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Sarah Austin

• **REPORT**
ON THE STATE OF
PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
IN
PRUSSIA.

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R E P O R T

ON THE STATE OF

• PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

IN

PRUSSIA;

ADDRESSED TO

THE COUNT DE MONTALIVET,

PEER OF FRANCE, MINISTER OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION AND
ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS;

BY

M. VICTOR COUSIN,

PEER OF FRANCE, COUNCILLOR OF STATE, PROFESSOR OF PHILOSOPHY,
MEMBER OF THE INSTITUTE, AND OF THE ROYAL
COUNCIL OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

~~And~~ ~~with~~ ~~plans~~

WITH PLANS OF SCHOOL-HOUSES.

TRANSLATED BY

SARAH AUSTIN.

LONDON:

EFFINGHAM WILSON, ROYAL EXCHANGE ⁿ⁻ ^{luar-}

1834.

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“Oh! for the coming of that glorious time
When, prizing knowledge as her noblest wealth
And best protection, this imperial realm,
While she exacts allegiance, shall admit
An obligation, on her part, to *teach*
Them who are born to serve her and obey;
Binding herself by statute to secure,
For all the children whom her soil maintains,
The rudiments of letters; and to inform
The mind with moral and religious truth!”

WORDSWORTH, *Excursion*, p. 400.

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TRANSLATOR'S PREFACE.

CONSIDERABLY before the following Report was published it was my most earnest wish to translate it. I was told by persons to whose judgement I habitually defer, that it would not succeed,—that it would excite little attention, and that the few who were sufficiently interested in the subject to toil through official documents, would as willingly read it in the original. To this opinion I reluctantly yielded. Since that time circumstances have materially changed. The Factory Commission, the Poor Law Commission, and other public and private inquiries, have tended more and more to reveal the extent and urgency of our own intellectual and moral wants; while the perfect and harmonious picture of a system of education in full activity among a whole people differing in religion, laws, language, and habits, which M. Gousin had laid before France, has attracted the attention of enlightened and benevolent men, and has been mentioned with the profound admiration due both to the system and to the author of the Report, in all the foremost journals of the country *, in the pulpit, and in the senate.

These cheering symptoms of a general ten-

* Vide *Foreign Quarterly Review*, *Edinburgh Review*, *Quarterly Review*, *Eclectic Review*, *Journal of Education*, &c.

dency of the public mind of England towards the subject of National Education, have been watched with solicitude and hailed with delight by all who are impressed with its importance; by none with so much, as by M. Cousin himself; who, highly as he estimates the approbation of England, will think his reward far higher, if the labours he has devoted to his native country shall turn to the profit of her true and energetic ally in the cause of human improvement.

- I have translated this book in the hope that by placing it within the reach of those to whom not only the language, but the size and price of the original, might prove obstacles, it might excite the notice of the classes most deeply interested in its diffusion. With that hope I have laboured to make it as plain as I could; and though as a translation it can have no other merit, I will not disguise that, on this head, I am most anxious to find I have succeeded. If not, I must plead in my own defence that nothing is so difficult as to find, in the language of one country, words expressing the laws, institutions, and usages of another.

I offer it to no one as an amusing book; and even while I say I hope I have made it plain, I mean only to the patient reader who will go through it. There is such a coherency of parts, both in the fabric it describes and in the description, that no one will fully understand it who cannot bear the toil of following the author step by step. Portions may be selected which show the beautiful spirit pervading the whole,

and which must, I should think, touch any human heart ; but its merit as a piece of legislation,—as a system living and working,—can only be appreciated when studied connectedly and in detail.

The reasons that have influenced me (with the author's concurrence,) to omit the Report on Royal and Ducal Saxony, which forms nearly half of the original volume, are mainly two: First, the consideration mentioned above, that it was only by making a small and cheap volume that I could accomplish the end I chiefly aimed at ; secondly, that the part I have omitted embraces Secondary Instruction, or the education given in the Gymnasia (*i. e.* learned or grammar schools) of Saxony, and also the still higher department of Universities. M. Cousin was of opinion that it would be well not to divert any portion of public attention from the subject of Primary Instruction, *i. e.* that education which is absolutely necessary to the moral and intellectual well-being of the mass of the people. This alone is treated of here. If it should appear that the English public desires to hear more on this matter, I may perhaps, unless it happily fall into better hands, prepare, under M. Cousin's direction, a volume on Secondary Instruction, including what he has already published on the learned schools of Saxony, and adding matter upon which he is at present occupied. But this will depend on the reception given to the present attempt.

Whether it be done or not, I entreat the reader never to lose sight of the fact, that what is here

laid before him, although having in relation to its special object a substantive completeness, is still only a part of a whole, and that it is *as a whole* that the national education of Prussia is so peculiarly worthy of admiration and of study. The introductory view of the "General Organization" &c. (see p. 4.) gives the outline, of which the first portion alone is, for the present, filled up.

Constituted as the government of this country is, and accustomed as it is to receive its impulses from without, (a state of things approved and consecrated by the national ways of thinking,) it would be contrary to reason and to experience to expect it to originate any great changes. This is not recognised, either by governors or governed, as any part of its duty. It is to the public mind, therefore, that those who desire any change must address themselves.

It is not worth while at the present day to discuss whether or not national education be a good. It is possible to imagine a state of society in which the labouring man, submissive and contented under some paternal rule, might dispense with any further light than such as nature, uncorrupted by varied wants and restless competition, might afford him. But if that golden age ever existed, it is manifestly gone, in this country at least, for ever. Here, the press is hotter, the strife keener, the invention more alive, the curiosity more awake, the wants and wishes more stimulated by an atmosphere of luxury, than perhaps in any country since the world began. The men who, in their several

classes, were content to tread step for step in the paths wherein their fathers trod, are gone. Society is no longer a calm current, but a tossing sea. Reverence for tradition, for authority, is gone. In such a state of things, who can deny the absolute necessity for national education?

Supposing, however, all agreed as to this first point. How many weighty and difficult questions still remain! How many obstacles present themselves, to the adoption of that which here stands before us, not in theory and conjecture, but in tried and successful practice! It may be useful to consider a few of these objections.

And first, as to compulsory education. The idea to which I have alluded above—that the prime excellence of a government is, to let alone,—is so deeply and universally prevalent here, that there is little chance of a measure, however beneficent, being popular, which is, unquestionably, an infringement of liberty. Leaving, however, the question whether exemption from restraint is, of itself, the great *desideratum* for *men*, we may safely affirm, that for the class most deeply interested in the present inquiry—*children*, no such exemption is, or can be, contemplated or advised. The real point at issue is, whether the constraint shall be a salutary or a pernicious constraint; a constraint by which their whole future lives are sacrificed to the present interests of the persons who have the disposal of them; or a constraint, the object and tendency of which is to secure to them for life the blessings of physical, moral, and intellectual health. “If

children," says the writer of the excellent article in the *Foreign Quarterly Review* (No. XXIV.), "provided their own education; and could be sensible of its importance to their happiness, it would be a *want*, and might be left to the natural demand and supply; but as it is provided by the parents, and paid for by those who do not profit by its results, it is a *duty*, and is therefore liable to be neglected."

The interference which government has lately exercised on behalf of the children of the manufacturing population, has, however, settled the question as one of principle*. It is no longer

* The right of the state to interpose to rescue children from influences believed to be detrimental to their moral and intellectual character, has also been twice formally recognised and proclaimed in the Court of Chancery, within our own time. In *Wellesley v. the Duke of Beaufort*, (2 Russell's Reports, p. 1,) Lord Eldon distinctly declared the general jurisdiction of the Court of Chancery to interfere, as against the father, for the care and protection of the children. It can, however, only usefully interfere where there is property belonging to the infants on which it can act. "*It is not, however, from any want of jurisdiction that it does not act, but from a want of means to exercise its jurisdiction; because the Court cannot take on itself the maintenance of all the children in the kingdom.*" p. 21. . . . "I was counsel in the case of *Powell v. Cleaver*, (2 Brown's Chancery Cases, p. 499,) and Lord Thurlow would not allow us to argue the question of jurisdiction; and perhaps he was right. *He said that the Court would take care that children should be properly educated according to their expectations.*" p. 22. See, likewise, the same report, pp. 23—31: also, in *Jacob's Reports*, p. 267, *Shelley v. Westbrook*, in which case Lord Eldon restrained the father from taking possession of, or intermeddling with, his children. In these cases, be it observed, the state claims the right of removing the children wholly out of the power of the parent;—an extreme application of the principle, to be justified only by the supposed extremity of the evil. It will hardly be contended that the paternal authority is subject to abuse in the higher classes alone.

anything but a question of degree ; for, if the right of parents over their children can be invaded for the purpose of securing to children an exemption from one class of evils, it can in averting another ; and, according to all sound reasoning, it ought, if those evils be shown to be of sufficient magnitude to claim interference. It is irrational to expect that persons who have not had the advantages of education, can form any estimate of the nature and extent of those advantages. "Persons," says the able writer just quoted, "of uncultivated and torpid minds are not aware to what an extent education can raise, enlarge, and stimulate the understanding ; in how great a measure it ensures a person's happiness, and makes him both independent of the world and a safe and peaceable member of society." Here and there we find an individual to whom strong good sense and a lively curiosity reveal the magnitude of his want ; but a man has already got beyond the first rudeness and apathy of ignorance who longs for knowledge. Are, then, the rudeness and apathy of the fathers a reason for transmitting them unaltered to the children ? Or, to go higher, are the false notions, the useless acquirements, the imperfect instruction, of the ill-educated of the wealthier sort, a reason that, because they are satisfied with themselves, an enlightened government should permit the same waste and destruction of moral and intellectual faculties to go on from generation to generation ?

To those who are influenced by precedent, I

am thankful to be enabled to give the following facts, for which I am indebted to a gentleman to whom M. Cousin looks for all the assistance in the great cause of education that profound and learned acquaintance with the subject, united to ardent zeal, can afford.

“I have always been astonished that no researches have been made by any German into the antiquity of *Schulpflichtigkeit* (school-obligation, *i. e.* the obligation of going to school), in the several states of the empire. The only work I know that touches on the subject is that of J. K. F. Schlegel, “*Ueber Schulpflichtigkeit und Schulzwang*,” (school-compulsion,) &c. 1824: but this only regards the Hanoverian dominions. From that book I learn that this obligation is *at least* as old as 1681 in the Principality of Calenberg; as 1689 in that of Celle; as 1663 in the Principality of Hildesheim; as 1752 in the Duchy of Bremen and Verden. From other sources I find that it is at least as old as 1643 in Saxe-Gotha; as 1767 in Lippe-Detmold; as 1769 in Prussia. It has long been enforced in New England and Connecticut; and for the gentry, barons and freeholders of Scotland, there is an Act of the Scottish parliament compelling them to send their sons to the grammar schools, as far back as the fifteenth century,—1466 if I recollect right.”

This may serve to correct the erroneous notion prevalent here (among a host of others on the same subject), that the legal obligation to educate children is a modern invention of the ‘military and despotic government’ of Prussia. It is desirable that it should be distinctly understood, that though the following Report relates to Prussia alone, the provision for popu-

lar education is by no means peculiar to that country. It is also common to speak of popular education as entirely the offspring of the Reformation, and as, if not peculiar to the Protestant States, at least carried to a much higher pitch in them than in the Catholic States.

“There is,” says the high authority whom I have just quoted, “no truth in this, in a general sense; and, on a particular comparison, in none of the Catholic States would the people be found so neglected in this respect as in Hesse-Cassel, and even in Hanover; and the *Kingdom* of Saxony, preeminent for *classical* education, is far behind Bavaria and Austria in *popular* instruction. The Germans give, as an instance of the low state of primary education in Royal Saxony, (the case is very different in the Duchies,) that the places of schoolmasters are there commonly filled by mere candidates of theology. In Scotland we should think this qualification very high.”

The best answer, however, to those who urge the supposed hardship to parents of being obliged to educate their children, is to be found in the Supplement at the end of the present volume, published last year, in which it is shown, from indisputable documents, “that the parents of Prussia actually *anticipate* the period at which the legal constraint begins: that the number of children attending the public schools in 1831, actually *exceeded* the whole number of children existing in the monarchy, between the ages of seven and fourteen,—the period prescribed by law. And out of this latter number we have to deduct all who are educated at home, at private schools, all who are sick, &c.

Another misconception which appears to me common in this country is, that the system of national education delineated by M. Cousin, is some new plan or mode of teaching. I have even seen objections made to it in print, on the score of the tyranny of compelling parents to educate children on this or that 'method' approved by government. It might seem sufficient to refer such objectors to the book, but unfortunately this process is tedious, and in the mean while the reader, who supposes they are acquainted with what they discuss, is misled. Not only (as will be seen in this Report,) is every parent at full liberty to educate his children either in his own house, or at a private school, or at the schools provided by the state; but these latter schools are not even bound to any particular books, or modes of tuition; "in order," as the law expresses it, "to impose no shackles on the constant onward course of improvement," (See pp. 58, 59). The choice of books is left to the masters and the local committees appointed by government for the immediate superintendence of schools, and consisting chiefly of fathers of families resident in the parish which supports the school. The conferences of schoolmasters, which, though voluntary, are encouraged by the government, are also for the express purpose of comparing their views and their experience, and thus carrying forward the improvement of the schools. Whenever a choice of schools is within the reach of parents, that choice is left perfectly free, (p. 34.); and on the grand subject of religious differences, it will be seen, that nothing can

exceed the anxious care of the government that the most delicate conscience should not be even alarmed, much less oppressed (pp. 34, 36, 43, 52). "Masters and inspectors," says the law, "must most carefully avoid every kind of constraint or annoyance to the children on account of their particular creed," &c.

It has been asserted by some persons, with an ignorance which, if it be sincere, is so shameless that it almost deserves to be confounded with dishonesty; that the tendency of the system recommended by M. Cousin is anti-religious. To this, every page of the book is an answer. Indeed, were I to express a fear on this head, it is, that it is far too religious for this country; that the lofty, unworldly tone of feeling, the spirit of veneration, the blending of the love of God and of the Good and the Beautiful with all the practical business and the amusements of life, is what will hardly be understood here, where religion is so much more disjoined both from the toils and from the gaieties of life. To me it appears that there is not a line of these enactments which is not profoundly religious. Nothing, it is true, is enjoined as to forms or creeds; but, as M. Cousin truly says, "the whole fabric rests on the sacred basis of Christian love." As the most affecting, and, I must say, sublime example of this spirit, I refer my readers—especially the humbler and, as I hope, more numerous class of them,—to the description of the little schools for training poor schoolmasters in such habits and with such feelings as shall fit them to be the useful

and contented teachers of the humblest cottagers of the most miserable villages. (See pp. 171, 177.)

Here is poverty, to which that of many among our working classes is affluence ; and it is *hopeless*, for no idea is held out of advancement or change. Yet if ever poverty appeared on earth, serene, contented, lofty, beneficent, graceful—it is here. Here we see men in the very spring-time of life, so far from being made—as we are told men *must* be made—restless and envious and discontented by instruction, taking indigence and obscurity to their hearts for life ; raised above their poor neighbours in education, only that they may become the servants of all, and may train the lowliest children in a sense of the dignity of man, and the beauty of creation, in the love of God and of virtue.

I confess myself almost hopeless of the transplantation of such sentiments hither. Religion is made the theme of the fiercest and most implacable contention ; mixed up with newspaper squabbles and with legal discussions ; her bright and holy garments are seized and soiled by every angry and ambitious hand.

It seems to me, too, that we are guilty of great inconsistency as to the ends and objects of education. How industriously have not its most able and zealous champions been continually instilling into the mind of the people, that education is the way to advancement, that “knowledge is power,” that a man cannot ‘better himself’ without some learning ! And then we complain, or we fear, that education will set

them above their station, disgust them with labour, make them ambitious, envious, dissatisfied ! We must reap as we sow : we set before their eyes objects the most tempting to the desires of uncultivated men, we urge them on to the acquirement of knowledge by holding out the hope that knowledge will enable them to grasp these objects :—if their minds are corrupted by the nature of the aim, and imbittered by the failure which *must* be the lot of the mass, who is to blame ?

If instead of nurturing expectations which cannot be fulfilled, and turning the mind on a track which must lead to a sense of continual disappointment, and thence of wrong, we were to hold out to our humbler friends the appropriate and attainable, nay, unfailing, ends of a good education ;—the gentle and kindly sympathies ; the sense of self-respect and of the respect of fellow men ; the free exercise of the intellectual faculties ; the gratification of a curiosity that ‘ grows by what it feeds on ’ and yet finds food for ever ; the power of regulating the habits and the business of life, so as to extract the greatest possible portion of comfort out of small means ; the refining and tranquillizing enjoyment of the beautiful in nature and art, and the kindred perception of the beauty and nobility of virtue ; the strengthening consciousness of duty fulfilled ; and, to crown all, “ the peace which passeth all understanding ; ”—if we directed their aspirations this way, it is probable that we should not have to complain of being disappointed, nor they of being deceived. Who can say that

wealth can purchase better things than these? and who can say that they are not within the reach of every man of sound body and mind, who, by labour not destructive of either, can procure for himself and his family food, clothing and habitation?

It is true, the same motives, wearing different forms, are presented to all classes. 'Learn,' that you may '*get on*,' is the motto of English education. The result is answerable. To those who think that result satisfactory, a change in the system, and above all in the spirit, of education holds out no advantages.

There are two or three other points which I would fain recommend to the peculiar attention of the reader. One of the most important is the absolute necessity of securing a constant supply of well-trained schoolmasters. Time and experience have, it is to be supposed, nearly removed the illusion of 'mutual instruction' as a substitute for the instruction communicated by a mature to an immature mind:—as an auxiliary in certain mechanical details, no one disputes its utility. Observation long ago convinced me of the entire truth of the maxim laid down by the Prussian government, and approved by M. Cousin, that, 'As is the master, so is the school.' On this subject I cannot refrain from quoting a German writer in whose opinion I fully concur.

> "Such schools (the Lancasterian) are undoubtedly of use in countries like France*, where almost nothing, or England, where nothing, systematic and adequate, has been done for the education of the

* This was written before the late improvements in France.

people ; but they can never be more than a temporary shift, which cannot be taken as a substitute for education. They can do no more than give a certain mechanical dexterity, in reading, writing, and ciphering. The religious instruction is confined to a soulless learning by rote. Instruction in language, singing, drawing, and in exercises of the intellect are wholly wanting. The influence of the teacher on the mind and character of the scholar, or his own mental cultivation, are not so much as thought of. Thus, then, a system of tuition, the lifeless mechanism of which was fifty years ago appreciated in Germany, and laid aside for methods better calculated for the true culture of man, has been adopted by France, England, &c., with an ardour which betrays total ignorance of the advance of the science of education in Germany. The village schoolmasters of Germany do much more to form the minds of their pupils than Lancaster and Bell can do ; and no German who knows what his country possesses, can recommend a system of teaching, which may indeed be of use in humanizing the lowest mob of England or of France, but where men and Christians are to be formed, is defective and ill contrived."

A system of education is nothing without an unfailing supply of competent masters. It is the fashion to apply the 'free-trade' maxims to everything. Reasons enough present themselves why such maxims are wholly inapplicable to this matter, but there is no room for them here. It may, once for all, safely be denied, that the public can be judges of the quality of teachers, as they are of bread or of shoes. To this the hundreds of children in the middle classes, whose whole childhood is consumed in experimental wanderings from school to school, and the thousands and ten thousands of the

lower, whose parents know little more than the fact that they pass a certain number of hours daily in a given room, can bear witness. The evil is an irreparable one. Not only is the portion of time consumed in a bad or imperfect school irrecoverably gone; bad habits of all kinds are acquired, which no future education can entirely eradicate. The candid and rational among the less educated classes are glad to be aided by the friendly judgement of their more instructed neighbours on this point; and would, I doubt not, readily admit the advantage of having some better security than their own opinion, or rather conjecture, for the competency of the instructors of their children.

In every country where primary instruction has been carried to any height, the necessity of establishments of this kind has been felt. In spite of the length of this preface, I cannot resist the temptation to add the following curious and valuable details on the history of Seminaries for Teachers, for which I have again to acknowledge my obligations to the learned author of the article on National Education, which appeared in the *Edinburgh Review* (No. CXVI.), and which first called the attention of England to M. Cousin's Report.

“It might be worth while to say a word touching the history of institutions for the training of teachers, in particular for the training of primary instructors; as the state of these institutions, in fact, determines the state of education itself among the people. In this country, the greatest ignorance prevails on the subject, even among the best informed.

“Even now these institutions are believed to be of very recent origin in Germany; it has been, in fact, asserted that they were introduced into Prussia only after their utility had been long shown by Fellenberg at Hofwyl, and considerably, therefore, subsequently to the commencement of the present century. There is no history of these seminaries in any German work with which I am acquainted. The following details are gleaned from various quarters; though meagre, they may supply you with some hints, and I believe you may rely on their accuracy.

