Katharine, Chillicothe.
Wissler, Elsie, Chillicothe.
Wolfe, Josie E., Cleveland.
Woltz, Laura E., Akron.
Wood, Elizabeth A., Columbus.
Wood, Linnie S., Columbus.
Wright, Anna J., Cleveland.
Yeager, E., Portsmouth.
Yeo, A. G., Chillicothe.
Yerger, Wm. D., Cincinnati.
Young, John H., Pequa.
Young, Mrs. John H., Pequa.
Young, Alice, Massillon.
Young, Geo. H., Springfield.
Yowell, R. C., Cincinnati (2).
Zerbe, Ida, Cleveland.

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OKLAHOMA.

Boyd, D. R., Norman.
Jock, Dora M., Anadarko.
Jones, Mattie, Anadarko.
Willis, Geo. H., Guthrie.

Oklahoma—4.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Aaron, L. I., Pittsburgh.
Adair, Kate L., Alleghany City.
Adair, M. J., Alleghany City.
Ambler, Louis B., Jenkintown.
Ankron, Anna, Alleghany.
Atkinson, H. L., Philadelphia.
Bacon, Frank, Philadelphia.
Baer, Samuel A., Reading.
Baker, Lidie J., Columbia.
Ballinger, A. L., Meadville.
Bare, H. Blomfield, Philadelphia.
Baymore, L. E., Philadelphia.
Becht, J. George, Muncy.
Benson, W. M., Huntingdon.
Benton, S., Philadelphia.
Berluler, Wm., Corey.
Bird, Elizabeth, Montoursville.
Bliss, Mazy, New Brighton.
Bodler, Anna, Condersport.
Booth, Mrs. L., Scranton.
Bower, John, Newcastle.
Bower, Mrs. John, Newcastle.
Bowman, Lillie, Allentown.
Bowman, Annie, Allentown.
Boyer, Millie, Meadville.
Boyer, Cyrus, Lebanon.
Brecht, M. J., Lancaster.
Brewster, Miss R. W., Elwyn.
Brodwater, L. C., Philadelphia.
Brooks, Edward, Philadelphia.
Bropley, M. A., Philadelphia.
Bropley, K. H., Philadelphia.
Brown, Thomas K., Westtown.
Brown, Mary H., Cannonsburg.
Brown, W. F., Cannonsburg.
Buehrele, R. K., Lancaster.
Bull, Emily L., Germantown.
Bulsford, Chas. H., Philadelphia.
Bushfield, Caroline M., Pittsburg.
Butler, Mrs. S. S., Erie.
Butler, Harry, Erie.
Byrne, J. P., Erie.
Cameron, Lizzie, Washington.
Carroll, Della, Union City
Carroll, Phebe, Union City.
Chism, Miss S. C., Norristown.
Chrisholm, Adelaide, Erie.
Chrisholm, Andrew, Erie.
Clark, Mrs. Margaret, Cannonsburg.
Clark, W. S., Erie.
Clement, Mrs. Frances, Philadelphia.
Collins, Mrs. J. S., Alleghany.
Colter, J. P., Meadeville.
Colter, M. E., Meadeville.
Colter, Fannie, Meadeville.
Colter, W. H., Meadeville.
Colter, Mrs. Weltha J., Meadeville.
Colter, Bertha, Meadeville.
Cordery, D. L., Philadelphia.
Cornman, Oliver P., Philadelphia.
Criley, Elizabeth F., Downington.
Crouch, Mattie, Erie.
Cullen, Z. Adams, Pittsburg.
Deahl, John L., Irwin.
Deatick, Rev. W. W., Kutztown.
Deens, A. M., Pittsburg.
De Garmo, Chas., Swarthmore (2).
Dempster, A. P., Pittsburg.
Dempster, A. A., Pittsburg.
Dempster, J. G., Pittsburg.
Dempster, A. J., Pittsburg.
Dewey, James A., Wanamie.
Dewey, Mrs. James A., Wanamie.
Dick, Wallace P., Westchester.
Dickenson, Mary B., Pittsburg.
Dixon, Edward C., Philadelphia.
Donaldson, Emma, Alleghany.
Douglas, Carrie, Meadeville.
Downs, Daisy, Sharon.
Dungan, Sarah W., Philadelphia.
Eastburn, Geo., Philadelphia.
Eberman, Naomi, Lancaster.
Elmes, Louise D., Philadelphia.
Elmes, Cornelia W., Philadelphia.
Ely, Tessie, Titusville.
Fean, Mrs. S., Erie.
Fisher, H. W., Pittsburg.
Flint, A. P., Philadelphia.
Flounders, Geo. W., Ashbourne.
Foster, Charles F., Chester (2).
Fraser, A. N., Pittsburg.
Fraser, John D., Pittsburg.
Fraser, Alice H., Pittsburg.
Fraser, Mrs. J. D., Pittsburg.
Fraser, W. P., Pittsburg.
Frey, Elizabeth H., Meadville.
Gallagher, A. J., Wilkesbarre.
Gamble, Eva, Pittsburg.
Gassaway, J. L., Williamsport.
Gibbs, S. M., Danville.
Gideon, Edward, Philadelphia.
Gilbert, Sarah H., Millersville.
Gillett, Mrs. Wm., Union City.
Gotwals, Jos. K., Norristown.
Graham, Mrs. Hugh, Newcastle.
Greeves, M. I., Pittsburg.
Griffith, E. M., Pittsburg.
Guist, M. M., Titusville.
Hahn, Emma L., Reading.
Hall, Walter E., Pittsburg.
Hall, Louise, Pittsburg.
Hall, Loyal Freeman, Butler.
Hallowell, Anna, Philadelphia.
Hamar, Howard T., Philadelphia.
Hamilton, Samuel, Braddock.
Hamilton, Mrs. J. B., Newcastle.
Hamlin, Anna D., Harrisburg.
Hannon, David A., Hazelton.
Harmon, Mary P., Philadelphia.
Harpel, Wm. F., Shamokin.
Harrah, Mrs. Ella, Philadelphia.
Hartranft, H. H., Hamburg.
Hasting, L. B., Cambridge.
Haxton, E. R., Meadville.
Helkes, Irving A., Plymouth.
Herring, Bella, Avalon.
Highland, Lydia P., Alleghany City.
Hill, Ida M., Alleghany.
Hobson, Miss C. A., Reading.
Hoffman, S., Columbia.
Holland, T. N., Titusville.
Hougendobler, M., Columbia.
Houston, Lizzie, Cannonsburg.
Hull, Geo. W., Millersville.
Hulsmann, I., Philadelphia.
Hutchin, D. W., Philadelphia.
Irwin, Sarah M., Philadelphia.
Jackson, E., Elwyn.
Jones, Richard, Swarthmore.
Jones, Annie L., Philadelphia.
Jones, M., Philadelphia.
Jones, Addison, Westchester.
Johnson, H. P., Johnstown.
Johnston, W. E., Cannonsburg.
Jordan, Mrs., Reading.
Kain, Chas. H., Philadelphia.
Kellogg, Abbie, Meadesville.
Kellogg, O. E., Meadesville.
Kieffer, J. B., Lancaster.
King, J. J., Williamsport.
Kirby, Lydia A., Philadelphia.
Kissinger, Emma, Beaver Falls.
Knauss, Tivilla E., Allentown.
Knowlton, A. L., Philadelphia.
Kohler, Matilda, Etters.
Kutz, Mrs. S. B., Reading.