“Schools specially destined for educating the schoolmaster in the principles and application of his profession, cannot be traced higher than the commencement of the last century. Franke, the celebrated pietist, must be regarded as their originator. Beside his noble foundations of the Pædagogium and Orphan-House of Halle, stood a seminary for the instruction of teachers, whether of learned or popular schools; and under Steinmetz, and his successors in that abbacy, Klosterberge, near Magdeburg, was long a nursery from whence schoolmasters trained in the principles of Franke and the spirit of Spenerian pietism, were transplanted over the whole north of Germany. The education and the educator now became an object of general interest in Germany. From 1730 academical lectures on *Pädagogik* appear to have been regularly and universally delivered; and for philologists by profession, and those destined for teachers in the classical or learned schools, special seminaries, in which the stipendiary alumni were carefully instructed and exercised, gradually became attached to all the principal universities. Overlooking the *Seminarium doctrinæ elegantioris* of Cellarius in Halle, the *Philological and Scholastic Seminary* of Göttingen, which owes its origin to Gesner, in 1738, was the first regular institution of the kind; an institu-

tion imitated in Jena, Halle, Erlangen, Helmstädt, Leipzig, Heidelberg, Kiel, Breslau, Berlin, Munich, Dorpat, &c. The beneficial results of the seminaries for learned teachers naturally directed an increased attention to the education of the inferior instructors. In Prussia, the meritorious Hecker, a pupil of the Frankean discipline, and first founder of the schools variously denominated *Burgher*, *Middle* or *Real*, had supported at Berlin, from the year 1748, a sort of nursery of popular instructors, in which Frederick II. testified an interest. In 1752 a royal ordinance enjoined, that on the crown demesnes in the Neu Mark and Pomerania, all vacancies in the country schools should be supplied by pupils from Hecker's seminary, the king at the same time allowing an annual stipend for the support of twelve alumni of that establishment; a number which in 1788 was raised to sixty. Basedow had the merit, at least, of concentrating public interest on the importance of improved methods of education, although his seminary for teachers was never brought to bear; but the Canon von Rochow was the man who mainly operated a reform in the instruction of the people, and proved, by precept and example, the advantages of a more careful education of the primary schoolmaster. The school on his own estate of Rekahn, in Brandenburg, and those on the adjoining properties, were organized under his direction. Hither travellers from all parts flocked to admire and imitate; in fact, from 1773 these became the model schools to which young men from every quarter of Germany were sent to be trained in the principles and practice of primary instruction. The good example operated. In Prussia, previous to the period of revolution, public seminaries for the education of inferior schoolmasters were established, at Halberstadt in 1778, and at Breslau in 1787; while similar establishments were supported by private liberality,—in

Wesel by the Baron von der Reck, and in Minden by the Pastor Herbing. During the subsequent years of calamity and war, the determination previously given was necessarily retarded. In 1806 there existed in Prussia only fourteen of the greater public seminaries for primary schoolmasters. These are now nearly quadrupled.

"The other states of Germany have not, however, lagged behind the country in which these institutions originated; and the lesser states have been even more forward than the greater. Though far inferior to most of the German principalities in the education of the lower orders, Hanover has one of her seminaries for the training of primary schoolmasters which dates from 1750. Previous to the French revolution, there existed similar flourishing establishments in Usingen, Dessau, Cassel, Detmold, Gotha, Oehringen, and Kiel. Nor were the catholic states less active than the protestant in the same blessed work. In the Austrian monarchy, the improvement of popular education, and the general institution of normal schools, were mainly promoted by the zeal of two eminent churchmen, Bishop von Felbiger and Dean Kindermann von Schulstein (an auspicious name!). Their exertions date from 1770, and the reform was commenced in Bohemia. In the bishopric of Münster the spirit of improvement was awakened by the Baron von Fürstenberg, and seminaries for schoolmasters established prior to the French revolution. The Bavarian reform was more recent. The spirit of amelioration was communicated from Germany to the neighbouring states. Denmark became an early imitator; and seminaries for primary teachers were introduced, not only into Holstein, but into the Scandinavian provinces of that monarchy, previous to the revolutionary period. Russia has more recently followed the example. Switzerland has been tardy and partial in her adoption of these institutions. Some

only of the cantons have them even now, notwithstanding the strong interest in education awakened by the zeal of Pestalozzi and Fellenberg."

It is almost humiliating to have to notice another objection to this scheme of national education,—viz. that it is foreign: an objection which, if carried through and acted upon consistently, would render the intercourse between civilized nations absolutely barren. But since there are, it seems, still persons with whom it has weight, it may be well to quote M. Cousin's striking appeal against similar prejudices in France.

"National rivalries or antipathies would here be completely out of place. The true greatness of a people does not consist in borrowing nothing from others, but in borrowing from all whatever is good, and in perfecting whatever it appropriates. I am as great an enemy as any one to artificial imitations; but it is mere pusillanimity to reject a thing for no other reason than that it has been thought good by others." p. 292.

The difficulty of conveying an accurate idea of a number of things for which we have no equivalent, in fact or in name, suggested to me the expediency of annexing a few explanatory notes. It will hardly be expected from me that they should be otherwise than very defective, but they are better than nothing. Some I owe to the kindness of German and French friends; some are taken from Voigtel's *Statistik von Preussen*, a work of established credit, and from a very intelligent and interesting little French pamphlet on Prussia, by M. de Chambray.

London, April 10th, 1834.

S. A,

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

PAGE 1.—*Public Instruction, (Instruction publique).*—I am aware that National Education is the more common English expression, and therefore preferable. It may also be objected that *public*, as applied to schools, has with us a totally different sense from that intended here, viz. *instruction provided for the whole public by the State*. But the French words are precisely a translation of the German, *Oeffentlicher Unterricht*. The exact equivalent of *education* is *Erziehung*, i.e. bringing up: the constant use of this word, when *instruction* is meant, leads to great confusion and to very important errors. Besides, as schools founded upon a peculiarly exclusive plan had somehow got the name of National, the expression National Education, might have led to some confusion.

Ecclesiastical affairs, (les cultes,)—i. e. all that concerns the teaching, or public exercise of religion.

PAGES 2, 57.—A *Gymnasium* is about equivalent to our *Grammar-school*, only the course of instruction is more extensive, as well as in many respects more profound. If this volume should ever be followed by one on secondary and higher instruction, the nature of a gymnasium will be seen in detail.

PAGE 12.—I thought at first of interpreting the *Gemeinde*, *Kreis*, and *Regierungs-Bezirk* of Prussia by our Parish, Hundred, and County. But this would only mislead, for they are not alike. So far as *Gemeinde* goes, I have, after some consultation, ventured to use *parish* as an equivalent expression; for though, etymologically speaking, it is not so, and though Parish is in its origin a purely ecclesiastical, and not an administrative division, yet, in fact, its administrative powers are as large, or rather considerably larger, than those

of either the *Gemeinde* of Prussia, or the *Commune* of France. The word which exactly answers to Parish, in its original sense, is the kindred word *Pfarre*, but this is used only in relation to the Church; as with us a parish may also be called a rectory, a vicarage, &c. "*Gemeine* or *Gemeinde*, originally means any community of persons. It is now chiefly used to express the smallest divisions of Church and State, the two most important communities in the world. Town- or village-*Gemeinen* have, as parts of the State, their *Bürgermeister* or *Schulze*; as parts of the Church, their *Pfarrer* (priest or clergyman)."—See Krug, Phil. Lex. The smallest purely administrative division of England is a Township.

The territorial divisions of England are not the consequences of a legislative act of any single governing body: they are the effect of the ancient partition of the country among powerful chiefs. The counties were their *shires* or *shares* (for it is the same word) of territory. Thus Berkshire is a corruption of *Beroc's share*,—the share of Beroc, a powerful chieftain. These shares, of course, varied according to the accidents of warfare and aggrandizement, and retain strong traces of the independence of a central government, which was their original character. It is therefore extremely difficult to find any parallel in the countries systematically divided by a central government. The parishes of England vary in population from one family to the number of souls inhabiting Manchester, Liverpool, or Marylebone. The same great inequality exists in the extent and population of our counties. This inequality is peculiar to a country in which, while society has undergone the greatest and most rapid changes, institutions have remained unaltered. The average population of English parishes is, I believe, 1480: the average of French *communes*, 850. I have not been able to find the average population of Prussian *Gemeinde*. The population of a *Regierungs-Bezirk* of Prussia varies from about 150,000 to about 900,000, so that the average is very nearly that of a *Département* or *Préfecture* of France. As M. Cousin's illustrations of Prussian institutions are, of course, borrowed from France, it becomes necessary to know something of the French divisions or institutions to which he refers. I am indebted to a French gentleman, now in England, for the following brief and clear statement, which I think will be valued by my readers.

1. A **COMMUNE** is in France what a parish is in England, the administrative unit. It consists of an indeterminate number of inhabitants and a variable extent of territory. Its circumference or boundaries are defined by law. There is a *Maire* for every *Commune*.

2. A **CANTON** generally comprises several rural *Communes*; but the large towns usually contain more than one *Canton*. The *Canton* is the circuit of the jurisdiction of the *Juge de Paix* (*Justice of the Peace*). The average population is 18,000.

3. An **ARRONDISSEMENT** is composed of an indeterminate number of *Communes*. It is an intermediate step in administrative division between the *Département* and the *Commune*. There are ordinarily from four to six *Arrondissemens* in each *Département*. The average population is 100,000.

4. A **DÉPARTEMENT** is the largest administrative division of France. There is in each *Département* one Prefect, appointed by the Minister, who exercises a general superintendence over all the interests, political or administrative, connected with the territory of the department. The circumscription of the *Départemens* may be compared to that of English counties. The average population is 480,000.

5. The **MAIRIE** expresses, at the same time, the function or office of the magistrate of a *Commune*, and the extent of his jurisdiction.

6. The **PRÉFECTURE** is to the *Département* what the *Mairie* is to the *Commune*. It signifies, 1st, the function of Prefect; 2nd, the territorial circuit over which those functions extend.

7. The **CONSEIL DE DÉPARTEMENT** (Departmental Council) is a council nominated by certain electors, to manage various affairs of the department. Its principal object is the distribution or assessment of the rates or taxes among the *Arrondissemens* and *Communes*. It meets only once a-year at the time determined by a royal ordinance.

8. The **CONSEIL MUNICIPAL** is a council nominated by certain electors of each *Commune*, which superintends and administers the affairs of the *Commune*.

9. The **COLLÈGE COMMUNAL** is a school instituted in certain towns, in a building belonging to the town, or provided by it. The Professors, though nominated by the Minister of Public Instruction, are paid out of the funds of the *Commune*; and the Principal or Director, also nominated by the Minister, generally receives from the *Commune* an allowance for the expenses of the maintenance of the material part of the establishment. The course of instruction in these *Collèges*, of which there are about 300 in France, is restricted to certain branches.

10. The **COLLÈGE ROYAL** is under the more special management of the Government. The Director and the Professors are paid out of the funds of the nation. The whole administration of the Royal *Collèges* is conducted at the charge of the State. The course of instruction is of a higher and more extensive character than that in the communal *Collèges*. The education begun in them is carried on in the royal *Collèges*. There are 40 royal *Collèges*.

11. The **ACADÉMIE UNIVERSITAIRE** is, if we may use the expression, the Prefecture of Public Instruction. France is divided into 27 *Académies*. Each of these embraces, 1st, A certain course of education superior to that of the *Collèges Royaux*, and designated by the names of *Facultés*;—Faculties of Law, Theology, the Sciences, and Letters. [N.B. All these faculties are not united in every *Académie*.] 2nd, One or two royal *Collèges*. 3rd, A certain number of communal *Collèges*, of which the mean term or average is 11.

12. The **RECTEUR** is a functionary in every *Académie Universitaire*, placed at the head of public instruction. He is the medium between the Minister and the Managers or the Professors. He is charged with the supervision of the course of instruction and of the administration in every *Collège*.

13. The **INSPECTEURS** are special agents, whose business

it is, under the guidance of the *Recteur*, to go to examine on the spot the state of the tuition and of the management of each establishment. There are two in each *Académie Universitaire*.

I have collected the following parallel for Prussia where I could.

A **GEMEINDE** is the administrative unit of Prussia, as the *Commune* is of France, and the *Parish* or *Township* of England. The chief magistrate of each *Gemeinde* is the *Schulze*, whose functions are in some degree similar to those of the French *Maire*. The *Schulze* is assisted generally by two *Schöppen*. They form the village court of justice for the punishment of slight offences. The immediate superior of the *Schulze* is the *Landrath* or *Kreisdirector*.

A **KREIS** (circle) contains an indeterminate number of *Gemeinden*. There are 345 *Kreise* in the kingdom of Prussia. A *Kreis* contains on an average from thirty to forty thousand inhabitants. The chief magistrate is the *Kreisdirector* or *Landrath*, appointed by the Government. Under him are six Deputies of the *Kreis* chosen by the electors, who are taken in equal number from the owners of land and the inhabitants of the towns and rural parishes. Each of these classes sends two Deputies.

The *Landrath* is proposed by the Provincial States* (*Provinzial-Stände*), approved by the Council of Regency (*Regierungs-Collegium*), and appointed by the King.

A **REGIERUNGS-BEZIRK** contains a number of *Kreise* varying from four to twenty-two. There are 28 *Regierungen* in Prussia. The word *Regierung* is used to express both the district, and the body by which it is governed; more accurately called *Regierungs-Collegium*. This council or board consists of a president, vice-president, several councillors (*Regierungsräthe*), assessors, and other subordinate officers.

* The Provincial representation granted by the King in the year 1823.

A *PROVINZ* is the largest territorial division of Prussia. There are ten. The chief officer of the province is the *Oberpräsident*, (chief president,) who is appointed by Government. He presides over all matters common to the different Regencies in his province, and corresponds immediately with the central government. His functions may be compared in some respects to those of our Lords-Lieutenant of counties; in others, to those of our High Sheriffs; but, as a whole, his office is very different from either.

The average population of the provinces is about 1,300,000. Though for civil purposes divided into ten provinces, Prussia is also divided into seven great military Commandancies.

PAGES 18, 26, 83, &c.—*Schulvorstand*: I can find no better expression than Committee of Management. *Vorsteher* is to stand over, or rather, here, to be set over, for purposes of management and direction. We must carefully avoid confounding this Committee, appointed by Government and strictly responsible to the State, with the voluntary associations common here.

PAGES 44, &c.—*Cabinet-order*.—A *Cabinets-Ordre* is an edict issued immediately by the King. It is something like our Order in Council.

PAGES 51, &c.—It is to be observed, that both *Bürger*, citizen, and *Bauer*, countryman or farmer, have a definite civil meaning. A *Bürger* is not only an inhabitant of a town, but one who pays a certain amount of direct taxes. This amount varies according to the population and wealth of the towns. A *Bauer* is an inhabitant of the country possessing a certain income. A *Halb-bauer*, one who possesses half that income.

PAGES 66, 75, 184.—*Landwehr*.—In Prussia every man capable of bearing arms, (with certain exceptions specified by law) is called out into active service at the age of 20. These men compose the active, or to speak in our language, the standing army. After serving three years they return to their respective homes, and form the *Kriegs-Reserve* (war-reserve) till the age of 25. At 25 they are freed from active service and incorporated in the *Landwehr* of the first levy

(*Aufgebot*). In peace they receive no pay, except during their time of annual drill. Only the staff is regularly paid, and belongs to the active army, in which also it takes promotion. The Landwehr of the first levy is called out for exercise about a month in every year. At 32, the men pass into the second levy, in which they remain till the age of 39. The second levy is not called out to drill. In case of war, the Landwehr of the first levy acts with the regular troops. The second levy is confined to home service, and can only be marched against the enemy in case of imminent danger. This is the military organization of Prussia. It is no doubt burthensome, but when it is recollected that, with a population a third of that of France, Prussia has 150 German miles (about 700 English) more of frontier to guard, and hardly any coast, it may be regarded as simply defensive, and the inexorable condition of her existence. The evil, be it what it may, is distributed with inflexible impartiality over all classes, from the highest to the lowest. No money nor interest can purchase an exemption. Some mitigation of it also is found in the care taken by the Government to continue the education of the young men serving in the active army. During the whole season when the days are too short for afternoon drill, there is regular school at four o'clock, and they are instructed and exercised in reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, geometry, the history of Prussia, music, &c. The officers are bound, as one of them informed me, regularly to inspect the school.

PAGE 81.—*Rhenish Provinces*.—The distinction in the text is caused by the prevalence of a different code of laws in this part of the Prussian dominions. While it was annexed to France, the *Code Napoléon* became the law of the land. In old Prussia and all the rest of the monarchy the *Preussisches Landrecht* (Prussian law of the land) prevails. It was in contemplation to abolish the *Code Napoléon* and introduce the *Landrecht*, for the sake of establishing uniformity of judicial institutions throughout the monarchy. The people along the Rhine petitioned the King to be allowed to retain their actual laws. I happened to be in those provinces at the time (1827) his assent was received, and was witness to the rejoicing it occasioned. I was told by a judicial person there, that when the Berlin lawyers pleaded

for the introduction of the *Landrecht*, the King's characteristic answer was, "Very likely you are right, but you see the people do not like it."

PAGE 92.—*Evangelical Church*.—In the year 1817, the two great subdivisions of the Protestant Church in Prussia, the Lutherans and the Calvinists, (more commonly called, in the country, *Reformirte*) united themselves into one Church called the *Evangelische Kirche*. The King is a Calvinist, the majority of his subjects Lutherans. There are about 7,000,000 Protestants, 4,200,000 Catholics, and 170,000 of Jewish and other sects.

PAGE 303.—*Administration of the Poor's Fund*.—Every parish in Prussia is bound to provide for its own poor. In the country, the fund for relief is managed by the *Schulze*, subject to the control of the *Landrath* or *Kreisdirector*; in small towns by the *Bürgermeister*; and in larger towns, by a mixed body similar to the Courts of Guardians of the Poor in some cities of England. This body is subject to the control of the first section of the Regencies. The whole is subject to one of the two Ministers of the Interior.

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REPORT,

ADDRESSED TO

THE COUNT DE MONTALIVET,

PEER OF FRANCE,

MINISTER OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION AND ECCLESIASTICAL
AFFAIRS,

ON THE STATE OF
PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN PRUSSIA.

SIR,

Berlin, June 25th, 1831. •

HAVING arrived at this city on the 5th of June, •
and being compelled to return to Paris on the 20th
of July, at the latest, I hasten to give you some ac-
count of the information I have been enabled to ob-
tain as to the state of Public Instruction in the king-
dom of Prussia, during the short time allowed me.

I have the greatest satisfaction in assuring you of
the very flattering reception I have experienced, both
from the public and the government. I delivered
your letter to the Minister of Public Instruction and
Ecclesiastical Affairs, the Baron von Altenstein, and
I send you his answer.

B

I was acquainted with Baron von Altenstein before, but I was now enabled to judge more fully of the profoundness of his mind and the extent of his knowledge. He did me the honour to grant me two interviews, during which we went thoroughly and at great length into the highest and most delicate parts of his ministry; and, for the detail, he had the goodness to commission one of his confidential councillors to give me, not only every possible information, but whatever documents, whether printed or manuscript, I might desire. I had a conference of several hours daily with Mr. Schulze. Nothing that I had the least desire to know was concealed from me. The interior of this department of public business, and the most secret workings of the administration were laid open to me. Official documents were placed before me in abundance. In the morning Mr. Schulze showed me the laws, statutes and rules of the various establishments for public instruction; in the latter part of the day, he had the goodness to conduct me about those establishments; and as Berlin contains a university, numerous gymnasia, and every stage of primary-instruction, there is not a single portion of public instruction concerning which I have not been able to verify the ministerial assertions by my own observation and inquiry. I have also been to Potsdam with Mr. Schulze, to examine in detail the great Primary Normal School established there.

I am extremely grateful for the kindness of this

zealous and excellent functionary, who is thoroughly acquainted with every branch of the service; as well for that of the minister.

I invariably followed one course; first, to procure the laws or regulations, and render myself perfectly master of them; next, to verify them by an accurate and detailed inspection.

In this manner I have collected more than a hundred documents on every part of public instruction, together with my own observations. The following Report is framed upon these jointly.

I shall divide this Report into four sections. ●

1. General organization of public instruction.
2. Primary instruction.
3. Instruction of the second degree, or gymnasia.
4. Higher instruction, or universities.

This is the division I have followed hitherto. It is applicable to Prussia, as well as to the kingdom of Saxony, the duchy of Weimar, and the city of Frankfurt*. In each of these sections I shall give a correct statement of facts, and shall then add my own opinions and practical conclusions, according to the plan I have hitherto pursued.

* See M. Cousin's Report on the state of education in those states, which preceded the present document. ✓

SECTION I.

GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

IN proportion to the aggrandizement of a state, is the complication of the various branches of public instruction, and the importance of the central administration, or the direction which the whole may receive from the hand of government.

I have already had occasion to describe to you the gradual rise of this department of administration in dignity and importance, from the republic of Frankfurt to the kingdom of Saxony, where a central consistory presides over the various particular consistories, and is, in turn, subject to a high functionary, who has the title of minister, but only of *Minister of Conferences*. In Prussia, the minister of public instruction enjoys a rank and authority equal to those of any of his colleagues; the care of all affairs connected with the public exercise of religion falls also within his department, as in France; and as the secondary schools of medicine, and all establishments relative to public health, belong to this ministry, it bears the official denomination of Ministry of Public Instruction, of Ecclesiastical and Medical Affairs (*Ministerium des öffentlichen Unterrichts, der geistlichen- und medicinal-Angelegenheiten*).