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PENNSYLVANIA—*Continued.*

Laidley, E. M., Oil City.
Laird, Maggie, Williamsport.
Lamberton, Mary J., Philadelphia.
Lamberton, E. H., Franklin.
Lamberton, Mrs. E. H., Franklin.
Landers, Amanda, Millersville.
Leach, A. V., Pittsburg.
Lee, Charles S., Philadelphia.
Lettinger, A., Philadelphia.
Lewis, I. R., Pittsburg.
Liebel, R., Erie.
Linengood, Olive, Elkhart.
Lobb, S. E., Elwyn.
Lodge, Susan C., Westchester.
Lodor, Mary L., Philadelphia.
Lodor, Elizabeth, Philadelphia.
Loomis, E. B., Pittsburg.
Longstreth, Emma J., Philadelphia.
Lukens, H. T., Philadelphia.
Lyle, Anna, Millersville.
Lyte, E. Oram, Millersville.
MacDede, Rose V., Philadelphia.
Mackenzie, Constance, Philadelphia.
Mackey, E., Butler.
Markley, Minerva, Scheuksville.
Marot, Mary S., Philadelphia.
Marshall, Mrs. T. T., Pittsburg.
Martin, Adda, Avalon.
Martin, Agnes, Philadelphia.
Mason, William A., Philadelphia.
Mathias, John I., Mahoney City.
Maxwell, Isabella, Philadelphia.
Maxwell, Mary, Philadelphia.
Maxwell, Mary, Philadelphia.
McAlpine, F. N., Scranton.
McCasky, J. P., Lancaster.
McCord, Mary, Lewistown.
McCormick, Lizzie, Alleghany.
McCracken, M. J., Pittsburg.
McElwain, W. A., Sewickley.
McElwain, Mrs. W. A., Sewickley.
McFarlan, J. H., Newcastle.
McGinniss, L. E., Steelton.
McGough, Thomas, Franklin.
McIntire, Lillian, Corey.
McKee, Annie, Lewistown.
McMurray, Kate, Philadelphia.
McNary, J. C., Cannonsburg.
McNary, Mrs. A. T., Cannonsburg.
Mecklem, M. F., Rochester.
Mecklem, Mrs M. F., Rochester.
Miller, C. B., Wilkesbarre.
Miller, Gertrude, Wilkesbarre.
Miner, Elizabeth, Pittsburg.
Moffatt, S., Philadelphia.
Moody, M., Warrensburg.
Moran, Margaret, Titusville.
Moran, Wm. J., Philadelphia.
Moriarty, Mary, Pittsburg.
Morrison, Andrew J., Philadelphia.
Morse, Addie L., Troy.
Moyer, N. C., Reading.
Mumford, Mary E., Philadelphia.
Myers, Carrie E., Millersville.
Nease, W., Pittsburg.
Nease, Mrs. W., Pittsburg.
Noetling, William, Sillius Grove.
Norris, Mrs. Eva, Newcastle.
Officer, T. W., Franklin.
Osterstock, Henry W., Easton.
Oswald, Madge B., Pittsburg.
Parke, Cal., Pittsburg.
Passmore, John A. M., Philadelphia.
Patterson, B. F., Pottsville.
Patterson, J. A., Fairmount.
Patterson, Clara N., Pittsburg.
Partridge, Lilia E., Philadelphia.
Payne, Kate S., Columbia.
Payne, Sarah V., Columbia.
Philips, G. M., Westchester.
Phillips, G. W., Scranton.
Prowell, Elizabeth, Yocumtown.
Rapp, E. M., Hamburg.
Reiff, Mamie J., Lewisburg.
Reiff, Ellen, Lewisburg.
Reiff, Chas., Philadelphia.
Rennaman, Margaret, Scranton.
Rhoads, Jos. Jr., Westtown.
Richardson, Sarah J., Harrisburg.
Richardson, C. J., Philadelphia.
Richardson, Mary E., Harrisburg.
Richmond, Anna E., Terre Hill.
Roe, Adda S., Harrisburg.
Roeland, Miss Lena M., Reading.
Roth, Supt. H. R., Bradford.
Roth, Mrs. Clara M., Bradford.
Rowe, D. J., Indiana.
Russell, Clara B., Meadeville.
Russell, Laura, Meadeville.
Russell, Mrs. M. J., McConnon's Mills.
Sawvell, F. R., Greenville.
Shaeffer, Nathan C. Supt., Harrisburg.
Schmucker, S. C., Indiana.
Schroeder, Emma M., Columbia.
Scott, Chas. W., Williamsport.
Sharpless, Isaac, Haverford.
Shaughuesey, Mary, Erie.
Shaw, M. A., Pittsburg.
Shaw, M. M., Pittsburg.
Shrader, Caroline H., Philadelphia.
Sickel, J. F. C., Philadelphia.
Siegfried, M. B., Pittsburg.
Siegfried, H., Pittsburg.
Simpson, Ellen, Reading.
Simpson, Jennie C., Pittsburg.
Simpson, M. E., Pittsburg.
Smith, A. T., Westchester.
Smith, A. G. C., Media.
Smith, Lillie S., Columbia.
Snakard, Rose, Titusville.
Snyder, J. L., Alleghany.
Spaugler, Rev. Henry T., Collegeville.
Spayd, H. H., Minersville.
Spencer, P. W., Philadelphia.
Starr, Mrs. H. C., Meadeville.
Stewart, J. A., Hollidaysburg.
Stewart, Sarah A., Philadelphia.
Stout, Geo. H., Philadelphia.
Stuart, James, Meadeville.
Swift, Minnie, Edenboro.
Swift, Annie, Edenboro.
Tadd, J. Liberty, Philadelphia.
Talt, Elizabeth S., Philadelphia.
Taylor, Laura, Pittsburg.
Telsen, C. E., Elwyn.
Thompson, Margaret, Pittsburg.
Tomkinson, Martha M., Harrisburg.
Ullman, S., Pittsburg.
Vandever, Miss J. S., Philadelphia.
Venables, Esther M., Philadelphia.
Verlenden, Elizabeth L., Darby.
Verlenden, Mary S., Darby.
Verlenden, Mrs. R. H., Darby.
Waden, R., Warrensburg.
Walker, A. M., Philadelphia.
Wallace, M. A., Philadelphia.
Walter, Mary H., Tradesville.
Warm, Mabel, Bradford.
Warren, Josephine, Erie.
Welsh, J. P., Bloomsburg.
Welsh, Wm. L., Philadelphia.
Walker, Alice L., Allentown.
Willard, J. Monroe, Philadelphia.
Williamson, L. J., Philadelphia.
Wirtz, P., Erie.
Wishart, Mary C., Huntington.
Witmer, Chas. K., Lebanon.
Wohensmith, A. J., Reading.
Woll, C. J., Newcastle.
Wolverton, W. J., Lock Haven.
Wolverton, A. C., Lock Haven.
Wood, E. C., Pittsburg.
Worrell, J. Worcester, Philadelphia.
Wunder, Annie M., Reading.
Young, C. M., Pittsburg.

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RHODE ISLAND.

Arnold, E. C., Providence.
Baker, Benjamin, Newport.
Bevan, Alexander, Providence.
Fisher, Gilman C., Pawtucket.
Jacobs, Walter B., Providence.
Jenks, Jennie B., Pawtucket.
Ring, R. L., Providence.
Stockwell, Thomas B., Providence.
Tarbell, Horace S., Providence.
Tarbell, Martha, Providence.
Tarbell, M. A., Providence.
Wilson, W. E., Providence.