In Prussia, as in other states, public instruction long formed a part of the business of the Minister of the Interior. It was not until 1819 that a spe-

cial department of administration was consecrated to this object, with Baron von Altenstein at its head. I regard this change as of the highest importance. In the first place the service is much better performed, there being more complete unity in the central point, from which all emanates and to which all is addressed; and the authority, being more cogent, is better obeyed. In the next place, the high rank assigned to the head of public instruction marks the respect in which everything relating to that important subject is held by the government; hence science assumes her proper place in the state. Civilization, the intellectual and moral interests of society, have their appointed ministry. This ministry embraces everything relating to science, and consequently all schools, libraries, and kindred institutions,—such as botanic gardens, museums, cabinets, the lower schools of surgery and medicine, academies of music, &c. Indeed it is perfectly natural that the minister who has the faculties of medicine under his control, should also direct the inferior schools and institutions relating to that science; that the minister who presides over the faculties of letters and science, should also preside over scientific and literary academies; that the minister who is the guardian of public instruction, should be guardian of the great collections and libraries, without which instruction is impossible.

Unquestionably all classification must be in some degree arbitrary; and there are consequently some establishments at Berlin and in the provinces, which

are claimed both by the minister of the interior and by the minister of public instruction. In general, however, the line of demarcation which separates their provinces is distinctly traced. The ministry of the interior, in principle, comprehends all those institutions which relate to the *application* of science, —to manufactures, commerce, public works, &c., even when instruction is connected with such institutions. The ministry of public instruction comprehends everything of a moral and intellectual character. All establishments which bear this character, from the highest to the lowest, even when they touch on those in the department of the minister of the interior, belong to the province of the minister of public instruction, and depend directly or indirectly on him. I am well aware, Sir, that this is not the case with us. The greater part of the institutions connected with art, science, and literature are not within the limits of your authority. I regret it extremely; not for the sake of the increase of that authority, but for the manifest interest of art, science, and letters, as well as for that of public education, which is thus, as it were, without a base, and deprived of the instruments it needs. My opinion on this head is known to you: it is founded on reasons I have often laid before you. I withhold them here, where my only business is to make you acquainted with the whole extent of the legal powers of the minister of public instruction in Prussia.

Here, as in France, the superintendence of ecclesiastical affairs is united to that of public instruc-

tion. This union is founded on the very nature of things, and on the relation of the two services, which touch at all points, and often are blended in the same persons ; many learned divines being useful professors, and the faculties of theology, which form an integral part of public instruction, being at the same time amenable to religious authority. God be praised, the affairs of religion are no longer consigned, as the arts are, to a place in the same department with manufactures and horse-breeding ; they have found their proper station by the side of science and letters. The functions of Baron von Altenstein, in Prussia, are in this respect precisely yours as minister of public instruction and ecclesiastical affairs.

It remains for me to show how this ministry is organized in its centre of action at Berlin.

The organization is the same which I have found everywhere from the time I entered Germany. A council, more or less numerous ; under a president, a director or a minister, according to the extent of the district. In fact, as I have elsewhere remarked *, this institution arises from the nature of things, and the necessities of the service.

In those departments in which the administration is, if I may so speak, rather material than moral, we can understand that a minister may do without a council ; but when his ministry is essentially moral, like that of public instruction, which requires not only attention to laws and regulations, but a mass of rare, various

* Letter V. On Education in Royal Saxony. See in the original *Rapport*, p. 119.

and profound knowledge, in which business almost always resolves itself into questions of science, it is evident that the minister must have the aid of councillors, to perpetuate the principles and the spirit which become traditionary in public bodies, and which a single and variable head might constantly overthrow; to make new rules or modify old ones; to aid the judgement of the minister as to what establishments to found, or what to suppress; above all, to guide him in the appreciation and the choice of men, and to serve as a rampart to ward off solicitation and intrigue. Let us suppose the best-intentioned minister; let us suppose that he has to make regulations for a faculty of theology, of law, of medicine, of science, or of letters, or to choose a professor for one of these faculties; suppose he has to decide some question of this kind, relating to things or to persons,—to whom is he to apply? To the faculty itself? But this were to check all progress; this were to constitute corporations, stagnant, because judges in their own cause; this were to nourish that *esprit de corps* so fatal to science, to abdicate the government, to renounce the right of judging for himself. Shall he apply to some celebrated individual? But this person, who is entirely irresponsible, may consult his own private views, his own peculiar system, or the interest of that branch of science for which he is personally distinguished. We may safely affirm that, in the end, solicitation, importunity, persistency will carry it. A thousand secret springs will be set in motion about the minister; recommendations from

above, intrigues from below ; in all directions, irresponsible and extraneous influences will surround and prevail over him. I have already said, and I repeat with the fullest conviction, that unchecked ministerial power is desired only by intriguing mediocrity, which despairs of deceiving a council composed of men versed in all parts of the service. Without doubt this council must be organized in such a manner as to answer its end ; but this organization is very simple ; it consists merely in putting at the head of each important branch of the service, that is to say, of the kinds of knowledge taught in each stage of public instruction, a man known by his labours,—by a long course of eminent and successful teaching. This councillor, who in my opinion ought still to remain a professor or teacher, and only to receive a more or less considerable salary as councillor, should be bound to make a report of all the affairs, real and personal, belonging to his department. He should make this report to the other councillors; it would be discussed; the intelligence and information of all the other members of the council would enlighten and modify the conclusions of the reporter, whose views might be warped by prejudices of system and by exclusive tastes. The discussion being gone through, the council would pronounce an opinion. The minister who has heard the report, and the discussion upon it, decides as he pleases, since he is responsible; but he decides as advised.

This plan of a council will be found in a report I had the honour to address to the Duke de Broglie

in the early part of his short and honourable ministry, and is, to a certain extent, acted upon. In Prussia, the force of circumstances has produced nearly the same institution. The minister has around him a numerous council—too numerous perhaps,—divided into three sections, which correspond to the three branches or objects of his office; viz. a section for church affairs, composed of a certain number of councillors, chiefly ecclesiastics, with a director (or chairman) at their head; a section for public instruction, also composed of a certain number of councillors, almost all laymen, with a director; and a section for medicine, with its councillors and director.

The number of members of each of these sections is undetermined. The same individual may belong to two sections, but he can in no case receive more than the salary of one. At the present time the section of public instruction consists of twelve councillors, with different salaries. The director has 5000 thalers (750*l.*), four have 3000 thalers (450*l.*), seven from 2000 to 2600 thalers (300*l.* to 375*l.*). The ecclesiastical section has thirteen councillors, among whom there is one catholic. Nine of these also belong to the section of public instruction; the three others have 3000 thalers each. The section of medicine has eight councillors, some of whom belong to the other sections; the others have, all together, about 10,000 thalers (1500*l.*).

The section of public instruction, which I am best acquainted with, meets, like our council, twice a week. Each councillor brings different business before the

whole section, with the director at their head. In particular cases the minister has special reports made to himself by some one of the councillors.

To each of these sections is attached a corresponding office; there are, besides, a chancellor and the minister's private secretary. The whole of this central administration costs 80,610 thalers (12,100*l.*), which includes the salaries of the councillors and of the minister.

The office of inspector-general, in use among us, is unknown throughout Germany. But without any permanent or fixed post of inspectors-general (who very rarely do, in fact, inspect), there are special inspections, which cost nothing but the travelling expenses, and which produce positive results, because they are unexpected, always determined by a real necessity, and intrusted to men specially selected. If the minister learns from his correspondence that things are not going on well in any establishment, he sends the inspector best qualified for the particular case. If it relates to a law faculty, he takes a lawyer; if to a faculty of science, a man of science; and so on for all the other faculties. If it concerns a gymnasium, he selects a professor (teacher) of a gymnasium. In general he chooses one of the members of one of the three sections of the council. This councillor, chosen for the particular occasion, instantly repairs to the place where his presence is needed; makes an inspection, the more accurate and profound because it is special; returns to Berlin, makes his report immediately, and a prompt and efficacious de-

cision follows. This takes place only on great occasions, which are extremely rare. For ordinary circumstances, and the general course of affairs, the correspondence and the intervention of the provincial authorities, immediately connected with the ministry of public instruction, suffice.

I have now to lay before you the mode in which the minister, with the aid of his council, directs all parts of public instruction, throughout the whole extent of the monarchy. In order to this, it is necessary distinctly to understand the territorial division of the kingdom, and the regular connected chain of functionaries from the highest to the lowest part of administration.

Prussia is divided into ten provinces, viz. East Prussia, West Prussia, Posen, Pomerania, Brandenburg, Silesia, Saxony, Westphalia, Cleves, Lower Rhine.

Each of these provinces is subdivided into departments, called *Regierungs-Bezirke* (government- or regency-circles), which comprise a district of greater or less extent.

Each of these departments is again subdivided into other circles, smaller than our *arrondissements* and larger than our *cantons*, called *Kreise* (circles); and each of these lesser circles is again divided into *Gemeinde* (*communes*, parishes).

Each department has a sort of council of prefecture, called a Regency (*Regierung*), which has its president, who corresponds nearly to our prefect, only he is more controlled by the sense of the majority. As each department has its president, so

likewise has each province one, bearing the title of *Oberpräsident* (over- or head-president).

All the gradations or stages of public instruction are adapted to the different stages of this ascending scale of administrators. Almost every province has its university.

East and West Prussia and Posen, which join, have the university of Königsberg; Pomerania, of Greifswald; Silesia, of Breslau; Saxony, of Halle; Brandenburg, of Berlin; Westphalia, the imperfect university called the academy of Münster; the Rhenish provinces, the university of Bonn.

Each of these universities has its own authorities, elected by itself, under the superintendence of a Royal Commissary, nominated by the minister of public instruction, and in direct correspondence with him. This is the *curator* of the ancient German universities. This post is always given to some man of weight in the province, in great part as an honorary distinction, but invariably with a certain salary attached. Indeed, generally speaking, the spirit of the Prussian monarchy is decidedly adverse to unpaid functionaries of any kind.

It is of the nature of aristocratical governments to have a great number of gratuitous offices, as we see in the example of England; but governments which are at once popular and monarchical, like Prussia and France, cannot admit of such a system; and if it were pushed far in either country, it would end in nothing short of gradually changing the form of the government. In fact, it would be vain to attempt to intrust

these gratuitous employments to all the citizens eligible to them on the score of merit : persons of small fortune would soon tire of them, and it must end in their falling into the hands of persons of large property, who would soon virtually govern. In Prussia, all public servants are paid ; and as no post whatever can be obtained without passing through the most rigorous examinations, all are able and enlightened men. And as, moreover, they are taken from every class of society, they bring to the exercise of their duties the general spirit of the nation, while, in that exercise, they contract habits of public business. This must be the system of every popular monarchy.

A royal commissary has duties which he *must* fulfill. Let him be of what rank or importance he may in other places, he is a servant of government, bound to render an account to the minister. The royal commissaries are the only mediators between the universities and the minister : thus the universities are connected almost immediately with the minister. No provincial authority, civil or ecclesiastical, has a right to intermeddle in their affairs ; they belong to the state, and to the state alone : this is their privilege and their security. I shall have occasion hereafter to explain to you their internal organization in detail ; it will be sufficient here to point out their relation to the central administration in the general system.

Though the universities are under the exclusive care of the state, this is not the case with secondary instruction. In Prussia this is considered as coming

mainly within the department of the provincial authorities. In every province of the monarchy, under the direction of the supreme president of the province, is an institution connected with, or dependent upon, the ministry of public instruction, and in some sort a copy of it as to internal organization: I mean what are called the provincial consistories (*Provincialconsistorien*). As the ministry is divided into three sections, so the provincial consistory is divided into three sections: the first, for ecclesiastical affairs, or the Consistory, properly so called, (*Consistorium*): the second, for public instruction; this is called the School-board* (*Schulcollegium*); the third, for affairs connected with the public health, which is called the Medical board (*Medicinalcollegium*). The provincial consistory is paid: all the members are nominated directly by the minister of public instruction; but the president both of the whole body and of each of its sections is the *Oberpräsident* of the province, who conducts the whole of its correspondence, including that with the minister of public instruction, although that minister is not his natural head. But in his office of supreme president of the province, he corresponds with several of the ministers on all the various affairs of his province, though he is directly responsible to the minister of the interior alone. This official correspondence of the president of the province with the minister of public

* I am happy, in the choice of this word, to be guided by the admirable article in the *Foreign Quarterly Review*, No. XXIV. ●
—TRANSL.

instruction is merely a matter of form, and for the sake of concentrating the provincial administration; in fact, all authority is in the hands of the consistory, each section of which deliberates separately, and decides all questions by a majority of voices. I shall here dwell upon that section only of the provincial consistory which is connected with public instruction, that is to say, the *Schulcollegium*, or school-board.

I must first beg you to remark an essential difference between the character of public instruction in Prussia, and that which it bears in the states of Germany I have just traversed. In every other state the central or chief management is placed in the hands of a consistory, consisting principally of ecclesiastics, under a director or minister. Here, at the head of the department, immediately under the minister, instead of a consistory, is a council, divided into three parts, one only of which is ecclesiastical, while the other two are lay and scientific. This council, then, has no ecclesiastical character; the spirit of priesthood is superseded by the spirit of civil government; the state is the supreme and predominant idea. In like manner, though perhaps the name, provincial consistory, is too ecclesiastical, yet the division of this consistory into three sections, after the model of the central ministry at Berlin, leaves it no ecclesiastical character. Unquestionably, the intimate connexion of the *Schulcollegium* with the *Consistorium*, and its own proper duties, render it profoundly religious; but its members are in great

part laymen, and quite unfettered by any sacerdotal spirit.

Its domain is more peculiarly secondary instruction, the gymnasia, and those schools which form an intermediate link between the primary and the secondary instruction, called progymnasia and higher burgher schools (*Progymnasien*,—*höhere Bürgerschulen*). It is important to remark, that the seminaries for the training of the masters of primary schools (*Seminarien für Schullehrer*), are also within its jurisdiction, and that it has a voice in all the more important questions of primary instruction.

Attached to the *Schulcollegium* is a Commission of examination (*wissenschaftliche Prüfungscommission*, literally, scientific trial-commission), generally composed of professors of the university of the province. This commission has two objects, viz. 1. To examine the pupils of the gymnasia who wish to pass on to the university; or to revise the examination *ad hoc* which those pupils sometimes go through at the gymnasium itself (*Abiturienten-Examen*, literally, examination of goers-away), in which case all the documents of that examination are inspected: 2. To examine those who apply for situations as teachers in gymnasia. There are different examinations for the different stages of tuition; one for the masters of the lower classes (*Lehrer*, teacher); another for that of the higher (*Oberlehrer*, upper teacher); another for the rectors, with whom rest the most important parts of tuition. The first, that for the under teachers, is the fundamental examination. The *wissenschaftliche Prüfungs-*

commission is the link which connects the secondary with the higher instruction ; just as the *Schulcollegium* connects public instruction in the provinces with the central ministry of Berlin.

The mechanism of the administration of popular instruction is, in few words, as follows.

The universities, as we have seen, belong to the state alone ; secondary instruction to the provinces : primary instruction, on the other hand, belongs mainly to the department and to the *Gemeinde* (parish).

Every *Gemeinde* must, by the law of the land, have a school ; and the pastor or curate is, in virtue of his office, the inspector of this school ; associated with whom is a committee of administration and of superintendence, composed of some of the most considerable persons of the parish, and called *Schulvorstand*, (or committee of management of the school).

In the urban parishes, where there are several schools and establishments of primary instruction, of a higher order than the country schools, the magistrates form a higher committee or board, which presides over all these schools with their several committees, and arranges them into one harmonious system. This committee is called *Schuldeputation* or *Schulcommission* [words which require no interpretation to an English reader].

There is, moreover, in the chief town of the *Kreis*, or circle, another inspector, whose authority extends to all the schools of that circle, and who corresponds with the local inspectors and committees. This inspector is almost always a clergyman : in catholic parts it is

the dean. His title is *Kreisschulinspector*,—inspector of the schools of the circle.

Thus we see that in Prussia, as in all the rest of Germany, the two first degrees of authority in primary instruction are in the hands of the clergy; but above these two lowest steps, ecclesiastical influence is at an end, and the influence of the civil power comes in. The *Schulinspector* of every *Kreis* corresponds with the *Regierung* (regency) of every department (*Bezirk*), through the medium of the president of that regency, who answers, as I have said, to the prefect in France. This regency includes several councillors (*Regierungsräthe*), charged with different duties; among others, a special councillor for the primary schools, called *Schulrath* (school-councillor); a paid officer, like all his colleagues, who acts as link between the public instruction and the ordinary civil administration of the province; inasmuch as, on the one side, he is nominated on the presentation of the minister of public instruction, while, on the other, as soon as he is nominated, he forms a part of the council of regency in his quality of *Schulrath*, and thus becomes responsible to the minister of the interior. The *Schulrath* makes the reports to the council, which decides by a majority. He inspects the schools, quickens and keeps alive the zeal of the *Schulinspectoren* (school-inspectors), the *Schulvorstände* (school-committees), and the schoolmasters; all the correspondence of the parish inspectors and the superior inspectors is addressed to him; he conducts the correspondence relative to schools in the name of the regency; and

also, through the medium of the president, with the provincial consistories, and the school-board (*Schulcollegium*), as well as with the minister of public instruction : in a word, the *Schulrath* is the true director of primary instruction in each regency.

I do not attempt here to go into details. I have confined myself wholly to the endeavour to make the machinery of public instruction in Prussia intelligible to you, as a whole. To sum up all ; primary instruction is parochial and departmental, and at the same time is subject to the minister of public instruction ; which double character appears to me consequent on the very nature of establishments which equally require the constant superintendence of local powers, and the guidance of a superior hand, vivifying and harmonizing the whole. This double character is represented by the *Schulrath*, who has a seat in the council of the department, and is responsible, both to the ministry of the interior, and to that of public instruction.

On the other hand, all secondary instruction is under the care of the *Schulcollegium* (school-board), which forms part of the provincial consistory, and which is nominated by the minister of public instruction. All higher instruction, that of universities, has for its organ and its head the royal commissary, who acts under immediate authority of the minister. Thus nothing escapes the eye and the power of the minister, yet at the same time each of these departments of public instruction enjoys sufficient liberty of action. The universities elect their own officers. The school-

board proposes and overlooks the professors of gymnasia, and takes cognisance of all the more important points of primary instruction. The *Schulrath*, with the council of regency, (or rather the council of regency, on the report of the *Schulrath*,) and in pursuance of the correspondence of the inspectors and committees, decides on the greater part of the affairs of the lower stage of instruction. The minister, without entering into the infinite details of popular instruction, is thoroughly informed as to results, and directs everything by instructions emanating from the centre, which tend to diffuse a national unity throughout the whole. He does not interfere minutely with the business of secondary instruction; but nothing is done without his sanction, and this is never given but on full and accurate reports. The same applies to universities: they govern themselves, but according to fixed laws. The professors elect their deans and their rectors, but they are themselves nominated by the minister. In short, the end of the entire organization of public instruction in Prussia is, to leave details to the local powers, and to reserve to the minister and his council the direction and general impulse given to the whole.

It is now time to lay before you, in the greatest detail, each of the divisions of public instruction, after having endeavoured to show you their relations to each other, and the springs by which they are guided. I shall begin with primary instruction.

SECTION II.

PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

SIR,

- THE sources from which I have taken the facts relating to primary instruction in Prussia contained in this report, are—

1. *Allgemeines Landrecht für die preussischen Staaten*: General Law of the Land for the Prussian States.

2. *Sammlung der auf den öffentlichen Unterricht in den königlich-preussischen Staaten sich beziehenden Gesetze und Verordnungen*: Collection of Laws and Ordinances relative to Public Instruction in Prussia, by Doctor Neugebauer, 1826.

3. *Entwurf eines allgemeinen Gesetzes über die Verfassung des Schulwesens im preussischen Staate*: Project of a general Law on the Organization of Public Instruction in Prussia; Berlin, 1819. This project contains the groundwork of the whole actual organization.

4. *Handbuch des preussischen Volksschulwesens*: Journal specially devoted to Primary Instruction, published by M. Beckendorf, Councillor of the Ministry of Public Instruction and Ecclesiastical Affairs, Section of Public Instruction, from 1825 to 1828.

5. A great number of instructions and circulars communicated to me from the minister's office, as likewise statistical documents and tables from the same source.

I shall quote these various authorities whenever I use them.

I shall place before you, in succession, the rule and the facts, that is to say,—

- I. The organization of primary instruction; the laws and regulations by which it is governed:
- II. What the laws and regulations have actually produced, or the real state of primary instruction in Prussia.

I.

ORGANIZATION OF PRIMARY INSTRUCTION. ●

I propose, Sir, to inquire into, and clearly to expound, the six following points.

1. Duty of parents to send their children to the primary schools.

2. Duty of each parish (*Gemeinde*) to maintain a primary school at its own cost.

3. General objects and different gradations of primary instruction.

4. How primary teachers are trained, placed, promoted and punished.

5. Government of primary instruction, or of the different authorities employed in the superintendence of schools.

6. Private schools.

These six points nearly exhaust the general question of primary instruction. I shall go over them in succession.