Rhode Island—12

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Allen, Mrs. J. W., Spartanburg.
Ard, A. J., Sumpter.
Bailey, Thomas P. Jr., Marion.
Bailey, B. F., Ebbeville.
Brodie, P. T., Spartanburg (2).
Brodie, Mrs. P. T., Spartanburg.
Cannon, Mrs. T. H., Spartanburg.
Cannon, T. H., Spartanburg.
Cates, C. F., Spartanburg.
Cleveland, E. E., Spartanburg.
Cofield, L. R., Spartanburg.
Cohen, S. H., Charleston.
Cook, S. F., Greenville.
Cook, M. D., Greenville.
Coulter, Mamie D., Rock Hill.
Davis, Geo. F., Charleston.
Dawson, J. H., Charleston (2).
Duc, H. C., Jr., Charleston.
Flanders, Mrs. H. Y., Greenville.
Gill, M. C., Allendale.
Gill, W. V., Allendale.
Hornby, Thomas B., Marion.
Haynsworth, Mrs. J. L., Sumpter.
Helnitsch, Mrs. Geo. W., Spartanburg.
Hook, H. L., Spartanburg.
Hope, Mrs. R. H., Rock Hill.
Jennings, T. M., Sumpter.
Johnson, D. B., Columbus.
Kelly, Etta A., Charleston.
Laws, Dr. S. S., Columbia.
Leftwich, A. H., Spartanburg.
Leftwich, Mrs. A. H., Spartanburg.
Martin, O. B., Greenville.
Means, G. E., Spartanburg.
Meigan, Mary H., Columbia.
Pearce, S. A., Columbia.
Reed, Helen, Spartanburg.
Robson, H. H., Charleston.
Schleppegrell, W., Charleston.
Terrell, Luta, Rock Hill.
Tiedman, O., Charleston.
Tiedman, Mrs. O., Charleston.
Wells, H. L. B., Sumpter.
West, W. B., Piedmont.
Wetherhorn, Mary E., Charleston.
Wheeler, C. A., Spartanburg.
Wheeler, L. M., Spartanburg.
Zimmerman, M. A., Spartanburg.
Zimmerman, C. M., Spartanburg.
Zimmerman, N. S., Spartanburg.

South Carolina—52

SOUTH DAKOTA.

Booth, Mason, Mitchell.
Miller, Homer R., Elk Point.
Miller, Mrs. Ellen, Elk Point.
Piles, I., Yankton.
Piles, Mrs. I., Yankton.
Roper, J. M., Parker.
Sheldon, Mrs. Etta D., Aberdeen.
Whitaker, H. H., Aberdeen.
Willsey, H., Pierre.

South Dakota—9

TENNESSEE.

Abernathy, W. T., Nashville.
Abernathy, Mrs. W. T., Nashville.
Alprin, E., Memphis.
Alprin, M., Memphis.
Armstrong, S., Knoxville.
Bennett, J., Chattanooga.
Bennett, C., Chattanooga.
Bigley, A., Memphis.
Blum, C., Memphis.
Bornett, J. C., Mylie.
Brister, M. W., Memphis.
Bronston, S., Memphis.
Brown, Nashville.
Camp, N. B., Memphis.
Clark, S. M. D., Nashville.
Clark, Mary L., Nashville.
Clark, Mrs. S. M. D., Nashville.
Coe, Mrs. P. A., Memphis.
Compton, Mrs. J. M., Memphis.
Cowan, C. C., Memphis (2).
Drawbrock, G., Chattanooga.
Elmore, E. A., Knoxville.
Felsenthal, Julius, Memphis.
Flippin, J. R., Memphis.
Flippin, Miss Helen, Memphis.
Foster, N., Memphis.
Foy, G., Chattanooga.
Frayser, R. D., Memphis.
Frayser, Florence M., Memphis.
Freeman, L. R., Nashville.
Freeman, Mary L., Nashville.
Furgason, E. C., Athens.
Gaboy, R., Memphis.
Gaffagen, James, Memphis.
Goodman, Frank, Nashville.
Gordon, Gen. Geo. W., Memphis.
Hamilton, Eva, Dyersburg.
Hansell, W. S., Memphis.
Harris, R. W., West Memphis.
Hawkins, D. M., Memphis.
Henning, H., Nashville.
Herbert, N. B., Nashville.
Hesse, Sol., Memphis.
Hirsch, Leopold, Memphis.
Hirsch, Miss Stella, Memphis.
Hirsch, Mrs. S., Memphis.
Hodges, Ada K., Memphis.
Horn, Harry, Memphis.
Horn, L., Memphis.
Howland, W. E., Memphis.
Hunt, Mrs. H., Memphis.
Jones, Earl, Memphis.
Jones, Mrs. N. J., Memphis.
Johnston, Miss M. L., Memphis.
Johnston, Miss M. E., Memphis.
Johnston, Mrs. J. B., Memphis.
Johnston, Dr. T. B., Memphis.
Kane, Mrs. D. O., Memphis.
Kinsella, Knowlton, Memphis.
Kornman, L., Nashville.
Kremer, M., Memphis.
Lee, J., Memphis.
Lieberman, A., Nashville.
Lieberman, M., Nashville.
Louis, M., Memphis.
Louis, H. W., Jackson.
Lowe, L., Chattanooga.
Madden, J. B., Knoxville.
Main, C., Memphis.
March, Miss M. A., Jackson.