TITLE I.

DUTY OF PARENTS TO SEND THEIR CHILDREN TO THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

This duty is so national, so rooted in all the legal and moral habits of the country, that it is

↓ expressed by a single word, *Schulpflichtigkeit* (school-duty, or school-obligation). It corresponds to another word, similarly formed and similarly sanctioned by public opinion, *Dienstpflichtigkeit* (service-obligation, *i. e.* military service). These two words are completely characteristic of Prussia : they contain the secret of its originality as a nation, of its power as a state, and the germ of its future condition. They express, in my opinion, the two bases of true civilization,—knowledge and strength. Military conscription, instead of voluntary enlistment, at first found many adversaries among us : it is now considered as a condition and a means of civilization and public order. I am convinced the time will come when popular instruction will be equally recognised as a social
 * duty imperative on all for the sake of all.

In Prussia, the state has long imposed on all parents the strict obligation of sending their children to school, unless they are able to prove that they are giving them a competent education at home. This duty has been successively defined and regulated with precision for the different seasons of the year (see in Neigebauer's Collection, pp. 186 and 187, the circular of Frederic the Great, dated Jan. 1, 1769); it has been subjected to a severe supervision. Lastly, in the great attempts at codification which took place in 1794, it assumed its place among the fundamental laws of the state. The two articles of the general code relating to this obligation are as follow : *Allgemeines Landrecht*, Part II. title xii.

“Art. 43. Every inhabitant who cannot, or will not, cause the needful instruction to be given to his children at home, is bound to send them to school from the age of five years.

“Art. 44. From that age no child shall omit going to school, nor absent himself from it for any length of time, unless under particular circumstances, and with the consent of the civil and ecclesiastical authorities.”

Lastly, the legislative project of 1819, which has the force of law, and regulates the present order of things throughout the country, devotes an entire title or chapter (Title IV.) to this obligation, which it follows out into its most minute applications. I cannot do better than quote the exact text of this title of the law of 1819, with the whole array of regulations, at once rigorous and prudent, which it contains. You will thus be made acquainted with both the letter and the spirit of the Prussian law on this important point.

“Parents or guardians are bound to send their children or wards to the public school ; or to provide in some other manner that they receive a competent education.

“Parents, or those on whom children are dependent, (and under this head are comprehended masters or manufacturers who have children as servants or as apprentices, at an age when they should go to school,) shall be bound to give them a suitable education, from their seventh year to their fourteenth inclusive*. The schoolmaster shall judge whether a child gives proof of sufficient precocity to enter the school be-

* Five is the age fixed by the fundamental law ; but seven is that at which education is rigidly enforced.

fore that age, and the school-committee (*Schulvorstand**) shall grant an authority for its admission. A child who shall have gone through the whole course of elementary instruction before the age of fourteen, cannot be taken away from school by its parents without the permission of the committee, nor till after the members of the committee charged with the inspection of the school† shall have proceeded to an examination of the pupil, which must be fully satisfactory as to morals and health. It is desirable that children who have quitted school, and have been confirmed and admitted to the communion, should attend the catechizing on Sundays at church for at least a year. This custom, which was formerly general, must be re-established wherever it has fallen into disuse.

“Parents and masters who do not send their children, or those entrusted to their care, to a public school, must point out to the municipal authorities or school-committees, whenever they are required, what means they provide for the education of such children.

“Every year after Easter or Michaelmas, the committees and the municipal authorities shall make an inquiry concerning all the families lying within their jurisdiction who have notoriously not provided for their children that private education which they are bound to give them, in default of public education. For this purpose they shall make a census of all the children of age to go to school. The baptismal registers, and those of the civil authorities, shall be open to them at the commencement of every year, and the police must afford them every possible facility and assistance.

* See *General Organization of Public Instruction*, p. 18, and further, Title V. *Government of Primary Instruction*, p. 83.

† *Ibid.* p. 84.

“It is recognised as a principle, that in the country every child shall be sent to the school of the parish (*Gemeinde*), village, or school-association (*Schulverein**) to which its parents belong. If the parents wish to send their children to any other school, or to give them a private education, they must declare the same to the school-committee; and the permission cannot be refused them; provided always, that they pay the charges imposed on them for the support of the school to which they would naturally belong.

“Parents and masters are bound to see that the children under their care regularly follow the school courses for the time prescribed by law. On the other hand, schoolmasters shall keep lists of attendance, according to a prescribed formula, which must be submitted to the school-committee every fortnight.

“In order to facilitate to parents the execution of this law, and, at the same time, not to deprive them entirely of the assistance which their children might afford them in their labours, the hours of lessons in the elementary schools shall be arranged in such a manner as to leave the children several hours daily for domestic work.

“Schoolmasters are forbidden, under very heavy penalties, to employ their scholars in the work of their own household.

“All schools shall be shut on Sundays. The afternoons, between divine service and the catechism, may be devoted to gymnastic exercises.

“Care is everywhere to be taken to furnish necessitous parents with the means of sending their children to school, by providing them with the things necessary for their instruction, or with such clothes as they stand in need of.

“It is to be hoped that these facilities and helps,

* See p. 35.

the moral and religious influence of the clergy, the wise counsels of members of the school-committees and of the municipal authorities, will gradually lead the people to appreciate the benefits of a good elementary education, and will spread among the young that wish and thirst for knowledge, which will lead them to seek every means of acquiring it.

“If, however, parents and masters neglect sending their children punctually to school, the clergymen must first explain to them the heavy responsibility which rests upon them; after that, the school-committee must summon them to appear before it, and address severe remonstrances to them. No excuse whatever shall be deemed valid (exclusive of the proof that the education of the child is otherwise provided for), except certificates of illness signed by the medical man or the clergyman; the absence of the parents and masters which had occasioned that of the children; or, lastly, the want of the necessary clothing, funds for providing which had not been forthcoming.

“If these remonstrances are not sufficient, coercive measures are then to be resorted to against the parents, guardians, or masters. The children are to be taken to school by an officer of the police, or the parents are to be sentenced to graduated punishments or fines; and in case they are unable to pay, to imprisonment or labour, for the benefit of the parish. These punishments may be successively increased, but are never to exceed the maximum of punishment of correctional police.

“The fines are to be awarded by the school-committee; to be collected, if necessary, with the aid of the police, and paid into the funds of the committee. The execution of the other punishments rests with the police.

“Whenever it shall be necessary to pass sentence

of imprisonment, or of forced labour for the benefit of the parish, care shall be taken that the children of the persons so condemned are not neglected while their parents are undergoing the penalty of the law.

“The parents who shall have incurred such sentences may, on the request of the school-committees, and as an augmentation of punishment, be deprived of all participation in the public funds for the relief of the poor.

“Nevertheless, that part of the public relief which is given for the education of children, shall not be withdrawn from them; though it shall cease to pass through their hands.

“They can have no share of any public relief, so long as they persist in not fulfilling the duties of Christian and conscientious parents towards their children.

“They shall be equally incapable of taking any part in the administration of the parish, or of holding any office connected with the church or the school.

“If all these punishments are found ineffectual, a guardian shall be appointed specially to watch over the education of the children, or, in case they are wards, a co-guardian.

“Jewish parents, who obstinately refuse obedience to the competent authorities, may be deprived of their civil rights in the provinces in which the edict of the 11th of May, 1812, is in force.

“Cases of marked negligence on the part of entire parishes, or of particular families, may be mentioned in the published reports, without, however, naming individuals.

“The protestant or catholic pastors are to judge for themselves how far to use their influence, according to the circumstances of the case. But they are earnestly to endeavour, especially in their sermons at

the opening of schools, to persuade parents to give great attention to the education of their children, and to send them regularly to school; they may even make allusion to any striking instances of a neglect of these duties. Lastly, they shall admit no children to the conferences preparatory to confirmation and communion, who do not present certificates, attesting that they have completed their time at school; or that they are still in punctual attendance upon it; or that they are receiving, or have received, a private education."—(*Entwurf*, tit. iv., art. 33—43, pp. 32—37.)

I subjoin two Tables, extracted from a decree passed and published by the provincial consistory of Magdeburg, the 5th of April, 1817*, that is to say, anterior to the law just quoted; which decree enjoins the pastor of each parish to make out a list from the baptismal registers of all children of an age to go to school, and from that time forward to keep this list constantly filled up, according to Table I. On these first lists the schoolmaster is to form a list of attendance for his school, according to Table II.

It is on the result of these lists that the pastors, superintendents of schools, and inspectors of circles (*Kreise*†), have to take the measures prescribed by law. The lists, as well as the notes which have been made respecting each child at the examinations, and at quitting school, are carefully preserved; and I am assured that the courts of justice often have recourse to these notes, where questions of character come before them.

* See Neigebauer, pp. 187—189.

† See *General Organization*, p. 19, and further on at p. 92.

In consequence of the example given by the provincial consistory of Magdeburg, and in conformity with the law of 1819, all the other consistories have since adopted the same measure, and have made the use of these tables or lists (*Schullisten**) imperative on pastors and schoolmasters.

TITLE II.

DUTY OF EACH PARISH TO MAINTAIN A PRIMARY SCHOOL AT ITS OWN COST.

It would be manifestly absurd to require of parents that they should send their children to school, if there were not schools enough to enable them to fulfil this duty. Now private schools afford but an uncertain resource. It is therefore the duty of the state to provide for the accomplishment of the law it has enacted : hence the following regulations, which had already passed into common usage, and were almost universally in practice, but were first formally sanctioned by Titles III. and V. of the law of 1819, of which I have spoken, and which I shall now continue to extract from, or, frequently, to translate entire.

“Every parish, however small, is bound to have an elementary school, complete or incomplete; that is to say, accomplishing the whole scheme of instruction prescribed by the law, or, at least, the most indispensable parts of the scheme†.

* See Neigebauer, pp. 192 et seq.

† See further, p. 50, the various branches embraced by the two degrees of primary instruction,—the elementary and the burgher schools.

“Every town is bound to have at least one burgher or middle school, or more, according to its population.

“Small towns, of less than fifteen hundred inhabitants, which cannot support the expense of a burgher school, are bound to have at least elementary schools. Above all, they must have elementary schools of the lower class, in proportion to the number of children of both sexes of an age to go to school.

“In case a town be not able to maintain separately, and in distinct buildings, an elementary school and a burgher school, it shall be permitted to use the inferior classes of the burgher school as elementary school: in like manner, in case of necessity satisfactorily proved, the inferior classes of the gymnasium may be used as burgher school.

“In every town or city in which there are several elementary schools, they shall be distributed over the several quarters of the town: nevertheless, the inhabitants shall not be bound by their place of residence to send their children to one school rather than another.

“In towns which have several schools of the several gradations or stages, the authorities shall be careful to organize them all conformably to the instructions given above, so that they may be connected together, and form a coherent whole.

“Jewish residents in towns may establish schools at their own expense, on condition that they be organized, superintended and administered by them conformably with the present law. They may equally send their children to other schools; but they are not permitted to have any share in the management of those schools.

“The first care should be to furnish the country with the needful elementary schools. Wherever there exist incomplete schools, they must be improved, and must be changed as quickly as possible into com-

plete elementary schools: this must invariably take place when a school has, or is in a condition to have, two masters. In order that all country places may have sufficient elementary schools within their reach, the inhabitants of each rural parish shall form an association for country schools (*Landschulverein*), under the direction of the public authorities. This association is to consist, first, of all the landed proprietors, without distinction, whether they have or have not children; secondly, of all householders domiciliated in the parish, even if they be not landowners.

“Each village, including the neighbouring farms, may form an association of this kind of itself. The same applies to a combination of a number of isolated farm-houses.

“Every village ought to have its school; but in certain cases, and as exceptions to the general rule, several villages may unite together into one school-association, under the following conditions:

“1. The absolute impossibility for a parish to furnish the means of an elementary school of itself.

“2. The villages which associate must be so near that the children can punctually attend the common school. The distance allowed shall not exceed half a mile ($2\frac{1}{4}$ English miles) in flat country, and a quarter of a mile in hilly country.

“3. No such combination can be formed among villages separated by marshes or rivers, which would render attendance on school difficult, or even impracticable, at certain seasons of the year.

“4. The number of children collected must not be too great. For one master, it must not exceed a hundred. More may be admitted if there are means of maintaining two masters, and if the building is large enough; but in that case the villages would

be very nearly able to support each its own school, which is always preferable.

“Leave to form such combinations shall only be granted temporarily to villages which are likely to be able to maintain their own schools; and such establishments shall be gradually reformed.

“If a village, from its extent and population, or from difference in the religious persuasions of the inhabitants, had already two schools, and could provide for their maintenance, they shall on no account be united, especially if they be of different confessions of faith. On the contrary, separate schools shall be encouraged wherever circumstances permit.

“Difference of religion alone ought not, however, to be an obstacle to the formation of an association for a country school; but in forming such an association of catholics and protestants, regard must be had to the numerical proportion of the inhabitants of each communion. If it be possible, there shall, in this case, conjointly with the head master professing the faith of the majority, be a second master, professing that of the minority.

“Jews scattered about the country may enjoy all the advantages of the school-associations, but must not take part in their management. They must provide for the religious education of their children themselves.

“Wherever the union of two schools of different communions be judged expedient, it must take place by common agreement between the two parties. Moreover, in case of a union of this kind, or of the establishment of schools for various sects (*Simultanschulen*), provision must be made that each of these sects have within reach all that may be necessary for the religious education of the scholars belonging to it. And in order that no sect may have anything to

fear, and that all it brings into the common fund may be secured to it, an authentic document shall be drawn up every year, setting forth the respective rights of each, and the particular terms of the association.

"If a union cannot be effected, or if it is found impracticable to form a school common to both religions, the authorities shall interfere, and shall take the measures best suited to the necessities and the circumstances of the place."

We have now, Sir, seen the establishment of primary schools throughout Prussia. I shall proceed to show with what care and forethought the government which commands them has provided for their support. This is done in Title V. of the law of 1819. I give it, with some few abridgements.

The law begins by defining what is required for the complete maintenance of a school, in order that it may answer its end.

"1. A suitable income for schoolmasters and mistresses, and a certain provision for them when they are past service.

"2. A building for the purposes of teaching and of exercise, properly laid out, kept in repair and warmed.

"3. Furniture, books, pictures, instruments, and all things necessary for the lessons and exercises.

"4. Pecuniary assistance for the necessitous scholars."

The first is the essential point. If you would have good masters, you must first of all ensure them a maintenance. The Prussian law expresses itself on this head in the most solemn

manner. "It is our firm will," says the king, in whose name it speaks, "that in the maintenance of every school, this be regarded as the most important object, and take precedence of all others."

"It is neither possible nor necessary to fix a general and uniform rule on this head for the whole monarchy. The condition of the different places, and the particular circumstances can alone determine the salary attached to each school. The inspectors and the committees of schools must take care that this salary be as high as possible. But there shall be a minimum fixed for the salaries of schoolmasters in towns and villages, proportioned to the state of prosperity of each province, and determined by the provincial consistories. The salaries which are below this minimum must be raised to it as speedily as possible. Lastly, in order that this salary may always be in proportion to the real value of the school and the existing price of provisions, it shall be revised from time to time.

"As a principle, every school should have a building specially appropriated to it: whenever it is necessary to hire a house, it must, if possible, be isolated, and have no connexion with other buildings.

"The conditions which are essential in a school-house, and must be rigidly enforced, are, a healthy situation, rooms of a sufficient size, well boarded, well aired, and kept with the greatest neatness, and, whenever it is possible, a good lodging for the master. In schools which have several masters, one at least is, if possible, to lodge in the school-house. The provincial consistories shall cause plans to be drawn of school-houses of different sizes, for villages and small towns, with an approximating estimate of the cost of

building, and of the necessary furniture, in order that there may be some fixed standard for new buildings and for the greater repairs.

“Every school in a village or small town shall have a garden, cultivated according to the nature of the country, either as kitchen-garden, orchard, nursery-garden, or laid out for raising bees; and this garden shall be made available for the instruction of the scholars.

“Wherever the nature of the spot will admit, there shall be a gravelled plain or court, in front of the school, for the children’s exercises.

“The materials necessary for instruction consist, above all, in a sufficient collection of books for the use of the master, and as many as possible for that of the scholars.

“There shall be, according to the degree of every school, a collection of maps and geographical instruments, models for drawing, writing, music, &c.; the instruments and collections necessary for studying mathematics and natural history; lastly, according to the extent of the system of instruction, there shall be the apparatus necessary for gymnastic exercises, and the tools and implements suited to the teaching of the mechanical arts or manufactures in the schools in which that branch of knowledge is introduced. The provincial consistories shall fix the minimum of the moveables required for the inferior schools.

“As to the necessitous scholars, wherever there is no free school, called a poor’s school (*Armenschule*), every public school is bound, whatever be its general rules concerning the sum paid by the scholars, to give them instruction gratuitously, or partly so. Parents who send many children to school shall have all necessary indulgence as to the payment of the *Schulgeld* (school-money, or fee); at the same time the master’s

regular salary must in no way suffer. Moreover, every school is bound to furnish gratuitously to poor scholars, books and other necessities, a part of which shall be given to them as their own property, and part shall remain as belonging to the stock of the school."

But to meet the demands of a school established on these four bases, and embracing such a system of instruction, considerable funds are necessary; and to raise these funds every variety of means presented by the local circumstances must be called into action. The following are the most general rules laid down by the law on that point.

"Schools or houses for education which possess funds arising from endowments, of whatever kind, shall be maintained, and if needful improved, out of these funds. In case they are insufficient, they shall have a right to assistance from other sources.

"It is a principle, that as the gymnasia, and other establishments for public instruction of the same degree, are mainly supported by the general funds of the state, or of the province, so the inferior schools in towns and villages are supported by the towns and by the school-associations in the country.

"On the other hand, if a town cannot, out of its own resources, support the lower grade of instruction of which it stands in need, every department shall have school-funds, from which it shall assist the necessitous parish; but this aid shall only be temporary, and shall be diminished or withdrawn in proportion as the place becomes more able to support its school.

"If, for instance, a village cannot, from its position, unite in a school-association with other villages,

nor, from poverty, maintain a school by itself, the department shall give it assistance.

“In towns, public education and the maintenance of it are not to be postponed to any other of the parochial necessities or claims whatsoever. They are to be reckoned among the objects to be provided for in the first place.

“When schools are to be organized in a town, it must first be exactly determined what are the most urgent expenses to be incurred; then the disposable funds, or those appropriated to education, must be carefully examined, to see whether they are sufficient, or can be made so by a better management; care being had that the income of funds belonging to any particular establishments be used for their sole benefit, and not for that of all the schools of the place. An account must be taken of all funds obtainable from pious donations and other local and parochial sources, from the increase of the sum paid by each child (*Schulgeld*), and from the aids the department can furnish. If all these means are insufficient, then the funds rigorously necessary shall be levied on the householders (*Hausväter*, literally, housefathers).

“The assessment shall be made by the parochial authorities, with the participation of the school-committees.

“No one shall refuse to pay the rate levied upon him under pretext that the schools of his parish, or of his religious persuasion, are flourishing; since it is necessary to provide for the general education of the parish, and all schools are open to all, and may be equally profitable to every individual.

“By the word householders (*Hausväter*) is meant all the inhabitants of a parish who keep house for themselves. All who are rated to the other necessities of the parish are to be rated in the same proportion to the school-rate.

“The persons exempted from these rates are :—

“Hired servants, or those who are boarded by others ; excepting always such as keep house, and must therefore be considered as householders.

“Military men of every rank in active service, unless they exercise a civil profession, or possess property in the funds.

“As ecclesiastics and schoolmasters render essential services to public education, either gratuitously or for a very small remuneration, they also shall be exempted from paying the school-rate ; but they shall pay the *Schulgeld*, or sum paid by each child attending school, unless usage or some special agreement have freed them from that obligation.

“If the repairs of a school-house become impossible, from the poverty of the inhabitants of the place, or the charges they have already to bear, or if the rates imposed do not cover the necessary expense, assistance shall be asked from the departmental funds.

“The higher sort of girls' schools shall have no claim to assistance from these funds, and shall be maintained by the persons or associations which establish them. When a town shall have made sufficient provision for its elementary boys' and girls' schools, it may set on foot higher girls' schools.

“The maintenance of schools peculiar to Jewish communities shall be entirely at their charge ; but this shall not exempt the members of such communities from the rate levied for the general instruction of the town.

“The maintenance of village schools rests on the country school-associations. Thus all landowners, tenants and householders, without distinction, contribute in proportion to the income of their respective properties lying within the circle of the association, or to the product of their industry ; and are to pay this contribution or rate either in money or in kind ;

or, if they can do so no otherwise, in building-materials, or even in labour.

“The instructions given above as to the liability to pay this rate (*Beitragspflichtigkeit*) are applicable to country as well as to town. On every occasion the question of the necessity of levying a rate shall be examined and determined by the departmental authority responsible for the schools; and the assessment of such rate shall be made by the parochial authorities, in conjunction with the school-committees.

“The portion of the rate assessed on any estate shall be attached to it as a real charge; so that if the property should be dismembered, each portion shall remain charged with its share of the rate without any fresh assessment.

“When village schools possess any revenues from bequests, endowments, aid from the church funds, or the payment of the scholars, then the rate chargeable on the members of the association to which such schools belong shall not be levied further than is necessary to improve the schools, or to add to the revenues, if they are insufficient. But every fresh bequest or donation in favour of the schools shall be devoted to the improvement of the school, or of the master's income, and not to the diminution of the rate, unless such is the express will of the donor or testator.

“If two or more schools of the same communion exist in a village, the whole village shall be considered as forming one single school-association, and each school shall be maintained by the product of the general rate.

“If these schools are of different communions, the householders of each communion form an association for their own school, and pay their rate to that alone.

“But in case a school-association shall comprehend

the members of several sects, no regard is to be had to the different sects in the assessment of the rate for the maintenance of the school.

“If the members of small Christian sects choose to separate themselves from the association to which they naturally belong, and to establish distinct schools, they shall be at liberty to do so, on condition of proving that they have means sufficient for the maintenance of such schools, and that they thoroughly fulfill the duties of the association to which they belong.

“The particular obligations attached to ecclesiastical endowments for the support of certain schools, even when these endowments have lapsed to the state, shall continue to be scrupulously fulfilled. The same will apply to high-schools, or gymnasia.

“Among the special means of providing for the maintenance of schools, schoolmasters in small towns and villages may be allowed to receive in kind a part of the remuneration from the scholars (*Schulgeld*), fixed by the provincial consistories. But no arrangement to this effect can be made without the consent of the schoolmaster.

“If the garden, which ought to be attached to every country school, cannot be paid for out of the funds of the school, the members of the association shall be obliged to hire or buy one.”

Further, a cabinet order, dated Berlin, September 28th, 1810; the edict for the advancement of the civilization of the country, dated September 14th, 1811; and a cabinet order, dated November 5th, 1811,—decree, “that on occasion of any divisions or allotments which the parishes may make, sufficient land shall be allotted to the schoolmaster for the cultivation of his vegetables, and for the feed of a cow; about two acres of good land, or more if the land is bad.”

“ In places where right of common still exists, the schoolmaster shall have the right of feeding a fixed number of cattle, and shall share in all other benefits of the common.

“ Wherever the schoolmasters have been accustomed to receive certain fixed allowances out of the collections at christenings, marriages and funerals, this custom may be continued *. But these sources of income must be calculated and valued, on an average, among the general receipts of the schoolmaster; and care shall be taken that the services thus imposed on the schoolmaster, such as the attending the body to the grave, &c., do not interfere with the duties of his office.

“ In places where allowances of this kind do not exist, or have been abolished, they shall neither be introduced nor restored.

“ Among the schoolmaster's sources of income, it will not be permitted to reckon his place at the table of every family in the commune in rotation (an ancient custom, for which there is an appropriate word, *Wandeltisch*, moveable table). If he can thus have his board gratuitously, it can only be as an accessory to his other income, and shall be put an end to the moment it appears that his dignity or his duties are likely to suffer from it.

“ No schoolmaster shall henceforward be allowed to collect gifts or fees, whether in money or in kind, from door to door, whether in person, or by his scholars.

“ Nevertheless, the sums collected by schoolmasters, and the presents the pupils of the gymnasia re-

* I have not chosen to omit these provisions, though they belong to a state of society so unlike our own; as they all tend to show how everything may be turned to account by a truly provident administration.—TRANSL.

ceive for singing in choruses on certain solemn occasions, shall not be suppressed; but in making these collections, care must be taken to avoid whatever may tend to lower the dignity of master or scholars. The same observation applies to the poor scholars who go about singing choruses from door to door, to collect money (*Kutrenden*), in places where this custom still subsists. In places where it is abolished, and replaced by choirs of scholars in the churches, they shall receive compensation for the product of the collections they used to make in person, by collections at private houses or at churches, or even by the parish, such collections being regarded as forming part of the school-funds.

“The general rate levied on the householders for the support of schools having no other object than that of facilitating their establishment for the benefit of all, it is just that those who actually profit by these establishments should support them by a special payment, (*Schulgeld*, school-money,) which may also serve to encourage the masters. This payment may be raised in schools of all degrees in the following manner :—

“The school-committees in towns shall, with the approbation of the departmental authorities, fix the amount of the payment in the lower schools; but the towns may entirely suppress the special payment in certain schools, on condition that they make up for this source of income from the general school-fund, or from some other source.

“In particular cases it is reserved for the provincial consistories to decide whether the *Schulgeld* for country schools shall be kept up where it already exists, or whether it shall be established at the desire of the country school-associations, and in what manner.

"No master shall be allowed to collect the *Schul-geld*, or money paid by the scholars; this must be done by the school-committee.

"In some schools, a fixed portion of the scholars' payment may be employed in the maintenance of the school; but a greater or less portion of it must be reserved exclusively for the masters, and must be divided among them, by way of encouragement: wherever there is no such payment, some means or other must be devised to add to the general funds of the school, an extraordinary fund for such rewards to the masters.

"In places where the maintenance of the school is fixed, all charges on the children for those things which ought to be included in that maintenance, as firing, light, furniture, &c., are abolished.

"The children shall be permitted to form a fund, by voluntary contributions, for the assistance of their necessitous schoolfellows: they shall take part in the management of it, under the direction of the school-master.

"No schoolmaster whatever, although reduced to the minimum of the income allowed by law, can be permitted to increase that income by any occupations which might lower his dignity or his morality, or divert his attention from his functions, and expose him to punishment for that cause. No school-master can undertake any additional employment without the permission of the school-committee, or of the departmental authority; and this permission shall be granted only on condition that the school-master in question shall give up that employment whenever the departmental authority shall judge and declare that it is incompatible with the business of a teacher.

"If a master holds any office about the church, such as clerk, organist, or other, measures must be

adopted to prevent the service of the school from being in any way interrupted or impeded by them.

“The income which the schoolmaster derives from his functions about the church shall not be reckoned as forming part of his income from the school.

“In like manner, no schoolmaster or mistress shall try to increase his or her means of subsistence by the exercise of any trade or handicraft, without the permission of the above-mentioned authorities: and this permission shall be refused if the occupation is dirty, or if it is likely to interfere with the punctual performance of the duties of schoolmaster or mistress, agriculture not even excepted.

“The exemption from parochial and other charges attached to the office of schoolmaster shall not be withdrawn without full indemnification.

“The allowance to infirm schoolmasters shall be drawn, as has been said above, from the fund for the maintenance of the schools to which they have belonged. The pensions of masters of schools whose support depends on the parochial funds of towns or villages, shall, if it be found impossible to pay them otherwise, be added to the general rate levied on householders. In cases where the urban parishes or the country school-associations shall be reduced to a state of great poverty, the king reserves to himself the power of assisting them by extraordinary grants.

“It shall be shortly determined, by a general regulation concerning the pensions of functionaries, under what circumstances, and in what proportion, schoolmasters can become entitled to pensions.

“With regard to the monthly or quarterly allowance granted to the widow and children of a deceased schoolmaster, the particular rules and usages of the place must be followed. The places of masters, which it is important to fill up immediately, must not remain vacant until these quarterly allowances to survivors

are paid off; if necessary, the allowances in question must be taken from other sources.

“The orphan children of schoolmasters shall have a special right to all the benefits of establishments for education; always supposing that they fulfill the conditions necessary to obtain them.

“But as the establishment of a provincial fund for pensions to infirm schoolmasters, or widows and orphans of schoolmasters, affords the most expedient sort of provision for this sort of claims, the provincial consistories shall take the measures necessary to establish such funds in all places.

“The collection and administration of the revenues of schools must be conducted according to a form which may render them easy to the committee of each town or village; they must be under the supreme direction of the public authorities; must secure to schools the entire portion due to them; and must in no way lower the dignity of the teacher.

“The local authorities, under the superintendence of the provincial consistories, shall take measures in accordance with this principle, for the collection and administration of the general revenues of schools, as well as for those of each particular school in the same parish.

“The committees are legally responsible towards schools and schoolmasters for the punctual and full payment of their incomes.

“The school treasuries, of which every department ought to have one, shall be composed of the revenues which already belong to them of right, or which may hereafter accrue to them from the funds long ago created for the benefit of schools by the kings of Prussia; of such sums as, at the time of the secularization of church property, were, or may hereafter be, appropriated to schools; and sometimes also of extraordinary grants from the royal treasury, till it can

be decided how each department shall maintain the schools which are not supported by the parishes, or shall assist the parochial schools.

“In provinces where there are general funds, destined specially to the support of protestant or of catholic schools, these funds shall not be blended and confounded in the departmental school-treasury. In like manner, funds arising from endowment, and intended for a particular establishment or establishments, must be under a management distinct from the departmental school-funds, though under the superintendence of the departmental authorities. Endowments or bequests in favour of poor scholars, of school-masters, of their widows and orphans, or of any like objects, shall in all cases be rigorously administered according to the intention of the donors, and must not be confounded with other school-revenues.

“The contributions or rates (*Beiträge*), in money or in kind, assessed upon householders for the maintenance of schools, as well as the money paid by the children (*Schulgeld*), are obligatory under the same sanctions and with the same privileges as the general taxes of the state.

“School-buildings shall in all cases enjoy the same exemptions and privileges as churches.

“Donations by will, or in any other manner, to schools, shall not be subject to the usual claims of the church.”

TITLE III.

GENERAL OBJECTS AND DIFFERENT GRADATIONS OF PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

I continue to analyse and quote the law of 1819. The portion of it to which I now come is comprised in Titles I. and II. of that law.

It distinguishes two stages or gradations in

primary instruction,—elementary schools and burgher schools*.

“The elementary schools (*Elementarschulen*) have for object the regular development of the faculties of man, by more or less extended instruction in the branches of knowledge indispensable to the lower classes, both in town and country.

“The burgher schools (*Bürgerschulen, Stadtschulen,*) bring the child to that point at which peculiar aptitude for classical studies, properly so called, or for some particular profession, may manifest itself.

“The gymnasia carry on education to the point at which boys, after having received a classical and liberal culture, enter on a course of practical studies in ordinary life, or scientific, superior and special, or professional, studies at the universities.”

These different stages concur to form, if I may use the expression, a single great establishment of national education, the system of which is *one*, and the different branches of which, (while each pursues its own peculiar end,) must yet be intimately connected together.

The primary instruction in question is the basis of the entire system : though divided into two degrees or stages, it has its unity, its general rules ; and even the distinctions which localities, circumstances, or the spirit of the founders, may have introduced into schools of the same stage or class, can neither affect their fundamental constitution, nor the conditions of the admission of the pupils.

Nevertheless the sex, language, religion and

* Or, as we may call them, schools for the middle classes.—
TRANSL.

future vocation of the pupils require consideration. The particular rules laid down by the law to that end are as follow :

“1. Establishments for girls must be, as much as possible, formed separately, corresponding, as to their course of instruction, to the elementary schools, or to the burgher schools. The general principles of instruction and discipline laid down for boys' schools are the same for girls', with modifications appropriate to their sex.

“2. The general constitution of schools is the same for all those portions of the population, composing the Prussian monarchy, which are of a different origin. If a few schools should deviate from this rule,” says the law of 1819, “they must gradually be brought back to it. In all those, without exception, wherein a foreign language is spoken, the pupils, according to the rank of the school, shall receive, besides the lessons in the dialect of the province, complete instruction in the German language; and both masters and pupils may use that language in common conversation*.

“3. Difference of religion in Christian schools necessarily produces some differences in the religious instruction. This instruction shall always be adapted to the spirit and the dogmas of the church to which the school belongs. But as, in every school of a Christian state, the dominant spirit, common to all modes of faith, ought to be piety and a profound reverence for God, every school may receive children of another communion. Masters and inspectors must most carefully avoid every kind of constraint or annoyance to the children on account of their particular creed. No school shall be made abusively

* This relates to the Polish provinces of the Prussian monarchy,

instrumental to any views of proselytism; and the children of a persuasion different from that of the school, shall not be obliged, against the will of their parents, or their own, to attend the religious instruction or exercises in it. Private masters of their own creed shall be charged with their religious instruction; and in any place where it would be impossible to have as many masters as there are forms of belief, parents must the more sedulously perform those duties themselves, if they do not wish their children to follow the religious instructions given in the school.

“Christian schools may admit children of the Jewish persuasion on precisely the same terms as children of all other religions; but Jewish schools may not receive any child of Christian parents.”

Generally speaking, no institution established by particular classes of society is permitted to depart essentially from the principles which rule the general spirit of the national schools. This does not, of course, apply to schools created for a special or professional education; such as those for soldiers, farmers, miners, manufacturers, seamen, artists, &c., which fall under the department of the minister of the interior, and not under that of public instruction, and are not consequently included under the law in question.

The fundamental character of that law is the moral and religious spirit which prevades all its provisions.

“The first vocation of every school,” says the law of 1819, “is, to train up the young in such a manner as to implant in their minds a knowledge of the relation of man to God, and at the same time to excite and foster both the will and the strength to govern

their lives after the spirit and the precepts of Christianity. Schools must early train children to piety, and must therefore strive to second and complete the early instructions of the parents. In every school, therefore, the occupations of the day shall begin and end with a short prayer and some pious reflections, which the master must contrive to render so varied and impressive that a moral exercise shall never degenerate into an affair of habit. Moreover the masters shall take care that the children punctually attend divine service on Sundays and holidays. All the solemnities of schools shall be interspersed with songs of a religious character. Lastly, the admission of the scholars to the communion should be made an occasion for strengthening the ties which ought to unite master and pupil, and of opening their minds to the most generous and sublime sentiments of religion.

“Care shall likewise be taken to inculcate on youth the duty of obedience to the laws, fidelity and attachment to the sovereign and state, in order that these virtues may combine to produce in them the sacred love of country.

“Though in establishments which admit no boarders, the authority of the masters does not extend beyond the precincts of the school, they are nevertheless not to remain indifferent to the behaviour of the pupils out of school hours. In boarding-schools, the whole authority of the parents is delegated to them.

“The paternal attachment of the masters, their affectionate kindness towards all their pupils, will be the most powerful means of preserving them from immoral influences, and of inclining them to virtue.

“No kind of punishment which has a tendency to weaken the sentiment of honour shall, on any pretence, be inflicted: corporal punishments, in case they be necessary, shall be devoid of cruelty, and

on no account injurious either to modesty or to health.

“Incorrigible scholars, or those whose example or influence may be pernicious to their schoolfellows, after all the resources of paternal authority, joined to that of the masters, shall have been exhausted, shall be expelled, in compliance with the judgement of the school-committees.

“By making the pupils themselves, as they advance in age, assist in maintaining order in the school, they will be accustomed to feel themselves useful and active members of society.

“Primary instruction shall have for its aim to develop the faculties of the soul, the reason, the senses, and the bodily strength. It shall comprehend religion and morals, the knowledge of size and numbers, of nature and man; corporeal exercises, singing, and lastly, imitation of form, by drawing and writing.

“In every school for girls, without exception, the works peculiar to their sex shall be taught.

“Gymnastics shall be considered as a necessary part of a complete system of education, and shall be taught by simple rules favourable to the promotion of the health and bodily strength of children.

“Every complete elementary school necessarily comprehends the following objects :—

“1. Religious instruction, as a means of forming the moral character of children according to the positive truths of Christianity.

“2. The German language, and, in provinces where a foreign language is spoken, the language of the country, in addition to the German.

“3. The elements of geometry, together with the general principles of drawing.

“4. Calculation and practical arithmetic.

“5. The elements of physics, geography, general history, and especially the history of Prussia.

“Care must be taken to introduce and combine these branches of knowledge with the reading and writing lessons, as much as possible, independently of the instruction which shall be given on those subjects specially.

“6. Singing; with a view to improve the voices of the children, to elevate their hearts and minds, to perfect and ennoble the popular songs and church music or psalmody.

“7. Writing and gymnastic exercises, which fortify all the senses, and especially that of sight.

“8. The simplest manual labours, and some instructions in husbandry, according to the agriculture of the respective parts of the country.

“The instructions in religion, reading, writing, arithmetic and singing are strictly indispensable in every school. No school shall be considered as a complete elementary school, unless it fulfill the whole scheme of instruction just marked out.

“Every burgher school shall afford instruction on the following heads:—

“1. Religion and morals.

“2. The German language, and at the same time the language of the country in the provinces not German; reading, composition, exercises in style, study of the national classics. In all the German part of the country, the modern foreign languages are an accessory branch of study.

“3. Latin is taught to all the children, within certain limits, as a means of exercising their faculties and their judgement, whether they be or be not to enter the higher schools.

“4. The elements of mathematics, and especially a thorough course of practical arithmetic.

“5. Physical science, as far as is sufficient to explain the most remarkable phænomena of nature.

“6. Geography and history combined, in order

to give some knowledge of the earth, of the general history of the world, of the people who inhabit it, and the empires into which it is divided. Prussia, its history, laws and constitution, shall form the subject of a special study.

“7. The principles of drawing shall be taught to all, concurrently with the lessons in physics, natural history, and geometry.

“8. Writing must be carefully attended to, and the hand trained to write distinctly and neatly.

“9. The singing lessons shall be attended by all the pupils, not only with a view to form them to that art, but to qualify them to assist in the services of the church with propriety and solemnity, by singing the psalms or choral music with correctness and judgement.

“10. Gymnastic exercises, adapted to the age and strength of the scholars.”

This entire course of instruction is indispensable to constitute a burgher school. If the funds of the school render it possible to raise it a step higher in the scale, so as to prepare the boys for the learned professions, and qualify them to enter the gymnasia immediately, such school then takes the title of *höhere Stadtschule* (higher town-school), or Progymnasium.

The following are also important regulations relating to the general subject of this chapter.

“Masters must take pains to know the particular character and qualities of each pupil, and must give the greatest possible attention to the periodical examinations.

“Every scholar of an elementary school shall, when he leaves it, receive a certificate as to his capacity, and his moral and religious dispositions,

signed by the masters and the school-committee. These certificates shall always be presented to the clergyman before admission to the communion, to master-manufacturers or artisans on being bound apprentice, or to housekeepers on entering service.

“ The certificates shall not be given to the scholars till the moment of their finally quitting school ; and in both the burgher schools and the gymnasia, this shall always give occasion to a great solemnity.

“ There shall be particular regulations, fixing the number of lessons which are to be given weekly and daily, in each department, and for each gradation.

“ The grand divisions of the courses shall be from Easter to Easter, or, when local circumstances make it more expedient, from Michaelmas to Michaelmas.

“ Every school may admit scholars, change its classes, or close its course of studies half-yearly.

“ On Sundays and days of high festival the schools shall be shut ; with the exception of the Sunday schools for adults who have been neglected in their youth, or for children who would otherwise be deprived of all instruction in the summer, in parts of the country where there are insurmountable obstacles to keeping school during that season.

“ In order to impose no shackles on the constant onward course of improvement, no special books shall be prescribed for the different branches of instruction in the primary schools. They shall be free to adopt the best books as they appear.

“ For religious instruction, which in protestant schools is founded mainly on the Holy Scriptures, the Bible and the catechisms generally adopted shall be used. The New Testament shall be given to children who can read. Those who approach the time of communicating shall have the whole Bible in Luther's translation. This book shall also be used for the religious instruction in all the classes of the gym-

nasia, to which shall be added the New Testament in Greek.

“The lesson-books shall be carefully selected by the school-committees, with the concurrence of the higher authorities, without whose approbation no book can be admitted. The ecclesiastical authorities are, in like manner, to be consulted on the choice of religious works.

“The bishops, in concert with the provincial consistories, shall choose the religious books for the use of catholic schools. In case these two authorities should not agree in their choice, the matter must be referred to the minister of public instruction, who shall decide.

“If there is a deficiency of elementary books in any branch of learning, the minister shall see that proper ones be written or compiled.

“The masters of the public schools must choose the methods best adapted to the natural growth and improvement of the human mind; the methods which gradually and constantly enlarge the understandings of the children, and not such as instill merely mechanical knowledge.

“It will be the duty of the school-committees to inspect the methods adopted by the masters, and to aid them with their advice; they are never to tolerate a bad method; and they shall refer the matter to a higher authority if their advice is disregarded.

“Parents or guardians have a right to inquire into the system of education pursued in the school, and into the progress made by their children. In order, however, to avoid continual applications of this sort, measures shall be taken for giving a public report of the state of the school from time to time.

“Parents may address any complaints to the higher authorities charged with the superintendence

of schools, and these complaints must be examined into with the greatest care.

“ On the other hand, those who entrust their children to a public school are bound not to oppose any obstacle to their conforming exactly to the rules established in the school. They are bound, on the contrary, to second the views of the masters, to fulfill all their obligations towards them, and to furnish the children with everything necessary for their studies.

“ It is essential to the general order that every pupil in every public school should be obliged to go through the whole course of fundamental instruction, of the degree or stage to which that school belongs ; and parents shall not be allowed to withhold a pupil at pleasure from any branch of instruction. Dispensations from any branch must be asked of the higher authorities, who will judge of the validity of the reasons.

“ Every public school, inasmuch as it is a national institution, ought to afford the greatest publicity possible. Consequently, in every boy's school, besides the private examinations on passing from one class to another, there must be public examinations calculated to show the nature and the excellence of the studies.

“ Besides this, the director (or chairman) of the committee, or one of the masters, shall give an account of the state and progress of the school in a written report. Lastly, from time to time a general report on the state of education in each province shall be published.