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TENNESSEE—*Continued.*

Mauss, H. B., Memphis.
McHenry, E. T., Memphis (3).
McNabb, M. C., Memphis.
McNabb, Bessie, Memphis.
Mellen, Geo. F. Knoxville.
Menken, J. S., Memphis.
Myer, A. H., Nashville.
Moore, F. W., Nashville.
Moskovitz, Memphis.
Nelson, Miss E. A., Knoxville.
New, Chas., Memphis.
Norris, C., Memphis.
Paine, Miss M. K., Jackson.
Pate, H., Nashville (3).
Perkins, A. D., Memphis.
Plisofsky, A., Memphis.
Rabinowitz, M., Memphis.
Rose, L., Memphis.
Rosenheim, L., Nashville.
Rosino, M., Memphis (3).
Ryan, J. M., Nashville.
Saxby, W. M., Memphis.
Sears, John M., Memphis.
Seipt, M. D., Nashville.
Shaal, E., Memphis.
Sheffer, H., Memphis (2).
Simmons, Mollie, Memphis.
Simpson, A. J., Memphis.
Smith, C. F., Nashville.
Sneed, W. B., Nashville.
Sternberg, M., Memphis.
Stuber, J. M., Nashville.
Thomas, Jacob L., Knoxville.
Thompson, Grace W., Knoxville.
Thompson, Grace W., Knoxville.
Thompson, Maria E., Knoxville.
Tugendrich, I., Nashville.
Ward, C., Memphis.
Watson, M. E., Nashville.
Weber, Mrs. A. E., Nashville.
Weld, Mrs. F., Nashville.
White, W. T., Knoxville.
Whitmore, M. B., Chattanooga.
Wolf, F., Memphis.
Young, D. F., Knoxville.
Young, Jane, Nashville.

Tennessee—124

TEXAS.

Alpine, H., Houston.
Baldwin, J., Austin.
Bonart, J., Galveston.
Bonart, S., Houston.
Borich, Mrs. P. S., Dallas.
Botkowski, L., Buffalo.
Brock, J. T., Waco.
Collier, L. A., Dallas.
Collier, B. G., Dallas.
Cooper, O. N., Galveston.
Courson, R. H., Yoakum.
Crooke, E. W., Paris.
Crooke, J. D., Paris.
Dickinson, H. T., Dallas.
Dickinson, Mrs. C. T., Dallas.
Ehrich, J. B., Dallas.
Elser, Max, Corsicana.
Elser, L. J., Corsicana.
Emery, Mary E., Arransan Pass.
Fox, Alex., Corsicana.
Gohmert, S. G., Taylor.
Gohmert, E. G., Taylor.
Gohmert, L. S., Taylor.
Greenberg, M., Houston.
Grundstein, C., Dennison.
Grundstein, M., Dennison.
Halsted, G. B., Austin.
Halsted, Mrs. G. B., Austin.
Harris, N. A., Clarksville.
Harris, L., Clarksville.
Harris, J. G., Clarksville.
Harris, F. E., Clarksville.
Harris, R. H., Clarksville.
Heinz, A. C., Gainesville.
Heminger, J., Gainesville.
Hill, Mrs. J. A., Dallas.
Hogg, Alex., Fort Worth.
Howard, B. M., Dallas.
Irvine, Annie, Waco.
Irvine, Mrs. J. M., Waco.
Irion, J. R., Overton.
Jones, S. J., Salado.
Kalwerisky, N., Houston.
Kauffman, H. A., Galveston.
Kauffman, A. R., Galveston.
Key, C., Marshall.
King, E., Marshall.
Lambkin, D., Dallas.
Lazarus, F., Dallas.
Mahaffey, W. A. Dallas.
Manton, W. J., Bellevue.
McKnight, Miss T. T., Dennison.
Momand, C. E., Dallas.
Movar, Mrs. J. W., Colorado.
Murphy, Ella, Dallas.
Murtha, P., El Paso.
Muslohm, J. A., Ft. Worth.
Newton, J., Ft. Worth.
Nicholson, S. G., Seguin.
Peters, A., Corsicana.
Pritchett, H., Huntsville.
Ramans, John T., Dallas.
Ramsdell, C. T., Dallas.
Ramsdell, J. M., Dallas.
Randall, N. C., Fort Worth.
Reed, J. L., Clarksville (2).
Ripinski, J., Sherman.
Ripinski, L., Sherman.
Rosenburg, Ben, Corsicana.
Shakford, E. E., Houston (2).
Smith, Mrs. J. E., Beaumont.
Solinsky, H., San Antonio.
Swain, W. F., Houston.
Sweet, E. M., Jr., Fort Worth.
Thompson, Maria E., San Antonio.
Underwood, P. H., Galveston.
Underwood, Mrs. P. H., Galveston.
Wilkins, A. H., Dallas.
Woodward, E. P., Waco.
Zelle, G. W., Dallas.

Texas—82.

UTAH.

Dukes, Miss Ella M., Salt Lake City.
Malony, W. R., Salt Lake City.
Rowe, Alice E., Salt Lake City.
Young, Geo. C., Salt Lake City.

Utah—4.

VERMONT.

Ellsworth, Jessie A., Rutland.
Penniman, W. M., Hartland.
Stone, Mason S., Montpelier.