“ Every establishment shall be at liberty to choose the days on which to give the public the means of knowing the state of the school, by speeches or other exercises. But the anniversaries of the most remark-

able days in the national history are to be selected in preference.

“As girls are destined by nature for a quiet and retired life, these exercises or trials are never to be public in their schools. The examination shall take place only in the presence of the masters and parents.

“But if, on the one hand, it is incumbent on those charged with the conduct of the public schools to strive to accomplish the duties the state imposes on them for the training of citizens, they, on their part, have a right to expect that every one should pay the respect and gratitude to which they are entitled as labourers in the sacred work of education. Masters and mistresses ought, therefore, to be the objects of the general esteem due to their laborious and honourable functions.

“Institutions for the public instruction have a right to claim from all, even those who do not send their children to them, assistance and support wherever or whenever needed. All public authorities are required to protect the public schools, each in his sphere of action, and to lend their aid to schoolmasters in the exercise of their functions, as to any other servants of the state.

“In all the parishes of the kingdom, without exception, the clergymen of every Christian communion shall seize every occasion, whether at church, or during their visits to schools, or in their sermons at the opening of classes, of reminding the schools of their high and holy mission, and the people of their duties towards the schools. The authorities, the clergy, and the masters shall unite their efforts to strengthen the ties of respect and attachment between the people and the school, so that the people may accustom themselves more and more to regard education as one of the essential conditions of public

life, and may daily take a deeper interest in its progress."

TITLE IV.

THE TRAINING OF PRIMARY TEACHERS, MODE OF APPOINTMENT, PROMOTION AND PUNISHMENT.

- 6 The best plans of instruction cannot be executed except by the instrumentality of good teachers; and the state has done nothing for popular education, if it does not watch that those who devote themselves to teaching be well prepared; then suitably placed, encouraged and guided in the duty of continued self-improvement; and lastly, promoted and rewarded in proportion to their advancement, or punished according to their faults. Such is the object of Title VI. of the law of 1819. We translate that, as we did those which preceded.

"A schoolmaster, to be worthy of his vocation, should be pious, discreet, and deeply impressed with the dignity and sacredness of his calling. He should be thoroughly acquainted with the duties peculiar to the grade of primary instruction in which he desires to be employed; he should possess the art of communicating knowledge, with that of moulding the minds of children; he should be unshaken in his loyalty to the state, conscientious in the duties of his office, friendly and judicious in his intercourse with the parents of his pupils, and with his fellow-citizens in general; finally, he should strive to inspire them with a lively interest in the school, and secure to it their favour and support.

"Of the Training of Schoolmasters.

"In order gradually to provide schools with masters of this character, the care of their training must

not be abandoned to chance ; the foundation of primary normal schools (*Schullehrer-Seminarien*,) must be continued. The expenses of these establishments shall be defrayed partly by the general funds of the state, and partly by the departmental funds for schools.

“ To repair the annual loss of schoolmasters, each department should have, as far as possible, a corresponding number of young men, who have been well trained, and are of acknowledged aptitude for the office (*Candidaten*) ; that is, each department will need a primary normal school. The following regulations will serve as the groundwork of such establishments.

“ 1. No primary normal school shall admit more than sixty or seventy pupils (*Präparanden*).

“ 2. In each department peopled by a nearly equal number of protestants and catholics, there shall be established, if resources and circumstances permit, a primary normal school for each religion. But where the inequality in this respect is great, the schools of the less numerous sect shall be supplied with masters from the primary normal school of the same sect in a neighbouring department, or from small establishments annexed to a primary school of the ordinary class. Normal schools, common to protestants and catholics, shall be permitted, when each pupil can receive the religious instruction appropriate to his faith.

“ 3. In order, without rigorous confinement, to preserve the pupils from the dissipation, allurements, and habits of a kind of life which does not accord with their future condition, the primary normal schools shall, as far as practicable, be established only in towns of moderate size. On the other hand, it is desirable that the town be not so small as to deprive them of the advantages derived from the neighbourhood of schools of different grades. Regard also

must be had to the character, to the mode of life and the manners of the inhabitants of the town.

“4. That the primary normal schools may be able to select and train their own recruits, they shall, if possible, be placed near to houses of education for orphans and paupers; but their choice of pupils must be limited to such boys as exhibit a decided talent and a natural aptitude for teaching, never diverting any from the pursuit he would have preferred. The asylums for orphan girls will contribute in like manner to the supply of schoolmistresses.

“5. It is not necessary that there should be two kinds of primary normal schools, one for training the masters of elementary schools and another the masters of burgher schools; because, in the first place, the latter are based on the former, and in the next, those who aim at the mastership of a burgher school will be the better able to prepare themselves for that end in a single establishment, as they will have access to burgher schools, where they will be able to practise the appropriate exercises.

“6. The studies of the primary normal schools are, however, essentially different from those of the simply primary schools. Their pupils are expected to possess already all the knowledge communicated in the primary schools; and their special object is to add to the information thus acquired just and enlarged notions on the art of teaching, and on the education of children considered as a whole, or in the details of its different branches. But since, from a deficiency of boys sufficiently well prepared, it is seldom possible to proceed immediately to that which constitutes the main object of those schools, they will be permitted to receive pupils who are deficient in some parts of primary instruction, and to make these the subjects of their first labours.

“No one, however, shall be admitted to the pri-

mary normal schools who does not possess elementary knowledge of the lowest grade, or of whose morality there is the least doubt.

“The age of admission shall be from sixteen to eighteen years.

“7. The principal aim of the primary normal schools should be to form men, sound both in body and mind, and to imbue the pupils with the sentiment of religion, and with that zeal and love for the duties of a schoolmaster which is so closely allied to religion.

“The course of instruction and exercises shall comprehend all the branches which, according to the present law, are to be taught in primary schools.

“In the provinces where German is not spoken, the masters of primary normal schools must be especially careful thoroughly to familiarize the pupils with it, without however neglecting the language of the country.

“In all normal schools singing and playing on the organ shall be cultivated with the most sedulous and serious application.

“The gymnastic exercises in most general use shall form part of the system.

“With respect to methods of teaching, the endeavour shall be, not so much to inculcate theories on the pupils, as to lead them by enlightened observation and their own experience to simple and lucid principles; and with this view, to the normal schools shall be attached others, in which the pupils may exercise themselves by practice.

“Towards the close of their course, the pupils of the normal schools shall be instructed in all the duties of schoolmasters towards their ecclesiastical and temporal superiors, towards the church, the parish or district, and the parents of the scholars.

“8. In each primary normal school the length of the course shall be three years, of which the first is

devoted to supplemental primary instruction, the second to specific and more elevated studies, and the third to practice and occasional experiments in the primary school annexed and in other schools of the place. When the supplemental instruction is not required, the course may be reduced to two years.

“9. As the preparation for so important a function as that of public teacher will admit of no interruption during this term of three or two years, no pupil, even when he shall have reached the age of military service, shall be called out to active service in the army. But pupils above twenty years of age shall be enrolled in the *Landwehr* of the first levy (*Aufgebot*); and those between seventeen and twenty may join in the drill of the *Landwehr* of the second levy*.

“10. In every primary normal school certain allowances or exhibitions (*Stipendia*) shall be distributed among a fixed number of the poor scholars of good promise, but in such a manner as not to habituate them to too much ease and indulgence, or unfit them for the least lucrative of the masterships.

“11. Every pupil of a normal school receiving such allowance from the establishment, is obliged, at the expiration of the term, to accept the mastership to which the provincial consistories may appoint him; the prospect of advancement being, however, always set before him as the consequence of continued good conduct.

“12. The regulations of every primary normal school must be sanctioned by the minister of public instruction and ecclesiastical affairs, who, by reason of the great importance of these establishments to the civilization of the people, ought to be constantly informed of all that concerns them. The immediate superintendence will be exercised by the provincial

* See Explanatory Preface.—TRANSL.

consistories, and, in what relates to the religious instruction of each communion, more particularly by the ecclesiastical authorities.

“But preparation for teaching need not be confined to the primary normal schools. The great primary schools also present means of training boys to the business of a schoolmaster.

“Moreover, clergymen, or skilful schoolmasters, may train up masters for either village or town schools; only they must have the permission of the provincial consistory, which will have the power of withdrawing its sanction if the end seems not to be attained, or of sending the pupils to a primary normal school, there to finish their education, should the mode of preparation, though good as far as it goes, appear incomplete.

“The superintendence of these small preparatory establishments may be confided to the inspectors of circles (*Kreisinspectoren*).

“Where these small establishments are annexed to girls' schools, they will serve to train schoolmistresses.

Of the Appointment of Schoolmasters.

“As a general rule, any man of mature age, of irreproachable morals and sincere piety, who understands the duties of the office he aspires to fill, and gives satisfactory proofs that he does, is fit for the post of public teacher. Foreigners, who satisfy all these conditions, are eligible as public teachers in Prussia.

“But the places of schoolmaster belong by preference to the pupils of the primary normal schools, who shall have gone through the course of two or three years in those establishments, who shall have been found qualified at the half-yearly or yearly examinations in the theory and practice of all branches

of tuition in use in the town or country schools, and who shall be furnished with a certificate of capacity.

“In order to conduct these examinations, commissions of competent men shall be nominated, composed of two clerical and two lay members. The clerical members for the examinations of protestant teachers shall be nominated by the ecclesiastical authorities of the province; those for the catholic teachers, by the bishop of the diocese. The lay members shall be nominated by the provincial consistory.

“The members of these commissions are not nominated for a permanency; they may be removed every three years.

“The examination of catholic teachers, concerning religion and all subjects connected with it, is conducted separately, under the superintendence of an ecclesiastic of high rank, delegated by the archbishop; the examination concerning instruction, under that of a councillor of the provincial consistory.

In the case of protestant teachers, the two parts of the examination are likewise separated; the first takes place under the superintendence of a clergyman, the second under that of a lay councillor of the provincial consistory.

“But the two parts of the examination, though distinct, are considered as forming one whole; all the members of the commission assist at them, and the result is announced in one and the same certificate.

“These examinations must equally be passed by those who have been trained out of the normal schools, on which account the time of the examinations must be early announced by the provincial consistories in the official prints of the province.

“Every young man whose competency is admitted

shall receive a certificate, delivered and signed by the whole commission, his examiners, by their president, and by the head master of the primary normal school or other establishment in which he was trained to his calling. It must state his moral character, and his degree of aptitude for teaching. The certificates of capacity will therefore bear the title of 'excellent' (*vorzüglich*), 'good or sufficient' (*hinlänglich*), 'passable' (*nothdürftig*): they should also specify and positively define the degree of fitness of the person, whether for the higher primary schools, or for those which are elementary. Such as prove incompetent shall, by a formal decree, be wholly rejected, or sent back to continue their studies.

"Those who, not having been educated in the primary normal schools, or in any similar establishment, wish to obtain situations as teachers, must present themselves for examination to the competent authority, when they will generally be transferred to the grand and solemn examinations of the normal schools. But if urgent reasons demand an examination extraordinary, two judges, one ecclesiastical and one lay, may be named for the purpose, who shall, jointly, examine them in all the branches of primary instruction.

"The religious examination of the young men intended for the separate schools of small Christian sects, or Jewish communities, shall be left to the principals of those schools.

"All teachers who have been found on examination fit for the duties of master, shall be placed, with the index of the degree of their certificate, upon the list of the candidates of each department, and shall have a claim to an appointment. That they may obtain situations as soon as possible, the names of the eligible candidates shall be published every six months in the official papers of the departments, and

the order of their classification shall be regulated by that of their certificates.

“The mistresses of public schools must equally give proof of their fitness for teaching, in examinations appointed by the provincial consistories.

“At the expiration of three years from the promulgation of this law, no masters shall be appointed to the schools which are not German, but such as know the German language and are capable of teaching it.

Mode of Appointment ; with whom rests the Choice and Appointment of the Schoolmasters.

“With respect to the associations for the country schools organized conformably to this law, the election and nomination of the schoolmasters resides in the committees of such associations ; and the ecclesiastical inspectors of the school shall, as members of these committees, present the individuals esteemed fit for the office.

“In town schools already founded and endowed, for the maintenance of which the rate levied on the householders of the place is not necessary, the right of election and nomination is exercised by the founders, with the co-operation of the persons invested with power by the state.

“In schools which depend entirely, or in part, on the above-mentioned rate, the municipal authorities of the parish take part in the election and nomination of masters, and exercise this right by deputies, whom they nominate for that purpose.

“In all schools and houses of education in towns founded by the king, the election and nomination to the masterships are conducted by the provincial consistories ; except when there are particular authorities in whom this right is vested.

“But when the schools are partly supported by the

funds of the town, or the rate levied on householders, the municipal authorities of the town have by right a voice in the election.

“In the particular establishments of small Christian sects, or Jewish communities, this same right is given to the trustees of the community.

“When assistant-masters (*Hülfslehrer*) are wanted in a school for a short time only, they are appointed directly by the provincial consistories, subject, for the catholic schools, to the approbation of the bishops.

“A brevet (*Anstellungsurkunde*,—testimonial of appointment,) shall be delivered to every regular master, whether for the superior or inferior schools, by the authorities by whom he was nominated. The extraordinary and assistant teachers receive only a simple nomination from the authorities who appoint them.

“No schoolmaster's brevet shall be granted, unless the person has been, previously to his election, inscribed upon the list of candidates, or unless he has subsequently submitted to the required examination.

“In every brevet the duties of the individual named should be enumerated as exactly as possible. In the case of masters of inferior schools, regard shall in general be had to the more precise instructions which should be given by the provincial consistories respecting the duties of masters. All the emoluments of the office must also be exactly stated and guaranteed to the master.

“No contract for a determinate time shall be made with the schoolmasters, except for the situation of teacher extraordinary, or of assistant in the superior or inferior schools.

“The schoolmaster's brevets shall have no validity or legal force till they have obtained the royal ratification (*landesherrliche Bestätigung*).

“The ratification of the appointment to a school-mastership shall, in general, be claimed by those who deliver the brevet of nomination to the provincial consistories, which, according to the extent of their powers, shall grant this ratification, or shall obtain it from the ministerial authorities.

“For the masterships to which the provincial consistories have the immediate appointment, the ratification of the brevet of nomination shall be necessary only when it must be granted by the ministerial authorities; in all other cases, the brevets given by the consistories shall be sufficient.

“The brevets of catholic teachers shall be sent to the bishops, who shall declare if there be no objection on their part to the nomination; and they shall forward this declaration, together with the brevet, to the provincial consistories, who will give the ratification and send it to the nominee.

“If any difference of opinion arise between the provincial consistories and the bishops which they cannot settle, the question shall be decided by the ministerial authority.

“The brevets of the public teachers of the small Christian sects, or Jewish communities, must likewise, to acquire legal validity, receive the ratification of the provincial consistories.

“Brevets sent to be ratified, must always be accompanied by a certificate of examination, and by one from the candidates' superiors, attesting their morality and good conduct.

“The authorities who nominate and ratify should carefully examine whether the candidates be eligible according to the forenamed conditions; whether the office have a regular stipend properly secured, and whether the brevet be according to legal form.

“Should a doubt arise on any of these points, or if the opportunity seem favourable for regulating

other affairs relating to the school, the ratification of the brevet of nomination must not be given till all such matters are arranged. The above-mentioned authorities are responsible for any neglect of which they may be guilty on this head.

“It is understood that they have the right of refusing the ratification to incompetent candidates, and of proceeding to a new election.

“They are also at liberty, if they find that the vacant places might be made a means of rewarding and encouraging persons of greater merit, to call the attention of the electors to them; but if these persist in the choice they have made, the ratification, if nothing can be alleged against the fitness of the person elected, must be granted.

“The brevets of new masters for primary schools, inferior or superior, must be sent for ratification within two months at furthest after the occurrence of the vacancy.

“If, from peculiar obstacles, this interval prove insufficient, a prolongation of it may be obtained on a statement of the reasons; if not, the right of nominating devolves on the authorities whose business it is to ratify the brevet. In such cases, the nomination to the catholic masterships will be made by the bishop; and the ratification, in the ordinary way, by the provincial consistories.

“The brevets of nomination must be ratified by the royal authority, and returned to the hands of the schoolmaster elect, before he can be installed in his office, or be entitled to its revenues.

“The selection of an appropriate and solemn mode of installation (*Einsetzung*) is left at the discretion of those who immediately superintend each school; but the following rules are to be observed:—

“1. All those who enter for the first time upon the office of ordinary schoolmaster shall take oath,

and those who are removed from one school to another shall promise, to perform with fidelity the duties of the post, of which they shall be informed beforehand, and to submit to the authority of their spiritual and temporal superiors.

“2. At the installation, the master shall be presented not only to the scholars, but also to the municipal body in the church. These presentations shall be conducted by the ecclesiastical members of the committee of superintendence, and accompanied by appropriate exhortations.

“In schools of a higher order, the teachers newly nominated shall, according to their rank, be presented to the more considerable bodies, either at solemnities appointed for the occasion, or on some regular public day of the school.

“3. At each installation an exact account of the ceremony shall be drawn up, signed by those whose duty it is to take part in it, and by the teacher himself; and the document shall be deposited with the official records of the school, and an authentic copy sent to the provincial consistories.

“4. Teachers shall enter upon possession, on the month of their installation, of the revenues secured to them in their brevet of nomination. Every deviation from this rule must have the especial approbation of the authorities who give the ratification.

“5. Schoolmasters in town or country, who are elected and confirmed, may require of the school-associations that they provide a conveyance for themselves, their family, and effects, free of expense, for the distance of twenty-five miles, or indemnify them for the expenses of removal. But if a master accept another situation within ten years from the time his nomination was ratified, he shall, in order that the school-associations or special school funds may not suffer from too heavy charges, be called upon for

an indemnity, proportioned to the length of his service, for the outlay occasioned by his installation.

“That public teachers may devote themselves entirely to the performance of their duties and to the work of self-improvement, their liability to military service in time of peace is thus ordered: No master legally elected, nominated, confirmed and installed, though of an age to serve, shall be liable to active service, but shall be forthwith registered in the *Landwehr* of the first levy*. Masters of less than twenty-five years of age, whose place can be supplied by their colleagues or by assistant masters, shall take part in the annual drill of the *Landwehr* of the first levy; but all those who, according to the certificate of the inspector of the school, cannot be so replaced, shall be registered for the exercise of the second levy, from which no master of an age to serve in the *Landwehr* can be exempted. In time of war, all these modifications cease, and every schoolmaster must submit to the unalterable regulations of the law of the third of September 1814, on the obligation to serve.

“It is the duty of the enlightened persons to whom the superintendence of the schools is confided, to watch over the progress of the masters in attainments.

“The directors and rectors of the gymnasia and town schools shall especially attend to the younger masters, give them advice, set them right, and excite them to aim at perfection, by attending to the plans of more experienced masters, by frequenting their society, by forming school-conferences or other meetings of schoolmasters, and by studying the best works on education.

“Every ecclesiastic, every inspector of a circle, is expected to show the same solicitude for the progress

* See Explanatory Preface.—TRANSL.

and improvement of the masters of the elementary schools which come under their cognizance.

“Moreover, the provincial consistories shall choose ecclesiastics and inspectors, zealous and skilful in popular instruction, and shall induce them to form and direct grand associations of town and country schoolmasters, for the purpose of keeping alive a sense of the dignity and sanctity of their vocation, of continuing their own improvement by regular meetings, by consultations, conversations, practical essays, written theses, dissertations on particular branches of tuition, by reading together well-selected works, and by the discussions to which they give rise.

“Those who direct such associations with remarkable industry and success shall be encouraged and supported, and have a claim to a recompense proportioned to the trouble they take.

“By a judicious selection of the inspectors of the schools of the circle, each district will in time have its schoolmasters’ society.

“Moreover, masters of the lower schools, of good capacity but small attainments, shall be sent by the provincial consistories, for a certain time, to a primary normal school, to receive the instruction they may still need ; and their schools shall in the mean time be supplied with temporary masters. The provincial consistories may even from time to time recall a certain number of masters, though of competent ability, to a primary normal school, or any other educational establishment of renown, there to go through a more complete course of tuition both in theory and practice ; and particularly that they may make themselves acquainted with the latest improvements in the art of teaching ; and also that they may effect a stricter union among themselves, and establish a beneficial interchange of learning, expe-

rience and opinions. In parts which are not German, the chief object of these courses and societies should be to give teachers already placed additional instruction in the German language.

“Liberty to form these societies, and to re-enter the primary normal schools, since they occasion expenses which fall upon the public funds, shall be asked every time from the ministerial authorities, to whom an account must be given of the progress and results of these conferences.

“The most eminent masters, those who are destined for the direction of the primary normal schools, shall also, with the consent, or even at the suggestion, of government, be enabled from the public funds to seek by travel, both in Prussia and other countries, more exact and extended information on the organization of primary schools, and their wants both internal and external.

“Able schoolmasters, who are faithful in their vocation and unremitting in self-improvement, shall be encouraged by promotion to places of a higher class, and even, on particular occasions, by extraordinary rewards. With a view to preserve the utmost possible regularity in the advancement of the numerous class of schoolmasters, and to order so that no superior teacher shall be below one who is inferior, the provincial consistories shall prepare tables of the masterships of town and country schools, classed according to their revenues, and shall take care that, in general, promotions are made according to these tables.