Vermont—3.

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VIRGINIA.

Bader, John H., Stanton.
Bird, Hugh S., Williamsburg.
Boatwright, F. W., Richmond.
Bosworth, Grace A., Norfolk.
Crawford, John W., Lynchburg (2).
Dichel, I. B., Richmond.
Fox, William F., Richmond.
Glass, E. C., Lynchburg.
Gorsuch, Wm., Amherst.
Jackson, Daisy L., Lynchburg.
Johnson, B. F., Richmond.
Massey, John E., Richmond.
Pamplin, Mildred, East Radford.
Pierce, M. A., Richmond.
Reynold, C. P., Norfolk.
Roberts, Sophia, East Radford.
Robinson, L. A., White Post.
Sheppe, R. H., Bristol.
Smithdeal, G. M., Richmond.
Thomas, J. P., Richmond.
Thomas, Mrs. J. P., Richmond.
Wheatley, C. S., Danville.
Womack, J. W., Richmond.

Virginia—24.

WASHINGTON.

Barnard, F. J., Seattle.
Roediger, R., Tacoma.

Washington—2.

WEST VIRGINIA.

Abrams, W. S. Wellsburg.
Anderson, W. H., Wheeling.
Anderson, E. S., Wheeling.
Barnes, J. Walter, Fairmont.
Bingell, E. E., Wheeling.
Bockumler, Mrs. E. C., Wheeling.
Dornam, John, Wellsburg.
Dornam, Mrs. Susan, Wellsburg.
Evans, Chas. W., Fairmont.
Isenberg, I., Wheeling.
Jones, J. McH., Wheeling.
Kelly, A. W., Wheeling.
Kelly, Mrs. A. W., Wheeling.
Knott, R. M., Keyser.
Knott, G. O., Keyser.
Markwood, J. H., Keyser.
Markwood, O. B. Keyser.
McMechen, M. L., Wheeling.
Norton, Virginia, Wheeling.
Pace, H. W., Wheeling.
Prillerman, Byrd, Charleston.
Repnetto, Mary, Wheeling.
Robon, Mrs. N., Wheeling.
Robon, Mrs. N., Wheeling.
Rogers, Dora B., Elizabeth.
Ruffner, Joseph, Charleston.
Smith, Mollie Va., Clarksburg.
Staunton, E. W., Charleston.
Strang, A. J., Parkersburg.
Strauss, W. M., Parkersburg.
Strauss, Mrs. W. M., Parkersburg.
Updegraff, Frank, Wheeling.
Vardy, Geo. M., Wheeling.
Wade, A. L., Morgantown.
Warner, Eveline, Wheeling.
Wiley, Mrs. J. M., Wheeling.
Wilkinson, E. L., Wheeling.

West Virginia—37.

WISCONSIN.

Abrams, Mrs. Esther, Milwaukee.
Allen, M. O., Milwaukee.
Allen, J. F., Milwaukee.
Anderson, Mrs. H. A., Milwaukee.
Andrus, A. D., Troy Center.
Andrus, F. L., Troy Center.
Austin, R. N., Milwaukee.
Austin, Mrs. R. N., Milwaukee.
Barndt, Anna N., Milwaukee.
Barrow, Cora, Eau Claire.
Behling, Joe, Milwaukee.
Bick, H., Milwaukee.
Birdsey, Mrs. Mary A., Columbus.
Booth, L. M., Hillside Home School.
Bruce, Wm. G., Milwaukee.
Brain, L. J., Milwaukee (2).
Briggs, J. E., Milwaukee.
Brooks, Carolyn V., Appleton.
Caldwell, Minnie, Wevauwega.
Cashman, S., Milwaukee.
Chamberlain, G. H., Milwauk e.
Cline, Esther M., Milwaukee
Coates, A. R., Milwaukee (2).
Cole, Margaret E., La Crosse.
Coles, W. G., Columbus.
Coles, Mrs. Vesta, Columbus.
Cook, Sarah J., Columbus.
Cook, Louise, Columbus.
Cook, A. G., Columbus.
Cook, Cora E., Baraboo.
Cooley, S. H., Chippewa Falls.
Cottrell, Annie M., Whitewater.
Cowles, Emma M., Fox Lake.
Dudgeon, R. B., Madison.
Eggleston, Louise A., Milwaukee.
Fahsel, A. E., Milwaukee.
Frazier, Gertrude, Viola.
Geraghty, J. H., Milwaukee.
Gexelschap, C., Milwaukee.
Gexelschap, F. W., Milwaukee.
Gilbert, Mrs. W. C., Oshkosh.
Gilpatrick, M. P., Milwaukee (3).
Goodman, A. P., Whitewater.
Gormery, Wm., Milwaukee.
Greenwood, T. E., Milwaukee.
Greenwood, Mrs. T. E., Milwaukee.
Griffiths, Lon, Milwaukee.
Griffiths, Mima S., Milwaukee.
Gross, P. A., Milwaukee.
Haekler, Chas., Milwaukee.
Hardy, Albert, La Crosse.
Harper, W. F., West Superior.
Harper, Mrs. W. F., West Superior.
Harvey, L. D., Milwaukee.
Higgins, Mrs., Milwaukee.
Hill, Geo. O., Rosendale.
Hirsh, Phil, Milwaukee.
Hoerman, Bertha, Watertown.
Hooper, Mrs. S. A., Milwaukee.
Hooper, J. T., Darlington.
Huntoon, H. K., Hudson.
Jenner, J. E. Milwaukee.
Johnson, Minnie E., West Superior.
Jones, F., Waupun.
Kane, Sarah E., New Richmond.
Kuebel, H. P., Milwaukee.
Lake, F. H., Milwaukee.
Lakin, Mildred M., Milwaukee.
Lamb, Carrie S., Oshkosh.
Light, Emily, Milwaukee.
Lugg, Mary L., Milwaukee.
Martin, H. C., Darlington (2).
Mayne, Nella, Janesville.
Mayne, D. D., Janesville.
McIntire, H. H., South Superior.
McNary, J., Milwaukee.
Merriam, M. H., Columbus.
Merriam, H. M., Milwaukee.
Middlemass, May, Milwaukee.
Miller, F. H., Ashland.
Morgan, E. B., Green Bay.
Morrison, Albina, Winona.
Mosher, E. C., Milwaukee.
Musgrave, T. A., Milwaukee (2).