“Length of service alone shall not constitute a claim, nor establish an absolute right, to advancement; but a teacher who petitions to be removed to a situation superior to that for which he has received a certificate, in whatever school he may be, shall undergo a new examination.

"This examination for promotion shall be conducted by the same persons as the former. It is always proportioned to the rank of the situation sought for. Masters proposed as directors, or headmasters, will be examined chiefly as to their knowledge of the business of teaching in general, and of the organization and good management of a school, suitably to its superior or inferior rank.

"When the competency of the individual proposed is so well known as to render a new trial unnecessary, the authorities who ratify for the post in question can dispense with the examination.

"Nothing shall be paid at any examination but the cost of the stamp of the certificate, whether for the candidateship, for appointment, or for promotion. In like manner, all charges for brevets of nomination and of ratification of masters recently appointed or promoted are abolished, except the stamp and postage.

"At the end of each year, the departmental authorities shall remit to government a list of all the schoolmasters recently appointed or promoted in the department, with a statement of the income of their situations; and these authorities shall not be held excusable if they suffer individual merit to be unemployed or unrewarded, or the least service to pass unnoticed.

"On the other hand, incompetent masters must not look for any encouragement or advancement, or to be treated otherwise than with rigour.

"When schoolmasters, who in other respects perform their duties well, manifest a spirit of resistance to their superiors, or live in dissention with their assistants or their school-committee, after reproof, exhortation, and even some disciplinary measures, have been tried without effect, the evil shall be put an end to by removing them to another place; nor must they be surprised if, in proportion to the degree

of blame they merit, they sink into places of smaller income: but these changes, when adopted as punishments, must in no case take place without the consent of the supreme ministerial authority.

“If, after their removal, these masters still exhibit a turbulent spirit, or an inclination to oppose established rules, they shall then be deprived of their employment.

“The schoolmaster who, from indolence, carelessness, or bad disposition, neglects his occupation, instructs badly, or uses his power without discernment, shall be admonished first by the inspector of the school, and then by the inspector of the circle. If he does not amend, he shall be reported to the provincial authorities, who, on sufficient evidence, shall impose, amongst other penalties, and according to the income of the delinquent, progressive pecuniary fines, which shall be added to the funds of the school. If reprimands, threats, and punishments have no effect, his employment shall be taken from him.

“But if the want of educational skill in a master arise from an incapacity which might have been known, or which was known, before the ratification of his brevet, he shall be transferred to some occupation for which he is more fit, and the responsibility rests upon the authorities by whom he was so hastily proposed or so inconsiderately confirmed.

“Those teachers who give scandal to their pupils, and to the inhabitants of their neighbourhood, by their principles or conduct, in a moral, religious, or political point of view, shall be deprived, as unworthy of office.

“Gross violations of modesty, temperance, moderation, or any open abuse of his authority as father, husband, or head of a family, shall be punished in a schoolmaster by the loss of his place.

“The punishment of offences against religion is

fixed by the members, and according to the constitution, of the church to which the school, district, or master belong.

“As the character of teachers should be pure and irreproachable, the proper authorities shall, as soon as such accusations are made, examine into the case, and when the offence involves the loss of office, shall instantly take the necessary steps.

“Members of school-committees, and inspectors, who in any of these cases are guilty of negligence, shall be held responsible, and, according to circumstances, subjected to a pecuniary fine or to loss of office.

“If a schoolmaster be guilty of an offence which is the subject of criminal proceedings, his superiors shall previously suspend him, and send the case for final judgement to the regular authorities.

“If a schoolmaster be found guilty by a criminal tribunal, he shall also be deprived of his post. The court in passing sentence shall also pronounce his dismissal.

“But if the civil authorities seize the criminal, and commit him for trial, without the preliminary accusation, they shall immediately give notice to the authority which has the immediate charge of the post in question, and which shall forthwith take the requisite measures relating to it.

“If schoolmasters, whose conduct is otherwise good, be sent to prison for a few days for some slight offence of correctional police, and the provincial consistories think that they cannot without degrading the office of teacher suffer them to continue in their present post, they shall remove them as soon as possible to another.

“No master shall be deprived of his place except by a judgement pronounced after an examination and statement of the facts by the provincial consistories.

“Therefore,—

“1. It is expressly recommended to the provincial consistories to proceed with the most rigorous caution. On every occasion they must procure the aid of a lawyer and an inspector, who are bound to receive all documents relating to the question; and when the offence is against religion, they shall ask the advice of the provincial ecclesiastic authorities, and in the case of catholic masters, that of the bishop. When the investigation is finished, they may adopt disciplinary measures, or call in the intervention of a court of justice.

“2. If this latter step be deemed necessary, as soon as all the documents relating to the examination, and to the preliminary statement of the evidence, are given in, the proper tribunal shall be required to pronounce sentence of expulsion, and while the trial is pending the provincial consistory shall suspend the accused.

“The place of a schoolmaster thus or otherwise suspended shall be supplied in the manner which circumstances render most convenient, and half the stipend shall be devoted to the payment of the substitute. If this prove insufficient, the deficiency shall be supplied from the funds of the school, or from those of the parish, or by contribution; or else, if all these fail, recourse shall be had to the provincial school-funds.

“When a teacher is suspended, he shall give up the whole or part of the school-house, if his continued connexion with the school is likely to be dangerous, or if the lodging be required for his substitute. If it be necessary that he leave the school-house entirely, his wants shall be provided for till the close of the judicial inquiry.

“3. In the Rhenish provinces, all such affairs are declared within the competency of the correptional

court, within the jurisdiction of which the accused is domiciliated.

“ 4. The course to be followed by the courts in this kind of process is the ordinary one ; except that, in the other provinces, the provincial consistories have the right of naming a deputy, who shall be heard on the business, and who shall assist in the discussion at the time judgement is given. In the Rhenish provinces*, the *Procureur d'état* shall be empowered to demand explanations and information from the provincial consistories whenever he shall think proper. In the said provinces, the necessary deviations from the ordinary course shall be left to the decision of the provincial consistories of that part of the kingdom.

“ 5. The accused, as well as the authorities, have a right of appealing, either on questions of fact or of law, within the term, and according to the forms prescribed by the judiciary instructions then in force.

“ 6. The higher ministerial authorities shall decide, from the reasons of the master's dismissal, and from his subsequent conduct, whether he ought to be excluded for ever from the exercise of his functions, or whether, after a time, he shall be reinstated.

“ 7. Lastly, whenever schoolmasters are brought to trial, the courts of justice shall instantly communicate the sentence to the provincial consistories, or the authorities presiding over schools, in order that they may immediately proceed to take the measures which the circumstances demand.”

* * See Explanatory Preface.—TRANSL.

TITLE V.

OF THE GOVERNMENT OF PRIMARY INSTRUCTION, OR
OF THE AUTHORITIES TO WHOM THE SUPERINTEND-
ENCE OF SCHOOLS IS COMMITTED.

Such is the general organization of primary instruction. But to suppose that this mechanism will work of itself, is expecting too much from it and from human nature. It requires an administration whose eye and hand shall watch and animate the whole. I shall now proceed to lay before you the system of government set over primary instruction in Prussia. It has been of necessity referred to in the foregoing chapters, but this is the place for treating it in detail:

The fundamental principle is, that the ancient and beneficial union of popular education with Christianity and the church ought to be maintained in a just and reasonable measure, always under the supreme control of the state, and of the minister of public instruction and ecclesiastical affairs.

I refer again to the law of 1819 (Title VII). We will begin with the parishes.

Parish Authorities.

“General rule: As every parish, in town or country, has its primary school or schools, so every primary school, in town or country, shall have its own particular management, its own special committee of superintendence (*Schulvorstand*).

Primary Schools in the Country.

“1. The committee of each country elementary school shall consist, in places where the church contri-

butes to the support of the school, of the patron of the church, of the clergyman of the parish to which the school belongs, of the magistrates of the *commune* where several villages are associated, and of one or two householders, members of the school-association. In every such association, comprehending persons of different communions, care shall be taken that each communion, according to the number of householders belonging to it, shall have representatives in the managing committee of the school.

“2. The patrons or founders (if there be any), the clergyman and the magistrates of the parish or *commune*, form the managing committee of the school. The other members are elected by the school-association of the *commune*; but they shall be proposed for the approbation of the provincial consistory by the intermediate school-authority; namely, that of the circle, *Kreisschulbehörden* (circle-school-authority), that is, the *Kreisschulinspektoren* (circle-school-inspectors).

“The members who are elected shall hold their seats four years, with the power of being re-elected.

“No one shall refuse to become one of the managing school-committee; the only legitimate excuse shall be the possession of other offices in the parish.

“3. For schools endowed entirely by the church, the clergy may act as substitutes for the managing committee; but they shall be bound to observe all the obligations and all the duties imposed upon ordinary committees of management.

“4. The managing committees have cognisance of all school matters; the entire superintendence of such, both internally and externally, rests with them. All that belongs to the internal order of the school, as also to the superintendence and direction of the masters, should be the peculiar office of the ecclesiastical members of the managing committee: the pastor or

curate of the village, who is one of this committee, is also the natural inspector of the school of the village, and shall visit the school frequently, and attend to the teachers. He takes part, too, in the external management and superintendence of the school ; but he shall not be required to interfere in the collection of the revenues, nor in anything relating to them, nor in the special management of the school-funds.

“The committees are the first authorities empowered to receive complaints of the schools or of the teachers from school-associations, or from their individual members ; as well as those from the teachers themselves, or from the scholars : they also constitute the medium through which petitions or claims are transmitted to the higher authorities.

“The efforts of these committees ought to be mainly directed to the organizing and maintaining of the schools conformably to the laws and regulations, so that they may accomplish their end : with which view, they shall advise, direct, and support the teachers, try to make the inhabitants of the parish love their schools, excite their interest and their zeal, and finally strive to remove the coarseness and ignorance of the country youth.

“5. Each managing committee shall meet every three months, on a stated day, and as often besides as may be needful, to deliberate on the concerns entrusted to it.

“They shall also, if advised by the ecclesiastical member specially charged with the superintendence of the school, summon the master to attend any of their meetings, and to give his opinion on the affairs of his school.

“6. All the members of the managing committees fill this office gratuitously ; but the ecclesiastics charged with the superintendence of the schools

shall be fetched and taken home at the expense of the school-society, when they have not horses of their own, and the school they have to visit is out of their parish.

“7. More precise statements of the powers of the committees of management shall be published by the provincial consistories, in accordance with the general provisions of the present law, and with reference to the particular circumstances of the different provinces.

“8. In villages where there are two schools, one common administration shall be formed for the two, composed of the patron of the church, if in this capacity he contribute to the support of the said schools, or of one of them; of the ecclesiastic or ecclesiastics of the place; of the municipal authorities, and of one Christian householder for each school.

“9. Small Christian sects throughout the country shall be permitted to organize, according to their particular constitution and discipline, the management of their own schools; only they must always make known to the district-inspector what that management is, and to whom entrusted. They shall be bound, whensoever called upon, to give all requisite information; and they shall in no way resist, if the provincial consistories think proper to ordain a revision of their schools. The same shall be granted, on like conditions, to the Jews, who take no part in the school-association of the parish they inhabit, and who have their own peculiar schools; but they shall be bound to give all the information necessary for regulating the attendance of the children who are of age to go to these schools.

Primary Schools in Towns.

“1. In small towns, where there is but one school, the managing committees shall be composed in ex-

actly the same manner, and shall have the same powers as those of the country; only, where there are two or more clergymen, the highest in rank shall belong to the committee; also a member of the municipal magistracy (*Mitglied des Magistrats*), and one of the representatives of the burghers or citizens.

"2. In small or middle-sized towns which contain several primary schools, a common committee of management shall be formed in like manner for all (*Ortsschulbehörde*,—literally, school-authorities of the place); only a Christian householder of each school, and a clergyman of each faith, if the schools are of different communions, shall, of right, have a seat in this council. If it be deemed necessary, a person specially versed in school business (*Schulmann*,—school-man,) shall also be admitted.

"If there be any private schools in such towns, which have already their own peculiar management, they shall not be broken up by the establishment of the higher school-authorities above named.

"3. Large towns shall be divided into school districts, having each its school-committee.

"But in every large town there shall be a central point of superintendence for all the schools except the gymnasia; this central point is the school-commission (*Schulcommission*). The school-commissions shall be composed of the superintendent, of the dean or highest ecclesiastic of the place, and (according to the extent of the town and the number of schools) of one or two members of the municipality, who shall be elected by the body itself; of an equal number of the representatives of the burghers or citizens, and of one or two persons skilled in matters of education. A member of each managing committee shall be added besides, if some such have not already, in virtue of other functions, a seat in the commission.

Peculiar circumstances may furnish sufficient cause for deviation from this rule.

" 4. All the committees and commissions of town schools shall be confirmed by the provincial consistory. These are bound to exercise vigilant care that none be admitted but upright judicious men, zealous for the good cause of education, and esteemed by their fellow-citizens.

" They shall have the right of refusing the ratification of the nomination of incompetent persons, of demanding new elections, and, if the second nominee for the same place be ineligible, of immediately filling up the place themselves.

" 5. The members introduced by election shall be confirmed for six years, and may be re-elected. On the other hand, no elected member shall be obliged to act in these commissions for more than three years.

" No man can refuse to act in these commissions, except for the same reasons which release from the obligation to join the managing committees of village schools, namely, municipal duties.

" 6. The authority of the school-commissions extends over all the schools of each town, which they shall preserve in harmony one with the other.

" Throughout the whole extent of their jurisdiction, their duty is,—

" 1.) To take care that the town be provided with the necessary schools of different degrees, and properly connected with each other :

" 2.) To inquire into the wants of the schools, and the means of supplying them, and to assist in the assessment and collection of the rates or loans of the householders :

" 3.) To make themselves well acquainted with the state of all the school-funds and revenues, general as well as particular :

“ 4.) To take charge of the general fund of the schools of the town :

“ 5.) To enforce the execution of whatever is ordained by the law, the minister, or the provincial consistories, in order to secure proper instruction to all children of an age to go to school, and to prevent even the poorest among them from growing up neglected and without education, in beggary and all the vices which idleness begets and fosters :

“ 6.) To apply themselves diligently to the improvement of the schools, and to animate the zeal of their fellow-citizens ; to offer suggestions on this subject to the magistrates and town-authorities, and enable them, from exact information on all that relates to the schools of the place, to judge correctly of their wants, and of the best means of supplying them ; to keep alive the zeal of the teachers, and give them advice and direction.

“ 7. Their immediate jurisdiction shall extend over all the primary schools of the town, and the educational establishments of the same grade ; over the orphan-houses, the poor's schools, and those supported by pious endowments in the towns and their suburbs.

“ They shall superintend and direct the internal as well as the external affairs of these establishments ; and in this respect they represent the whole authority of the town, except in the election of the head master, the administration of the property, and management of the judicial matters of the schools.

“ The several committees of the different circles of large towns shall have the superintendence of their several schools ; but they are subordinate to the school-commission of the same towns.

“ 8. Their superintendence shall extend to the primary schools and houses of education of the same grade belonging to the church or to other corporate

bodies, only in as far as it shall be necessary to keep these schools within the limits of the law, their management being left to those whom it concerns. The commission can have no cognisance of those schools, except through the reports of the special managing bodies, from which it will derive the required information on the internal and external condition of such schools; it shall, however, have power to procure more exact information by the visits of such of its members as are conversant with these matters.

“9. The school-commission has no other connexion with the gymnasia of the town, than the receiving the information necessary for regulating the attendance of the children who are of an age to go there.

“10. The particular schools of small Christian sects in towns shall hold the same relation to the commission and committees of the town schools, as the same schools in the country do to the inspectors of circles.

“11. Every Jewish school in a town should have a managing body of its own, composed of members of the Jewish community; but such schools shall also be subject to the superintendence of the school-committees, which may not only demand of the managers any information they may need, but by frequent visits may ascertain the actual state of such schools.

“12. All private establishments for instruction or education in large towns are under the superintendence of the school-commission, through the medium of the school-committees; and in small towns, under that of the committees, as we shall see hereafter.

“13. The labours of these committees, and of the commission, shall be so divided amongst the members, that the external affairs of the school shall fall more especially to the charge of the laymen, and the

internal arrangements to that of the clergy, and of those peculiarly versed in such matters.

“14. The school-commission and the committees of circles shall regularly meet once a month, and shall hold extraordinary meetings whenever circumstances require. The presidents or chairmen of these meetings shall always be elected for three years by the members, and confirmed by the provincial consistories.

“Questions shall be determined by a majority of voices, except such as relate to the internal affairs of the school, which shall be decided by the opinion of the ecclesiastical members and those familiar with the subject; but no person in the commission shall have two votes, even when he holds two offices.

“15. The committees shall be free to convoke all or part of the clergy and schoolmasters of the circle, to assist in extraordinary meetings.

“16. The servants and officers of the municipal authorities also work for the school-committees and commissions, when the local school-funds are not able to pay officers of their own.

“17. The members of the committees and commissions fill their posts gratuitously. The treasurers (*Rendanten*) alone shall have a claim to remuneration, proportioned to their services.

“18. At the end of each year the school-commissions shall send up to the provincial consistories circumstantial reports of the condition of the schools within their jurisdiction. In small towns, and in the country, this report shall be made through the inspectors of circles,—a new school-authority, whose character and functions must now be explained.

Authorities or Officers of Circles.

“1. There shall be a general superintendence of the lower schools in the country and in the small

towns of a circle, as also of all the managing committees of these schools: and this superintendence shall be exercised by the overseer or inspector of the circle (*Kreisschulaufseher* or *Kreisschulinspector*).

“The school-circles shall be the same as, or shall be commensurate with, the circles of ecclesiastical superintendence for protestants, and the corresponding divisions for catholics.

“Those ecclesiastical circles which are too wide for one range of school-inspection, shall be divided into two or three circles of school-inspection.

“2. In general, the superintendents shall be the circle-inspectors for the evangelical (*i. e.* protestant) schools; and therefore great care shall be taken, at the time of their nomination, to raise to this post none but clergymen who possess, besides the qualities indispensable in their profession, a considerable acquaintance with schools, who enter upon it with zeal and alacrity, and who are fit for their office. Clergymen who are not superintendents, may be appointed inspectors of school-circles, particularly when an ecclesiastical circle shall be divided into several circles of school-inspection; and also when it is desired by the superintendent himself, on account of his age, infirmities, or multiplied occupations; or when the provincial consistory, for other important reasons, shall deem it advisable. In the two first cases, it is necessary to have the assent of the superintendent to the choice of the inspector of the circle; in the last, the opinion of the minister of public instruction and ecclesiastical affairs shall be taken.

“Laymen also, when circumstances require, may be appointed circle-inspectors, with the previous approbation of the minister of public instruction and ecclesiastical affairs; but especial care shall be taken to choose none but such men as are remarkable for good sense, and activity in the cause of education, and

who are generally esteemed for the dignity of their character and conduct.

“3. The circle-inspectors for catholic schools are commonly the deans. The appointment of other ecclesiastics, or of laymen, as inspectors of school-circles, is authorised in like cases and on like conditions as in the evangelical (protestant) schools.

“4. The circle-inspectors for protestant schools shall be nominated by the provincial consistories, and confirmed by the minister of public instruction.

“The circle-inspectors for catholic schools shall be proposed by the bishops, and presented, with a statement of the grounds of recommendation, by the provincial consistories to the minister of public instruction, who confirms the appointment. The minister shall have the power to refuse the confirmation, if well-founded objections can be established against the party, and to require the bishop to propose a new candidate.

“Without the previous confirmation of the minister of public instruction, no circle-inspector, protestant or catholic, shall be installed or enter upon his office.

“5. The duties of the circle-inspectors shall be, to examine into the interior of schools, and the conduct of the committees and masters of such schools. The whole system of teaching and of education pursued in the schools shall be submitted to their revision and their superior direction.

“They shall strive to arrange each school in harmony with the present law, with the particular rules of the provincial consistories for each province, and with the instructions those consistories may issue.

“They shall animate and direct the schoolmasters and the ecclesiastical members of the committees, encourage those who do well, admonish betimes those who do ill; and, if these admonitions are insufficient,

report them to the higher authorities. The same obligation is imposed upon them with respect to the moral conduct of the schoolmasters. One essential part of their task is, to watch over and promote the continual improvement of the head masters and their assistants.

“ 6. The inspectors of circles shall take care to be constantly informed on the state of the schools in their circle, by means of the reports which the parochial committees are bound to send them every six months, of all changes and events of any importance occurring in the schools; by attending the examinations; by making as many visits as possible in person and unexpected, and by the solemn revisions which every circle-inspector is to make once every year of all the schools within his district. At these revisions they shall examine the children in public; they shall also inquire into all that concerns the school; they shall exact an account of the internal and external administration from the committee of management; listen to the complaints or the wishes of the members of the association, and take measures to remedy whatever is amiss. They shall send a complete report of the revision to the provincial consistories, which from time to time shall appoint councillors from their own body to assist in these revisions, or order revisions extraordinary.