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WISCONSIN—*Continued.*

Nicholson, A. P., Edgerton.
Oldewelt, H. W., Milwaukee.
Owen, Jennie, Milwaukee.
Owens, John J., Milwaukee.
Painter, B., Milwaukee.
Partridge, Mary, Argyle.
Passmore, Jane B., Milwaukee.
Peckham, G. W., Milwaukee.
Perrin, L., Oshkosh.
Perry, G. P., La Crosse.
Powers, Mrs. R. S., Oshkosh.
Pray, T. B., Stevens Point.
Rankin, A. W., West Superior.
Reynolds, Thos., Oshkosh (2).
Reynolds, E. A., Geneva Junction.
Reynolds, Sarah, Geneva Junction.
Rice, Nellie M., Milwaukee.
Rice, R., Milwaukee.
Rodgers, Irma E., Milwaukee.
Rossiter, H., New London.
Rossiter, M. L., La Crosse.
Schenk, C. G. B., Milwaukee.
Schenk, Mrs., Milwaukee.
Schuette, Louis, Manitowoc.
Sidlar, Agnes, Milwaukee.
Slater, A. T., Milwaukee.
Slye, Elizabeth, Baraboo.
Smith, Marietta A., Milwaukee.
Spence, Thos. H., La Crosse.
Staehle, Max, Manitowoc.
Steenson, Mrs. N. H., Whitewater.
Stoner, Mary, Madison.
Sutherland, E. B., Milwaukee (3).
Taylor, Frank H., Milwaukee.
Thompson, O. P., Rosendale.
Tigert, Mrs. M. G., River Falls.
Toal, Luella, Whitewater.
Van Tessel, Mrs. J. E., Milwaukee.
Von Tassel, E., Milwaukee.
Wackler, Catharine, Baraboo.
Warden, A. M., Washburn.
Wasweyler, Anna G., Milwaukee.
Weber, A. M., Milwaukee.
Weber, Fred J., Milwaukee.
Weber, Lillian, Milwaukee.
Weinsheimer, Adolph, Milwaukee.
White, W. P., Oshkosh.
Wild, Elizabeth, Milwaukee.
Wild, George B., Milwaukee.
Wolf, Hally, Milwaukee.

Wisconsin—143.

WYOMING.

Wheeler, O. W., Cheyenne.
Winkle, J. A., Jr.

Wyoming—2

FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

DOMINION OF CANADA—ONTARIO.

Brum, Mrs. Hume, Toronto.
Clare, Geo. F., Toronto.
Clark, E. L., Toronto.
Clement, Sinda C., Chatham.
Clubb, E., Toronto.
Clubb, A., Toronto.
Donavan, A., Toronto.
Ellis, A. H., Ingersoll.
Gallagher, R. E., Hamilton.
Glass, J. W., Toronto.
Gordon, Miss A. V. L., Toronto.
Henderson, Annie, Hamilton.
Hughes, J. H., Toronto.
Hughes, J. E., Newmarket.
Hunter, Mrs. James, Hamilton.
Ironside, Mrs. A. V., Toronto.
Jackson, J. P., Toronto.
Johnson, D. C., London.
Lees, Richard, St. Thomas.
Macdonald, J. S., Toronto.
McCracken, Mary H., Toronto.
McDonald, M., Toronto.
McKeough, M. A., Chatham.
McKeough, W. E., Chatham.
McKeough, A., Chatham.
McKeough, B. A., Chatham.
McKeough, J. F., Chatham.
McLellan, J. A., Toronto.
McLeod, John, Toronto.
Newcomb, Mrs. L. T., Hamilton.
Ruthken, Evelyn, Hamilton.
Sheppard, Grave, Toronto.
Sheppard, M. G., Toronto.
Simpson, Jessie, London.
Sinclair, S. B., Ottawa.
Smith, C. C., Toronto.
Spence, Hugh, Toronto.
Spence, M. D., Toronto.
Starkey, Mrs. J. R., Toronto.
Stewart, Jessie, Hamilton.
Wilson, F. M., Toronto.

Ontario—41.

HUNGARY.

Kreisy, Prof. Bela, Royal States High School, Keskemet.

Hungary—1.

MEXICO.

Stone, F., City of Mexico.

Mexico—1.

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RECORD OF MEMBERSHIP BY STATES

IN THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

FOR EACH YEAR FROM 1884 to 1894 INCLUSIVE,

Excepting 1893, when no regular meeting of the Association was held. Boldface figures show membership from the State in which the meeting for the year was held.

PLACE AND DATE OF MEETING.	Madison.	Saratoga.	Topeka.	Chicago.	San Francisco.	Nashville.	St. Paul.	Toronto.	Saratoga.	Asbury Park.	Total.	Average Membership.
	1884	1885	1886	1887	1888	1889	1890	1891	1892	1894	.....	.....
North Atlantic Division.												
Maine	21	2	5	25	11	.....	32	30	10	5	141	14
New Hampshire	64	6	10	23	11	.....	32	9	5	7	167	17
Vermont	43	3	3	41	4	.....	40	4	20	4	167	17
Massachusetts	310	145	85	277	206	28	290	114	212	52	1,719	172
Rhode Island	50	13	13	29	30	4	31	42	23	12	247	25
Connecticut	40	18	23	36	48	4	31	18	63	13	294	29
New York	143	**159**	91	211	210	29	228	117	**611**	326	2,127	213
New Jersey	40	27	35	23	41	13	12	16	65	**969**	1,241	124
Pennsylvania	81	28	121	108	242	23	99	76	178	323	1,279	128
South Atlantic Division.												
Delaware	1	.....	4	.....	3	1	2	5	6	8	30	3
Maryland	5	1	10	8	17	3	7	13	49	45	158	16
District of Columbia	30	4	7	12	32	13	21	10	35	24	188	18
Virginia	6	3	3	2	18	12	2	8	2	24	82	8
West Virginia	15	2	3	8	6	6	27	49	20	37	173	17
North Carolina	3	4	.....	2	8	12	2	13	17	15	76	8
South Carolina	5	1	1	2	13	22	4	18	14	52	132	13
Georgia	11	1	2	10	16	43	23	31	163	64	364	36
Florida	1	.....	1	.....	.....	16	7	4	3	2	34	3
South Central Division.												
Kentucky	33	2	8	151	22	114	39	57	42	128	596	60
Tennessee	12	6	5	62	83	**607**	97	124	57	124	1,177	118
Alabama	9	1	1	16	45	133	35	79	51	41	401	40
Mississippi	7	1	2	7	10	87	44	42	36	20	256	26
Louisiana	3	7	8	11	7	19	13	25	21	35	149	15
Texas	22	1	15	55	29	89	20	53	9	82	375	38
Arkansas	22	.....	8	67	12	29	12	34	33	25	242	24
North Central Division.												
Ohio	121	43	67	581	225	60	361	355	178	900	2,981	298
Indiana	54	15	46	418	71	89	206	149	65	258	1,371	137
Illinois	354	33	164	**1750**	222	204	625	666	214	871	5,103	510
Michigan	77	12	30	273	40	29	137	259	285	155	1,257	126
Wisconsin	**546**	18	18	486	57	28	443	222	72	143	2,003	200
Iowa	304	18	87	1,146	96	67	572	278	110	164	2,842	284
Minnesota	132	9	11	649	58	16	**933**	118	54	86	2,066	207
Missouri	46	11	73	625	133	68	249	320	189	435	2,149	215
North Dakota	23	1	5	149	8	7	99	32	16	8	517	52
South Dakota							109	31	20	9		
Nebraska	39	5	27	634	40	10	147	220	126	127	1,375	138
Kansas	16	11	**190**	960	124	64	275	283	127	111	2,156	216
Western Division.												
Montana	3	1	1	9	4	5	37	24	9	3	96	10
Wyoming	1	2	2	8	8	.....	5	13	4	2	45	5
Colorado	12	2	11	40	109	8	56	114	59	58	469	47
New Mexico	.....	.....	.....	2	26	2	1	7	5	.....	43	4
Arizona	.....	.....	.....	1	45	1	1	.....	2	2	52	5
Utah	.....	1	3	4	127	.....	.....	10	8	4	157	16
Nevada	1	....	1	6	134	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	143	14
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	4	4	.....
Indian Territory	3	1	.....	1	8	6	1	3	4	1	27	3
Idaho	.....	.....	1	.....	12	.....	.....	.....	1	1	15	2
Washington	1	.....	1	3	27	1	6	18	1	2	60	6
Oregon	3	1	1	11	204	8	7	5	5	.....	245	25
California	5	.....	4	18	**4278**	13	8	5	10	1	4,342	434
Miscellaneous	11	.....	.....	143	16	.....	.....	5	3	2	9	1
Canada	.....	1	.....	12	20	1	45	**650**	48	41	818	82
Total membership	2,731	624	1,197	9,086	7,220	1,984	5,474	4,778	3,390	5,915	.....	4,240

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