“ 7. In what relates to the external affairs of the country schools, the circle-inspectors shall act in concert with the councillors of the circle included within the range of their inspection. These councillors (*Landrätke*) shall give active attention to all things which concern the external state of the schools, whether their co-operation have been claimed by the inspectors of circles or by the provincial consistories.

“ 8. The installation of the school-committees of

management is conducted by the circle-inspectors ; but these shall invariably give notice to the councillor of the circle (*Landrath*), that he may be present at the ceremony.

“ 9. All orders, all inquiries of the provincial consistories relative to the internal affairs of the schools, shall be addressed to the circle-inspectors ; and, on the other hand, it is their place to lay the internal wants of the schools, and of their masters, before the provincial consistories.

“ The inspectors of catholic schools shall be bound to give the bishop of their diocese every information required of them on all the religious part of the constitution of schools, and their spiritual discipline ; they shall receive the instructions of the bishops on this subject : but their first duty is to make known to the provincial consistories the general state of the schools. On the other hand, they shall communicate to the bishops the report of the annual revision addressed to the provincial consistories.

“ 10. The protestant inspectors, both in this capacity and in virtue of the places they already hold as ecclesiastics, are in connexion with the synods ; but they, as well as the clerical members of the committees of management, shall inform the synods of the condition and wants of the schools, and shall interchange the fruits of their experience and their opinions on primary education at their meetings. Suggestions on this subject may be inserted in the reports of the synods. The lay-inspectors shall give the synods written accounts of the state of the schools in their jurisdiction.

“ 11. The superintendence of the schools of peculiar churches, such as the scattered members of the smaller Christian sects in the country, is confided to the inspectors of circles.

“ 12. Private establishments for education in the

country shall also be committed to the superintendence of the said inspectors.

“But with respect to general police, they are, like the establishments above mentioned, in the jurisdiction of the ordinary police-authorities of the country.

“13. Every school-inspector shall receive an annual allowance for the travelling expenses of the revisions and visitations made in the course of his duty. The provincial consistories shall determine the sum, as well as the funds from which it shall be drawn.

“At the time of the annual revision of the schools, the school-associations shall fetch and send back the circle-inspectors ; but for extraordinary visits out of their districts, they shall (according to the ordinance of the 28th February 1816, relative to allowances for board and travelling,) either travel post with three horses, or hire a carriage, and send in their account to the departmental authorities.

“14. The provincial consistories shall publish more precise instructions, based upon this law, relative to the powers of the circle-inspectors over the schools of both communions.

“But in confirming and determining here anew (says the royal edict of 1819) the share of the clergy in the superintendence of the schools, we at the same time ordain, to the end that they may exercise this superintendence in a more enlightened manner, and that they may thus be enabled to maintain their dignity with the schoolmasters, that every clergyman, whether of the protestant or catholic church, study both the theory and practice of popular instruction; that he strive to render his studies, whether at the university, the catholic faculties of theology, or the primary normal schools, available to this end; and, if he do not himself teach in the public schools whilst he is a candidate for holy orders, that at least he acquaint

himself with their organization, and with the subjects there taught.

“ At the time of the examinations for a curacy, or for the office of pastor, particular attention shall be paid to the knowledge the candidate possesses on the subject of education and teaching; and, in future, none shall be admitted into holy orders, if at these examinations he do not give proof of the knowledge necessary for the right management and superintendence of schools. In the provinces possessing establishments in which the clerical candidates can acquire such knowledge, this regulation shall come into force in one year after the promulgation of the present law; and at the end of two years, in provinces which have not the same advantages.

“ From a just reliance on the religious sentiments and enlightened views of the whole ecclesiastical body, we are confident that the share of salutary superintendence of the lower schools, which is entrusted to them in order to preserve the bond between the church and the schools, will be performed with dignity, but also with gentleness and love; that they will honour the respectable profession of teacher in the persons of all its members; that they will endeavour to secure to them, in their parishes, the consideration which is their due, and will always support them with vigour and firmness.”

The law of 1819 concludes with the circle-inspector. But I ought to add, that above this inspector, the departmental councillor to whom he addresses himself, and who, in the business of primary instruction, represents the departmental authorities so often mentioned here, is the school-councillor (*Schulrath*), an officer belonging to the council of civil administration of

the department, and who nevertheless is named by the minister of public instruction and ecclesiastical affairs. This administrative council of the department, the regency (*Regierung*), represented by the *Schulrath*, must not be confounded with the provincial consistories, of which the school-board (*Schulcollegium*) forms a part. This high scholastic authority, which is *provincial* and not *departmental*, does not interfere with primary instruction, except on the most important points; as, for example, on all that relates to the primary normal schools, which are above the jurisdiction of the several regencies, of the *Schulrath*, and of the circle-inspector.—[See above, *General Organization of Public Instruction*, pp. 15—19].

TITLE VI.

PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

- Public schools are the basis of popular instruction in Prussia. The government of that country takes good care not to leave to chance or private speculation the noble task of the training of youth; nor does primary instruction depend at all upon private schools. Establishments of this kind, however, are not proscribed; custom, as well as the law of 1819 (§§ 91—113), authorizes them, on the conditions hereinafter defined.

“Under the denomination of private establishments of instruction and education, are comprehended scholastic institutions, founded by persons of either sex, at their own proper cost, and without receiving any salary for it from the state or the parish;

always, however, with the approval of the state, which, without interfering with the details of their management, exercises a general supervision over them. These regulations for private schools are not applicable to individuals chosen by families to conduct the education of their children.

“Those who wish to establish schools, or houses for private education, shall announce the same, in towns to the school-commission, and in the country to the inspector of the circle in which they intend forming their establishment, by presenting a regular certificate of their conduct and profession up to that time. When the moral conduct of the applicant is unexceptionable, the commissioners and inspectors shall forward the petition to the provincial consistory, which shall cause him to be examined, according to the circumstances of the case; ordinarily, by the circle-inspector, in the case of country schools; and in towns, by those members of the commissions who are familiar with these matters. After the examination, the examiners shall return the certificates and other papers, with their opinion, to the provincial consistory.

“The examination shall always be according to the rank of the school which the petitioner wishes to establish; he shall therefore always specify in his address whether he wishes to establish an elementary school or one of a higher order.

“The petitions of married persons of both sexes shall, in general, be granted, provided there be no objection to the parties themselves; but unmarried men shall not have permission to establish either middle or higher schools for girls. On the other hand, this permission shall never be refused to widows and unmarried women of a certain age, when there are, in other respects, no unfavourable circumstances.

“If the provincial consistory find no obstacle to the granting of the petition, it shall send its sanction or license to the general administration for schools in towns, or to the inspector of the circle, mentioning the details of the certificates, and particularly indicating the kind of school which the petitioner shall be allowed to establish.

“It is not till after this license has been granted, that the persons whom it concerns shall be permitted to open their houses of education, and to announce the same in the public papers.

“Whoever possesses a certificate given by the scientific commission of examination attached to the provincial consistory*, and desires to establish a private school, shall present this certificate to the provincial consistory, which shall send the necessary license to the school-authorities of the town or district. There is no reason why permission to establish a private school should be refused, when the petitioner produces, together with his testimonies of morality and good conduct, a certificate of ability, even though this certificate was originally obtained without any view to the establishment of a private school.

“Pastors and public teachers are not authorized by their profession alone to open private schools; they shall present their petition on this subject to the local school-authorities, who shall transmit it, with their opinion, to the provincial authorities. These last shall decide, and grant the license in the usual way.

“As soon as license to establish a school or house of private instruction has been given, the committee of management, or the school-commission, is bound to assign this establishment to the special supervision of one of its members, and to inform the

* See above, *General Organization*, p. 17.

police of its opening. In the case of a country school, the police shall be informed by the inspectors of circles.

“The superintendence of private establishments has relation to the discipline and to the progress of instruction in general. The particular plan of tuition, the choice of books, of methods, and the rules of the school, shall be left to the masters and mistresses; but, even in these, the spontaneous suggestions of an enlightened superintendence may be of service. Should anything, however, be discovered, calculated to lead youth astray, or to endanger their morality or piety, should it be found that bad masters or bad books are employed, the inspectors shall remonstrate; and if these remonstrances do not avail to remove the evil, their duty then is to demand an investigation by the provincial consistories, and, after such investigation, these shall have power, upon sufficient reasons, to withdraw the license and shut up the school.

“The establishment of a school of any other degree than that specified in the license is strictly forbidden. Those who have obtained a license to establish certain schools, and wish to establish others, must pass through a new examination, and must apply for that purpose to the provincial consistories.

“The directors and directresses of private establishments in large towns, may receive as many pupils as choose to come to them, so long as this is of no disadvantage to their school; they may reside in what part of the town they please, but they shall send the school-commission a written notice of any changes of residence.

“If the public schools fear injury from the neighbourhood of private ones, they have only to endeavour to avert the evil by redoubling their efforts after perfection.

“As to terms, the masters and mistresses of private schools shall be entirely free to fix, change, or remit them, either wholly or in part; only they shall be bound to give, when required by the school-authorities, the most exact information on this point.

“The choice of assistant masters or mistresses is in like manner the business of the director or directress who has obtained a license; only they must make strict inquiry into the morality of the assistants. They shall give no religious instruction without the permission of the ecclesiastical authorities; and whenever they send away assistants, or engage new ones, they shall inform their superintendent. They shall be responsible for all their assistants, and expose themselves to the loss of their license, if, both in engaging and controlling them, they do not act in the most rigorously conscientious manner.

“At all the solemn examinations of the schools and houses of private education, the special inspectors of such establishments shall be invited to attend. Public examinations, recitations, or other exhibitions, are prohibited in girls' schools, private as well as public.

“The license given to a founder or foundress of a private school shall be valid only for the person whose name it bears.

“This license extends only to the life of the holder, and so long only as he is able to fulfill the obligations it imposes.

“Those directors and directresses who wish to break up their establishments, shall announce the same in writing, and send back their license. If a private school be shut up for six months, unless from necessity (as for instance in consequence of sickness), a new license must be obtained from the commission or the inspector of the circle, though a new examination is not necessary.

“Those who have already opened private schools without a license according to the form prescribed by the present law, shall submit to a scrupulous investigation on the part of the school-authorities; and from the results of this inquiry, and of the examination which they shall undergo, it shall be determined whether permission to continue their school shall be granted them or not.

“Such persons shall, for this purpose, present themselves to the competent authorities at the latest within three months after the promulgation of this law; if not, at the expiration of that time their schools shall be shut, without other formality, by the police of the place.

“The local school-authorities shall, within the same period of time, send a list of the schools not yet licensed to the provincial consistories, by whom the masters shall be summoned to undergo an examination; and also a list of the schools which, from the course they have previously gone through, shall be exempted from this measure.

“Whoever, after the promulgation of the present law, shall illicitly establish a private school, must expect not only that the school thus clandestinely established will be broken up, but he shall not be permitted to open a private school for three years, even though in other respects his qualifications appear satisfactory.

Boarding-Schools.

“Those who receive young persons as boarders shall also ask permission, even when they intend the instruction to be given by private masters, or in other schools. The local school-authorities shall examine into the moral fitness of the parties, and whether their house be suited to their undertaking; and, if no objection present itself on any point, they

shall grant the license required, which shall not need to be confirmed by the provincial consistory.

"If the directors and directresses of private establishments, already licensed, desire to take boarders also, they shall submit to the like examination by the local authorities, and also, express mention shall be made in their licenses of the new permission given them to receive boarders.

"Boarding-schools shall be under the immediate superintendence of the town-commissions, who shall give them special superintendents, examine them from time to time, and inquire generally into the physical as well as moral education of the boarders.

Schools for teaching to sew, knit, and embroider.

"The schools in which nothing is taught but sewing, knitting, and embroidery, are not included among the private schools referred to here; but since they have for a long time been in the practice of giving the same sort of instruction as other schools, it is here ordered, that not only shall a license for schools of this kind be procured from the school- as well as the police-authorities, (since this falls within the description of a handicraft,) but those who keep such schools, not having the right to undertake the instruction of children, shall not admit any that have not already gone through the ordinary course of instruction, or that are not receiving it at the same time that they take lessons in these manual works. From this day forth no child shall be received into schools for sewing, knitting, &c. without permission from the committee of superintendence, in a certificate, which shall be preserved by the persons at the head of the establishments, attesting that the child has already had the benefit of, or continues to receive, primary instruction.

Of Masters who give lessons by the hour.

“Those whose profession is to give lessons in private houses, shall present themselves to the inspectors of circles or the school-commissions, that they may satisfy them of their capability and irreproachable conduct, and to obtain a certificate which shall serve as a license, and which shall be withdrawn if they are guilty of immoral or illegal conduct.

“Persons who teach at particular hours, and on some special subjects only, need not have a license ; only if they intend to give religious instruction, they shall present themselves to the provincial ecclesiastical authorities, or, if they are catholics, to the bishop of the diocese ; and these authorities shall cause them to be examined and shall license them.

Infant-Schools, or Dames' Schools, (Asyles.)

“Women, and particularly schoolmasters' widows, shall be permitted to take under their care, during the day, children who are not yet old enough to go to school. In respect of these persons, the town and country school-authorities shall merely see that their conduct is without reproach, and suited for the earliest training of children ; that their dwelling is healthy, and sufficiently large ; that they do not keep the children beyond the age at which they should go to school ; and lastly, that they have sufficient capacity to exercise a beneficial influence over the manners and reason of the children. To establish these infant-schools, which shall likewise be under the superintendence of a special inspector, it shall only be necessary to have the consent of the town school-commissions and the inspectors of circles.”

The six points, Sir, which I have now gone over in succession, embrace the entire organiza-

- tion of primary instruction in Prussia. There is not a single article which is not translated from the text of the law of 1819. This law, without going into detail with relation to any particular branch, omits no topic of interest, and is the most extensive and complete law on primary instruction of which I have any knowledge.

It is impossible not to be struck with its profound wisdom. No inapplicable general principles, no spirit of system, no partial or exclusive views govern the legislator. He avails himself of all the means that can conduce to his end, however widely these means may differ. It is a king, and an absolute king, who issued this law ; it is an irresponsible minister who advised or who digested it ; and yet we find no injudicious spirit of centralization or of official despotism (*bureaucratie ministérielle*) ; almost everything is left to the parochial, departmental, or provincial authorities ; little more than the general supervision and direction are reserved to the minister. The clergy have a great share in the management of popular instruction, and householders are also consulted in the towns and villages. In a word, all persons or classes who have an interest in the subject, find their appropriate place in this organization, and concur, each in his own manner and degree, to the common end, which is, the civilization of the people.

• On these grounds the Prussian law of 1819 appears to me excellent ; nor is it to be imagined, that such a law could be conceived and matured

by the wisdom of an individual. Baron von Altenstein rather digested than created it. Indeed we may almost say, that it already existed in a vast number of partial and detached ordinances, and in the manners and customs of the country. There is, perhaps, not a single article of this long law to which numerous anterior regulations did not serve as a groundwork; and, in a paper on the history of primary instruction in Prussia inserted in the first number of the second volume of the *Journal of Primary Instruction*, by Councillor von Beckedorff, I find rules as old as the years 1728 and 1736 which comprise a number of the provisions of the law of 1819. The obligation of parents to send their children to school is of great antiquity in Prussia. The powerful and active superintendence exercised by the church over the education of the people, dates from the origin of protestantism, of which it is an inherent characteristic. It is evident that the authors of a revolution effected in the name of liberty of conscience must necessarily labour at the emancipation of the popular mind, and the diffusion of knowledge, as the only secure means of defending their cause and rooting it in the minds of the people. Unquestionably the law of 1819 raises education to a sufficiently high pitch in the elementary schools and those for the middle classes; but if the course of instruction seem somewhat too full for some places or districts, it must be remembered that it was already acted up to, and even surpassed, in many others. The boldest measure was the establish-

ment of a grand primary normal school for each department; but there were already similar establishments in most of the old provinces of the monarchy. In short, this law does little more than methodize what already existed, not only in Prussia, but throughout Germany*.

It is not, then, a metaphysical, arbitrary and artificial abstraction, like the greater part of our laws on primary instruction; it is founded on reality and experience, and has, for that reason, been carried into execution, and produced the happiest results with extraordinary rapidity. Having taken care to ascertain that it was everywhere practicable, the Prussian minister peremptorily required that it should everywhere be practised; leaving the details to the authorities appointed to execute them, and reserving to himself only the general guidance and supervision. This guidance has been so firm, this supervision has been so vigilant, and the parochial, departmental and provincial authorities (*i. e.* the *Schulcollegium* or school-board in the provincial consistories, the *Schulrath* in each departmental council, or regency, the *Commissions* in the towns, and the *Committees* in each urban or rural parish)—in short all the individuals or bodies entrusted with the management of schools have displayed so steady and well-directed a zeal, that in almost every part of the kingdom the reality actually goes beyond the law; and, on all points at least where zeal alone is required, even more is done than is commanded. Thus,

* See in the former part of the *Rapport* all that regards primary instruction at Frankfort, Weimar, and Leipsig.

for instance, the law established one great primary normal school in each department; now, not only is this fulfilled to the letter, but in many departments there are, besides, several small subsidiary normal schools;—a result which implies all the others; since primary normal schools can flourish only in proportion to the demand for masters, and the existence of situations affording a decent subsistence to masters says everything that can be said as to the prevalence of primary instruction. Schoolmasters are regarded by the law of Prussia as servants of the state; as such, they have a claim to a retiring pension in their old age; and in every department a society, which the law recommended rather than enjoined, has been formed for the relief of the widows and orphans of schoolmasters. I have before me the regulations of a great number of these societies, and I transmit them for your inspection. The results are the same in all, though the means employed vary more or less. If this report were not already too long, I should have subjoined a translation of one of these lists of regulations*, as a sort of model for the associations of the same kind which I wish to see formed in every department of France.

The law required plans of school-houses of different sizes, and commanded that none should be built or repaired except according to such plans. The ministry has shown the most

* A translation of these regulations is given in M. Cousin's Appendix; but as they are little more than one application of the principle of benefit-clubs, so well understood here, I have omitted them.—TRANSL.

praiseworthy perseverance on this point, and I have now under my eye a general order addressed to all the regencies, containing a detailed description of the best and most economical manner of building school-houses. I send you, together with this order, six plans of houses of different sizes for primary normal schools. I earnestly request that you will have them examined, and, if they are approved, will send similar ones into all our departments; for the construction of school-houses which are to serve both for boys and girls must not be left to inexperience, or to an injudicious economy.

The greatest difficulty was to obtain from the new provinces, and particularly those on the Rhine, so recently annexed to the monarchy, the execution of that article of the law which imposes on parents, under severe penalties, the obligation of sending their children to school. The ministry had the wisdom to suspend this part of the law in these provinces, and to labour to bring about the same results by persuasion and zeal. When the taste for instruction had been thus gradually diffused, and the population of these provinces appeared sufficiently prepared for such a measure, the law was rendered obligatory. This took place in 1825, and from that moment it has been steadily and rigorously enforced. I have now before me an order of the regency of Köln, dated 1827, by which the Cabinet-order of the 14th of May 1825, on the obligation of attending school, is enforced. I have a similar order of the regency of Aachen (*Aix-la-Chapelle*) dated March 7, 1826, and another

of that of Düsseldorf of the 20th of July of the same year. The law has everywhere been carried into effect, but with a judicious mixture of gentleness and severity : thus, in 1826, which was a remarkably bad year, the ministry even saw fit to moderate the zeal of the local administrations, and to enjoin them not to compel the parishes to contribute to the repairs and improvements of schools, but first to have recourse to every means of persuasion. This circular is dated the 12th of May 1826. It appeared to me useful to study the manner in which the government applied the general law of 1819 to the Grand Duchy of Posen, so far behind the Rhenish provinces in civilization. I have accordingly collected a great number of documents, which prove the wisdom of the course pursued by the ministry, and the progress which popular instruction and civilization, over which it presides, have made throughout the Polish part of the kingdom. It would also be desirable that all the instructions which emanated from the ministry, or from the provincial bodies, with a view of applying the law of 1819 to the Jews, should be published in French. It would be seen what measures were taken to diffuse the taste for knowledge among a portion of the Prussian people, who, though numerous and wealthy, are generally unenlightened, and dread the effect which attendance on public schools may have on the faith of their children.

Without question, Sir, in the present state of things, a law concerning primary instruction is indispensable in France ; the question is,

how to produce a good one, in a country where there is a total absence of all precedent and all experience in so grave a matter. The education of the people has hitherto been so neglected,—so few trials have been made, or those trials have succeeded so ill, that we are entirely without those universally received notions, those predilections rooted in the habits and the mind of a nation, which are the conditions and the bases of all good legislation. I wish, then, for a law; and at the same time I dread it; for I tremble lest we should plunge into visionary and impracticable projects again, without attending to what actually exists. God grant that we may be wise enough to see that any law on primary instruction passed now, must be a provisional and not a definitive law; that it must of necessity be re-constructed at the end of ten years, and that the only thing now to be aimed at is, to supply the most urgent wants, and to give a legal sanction to some incontestable points! What are these points? I shall endeavour, Sir, to determine them, following the path marked out by existing facts.

- The idea of compelling parents to send their children to school is perhaps not sufficiently diffused through the nation to justify the experiment of making it law; but everybody agrees in regarding the establishment of a school in every *commune* as necessary. It is also willingly conceded that the maintenance of this school must rest with the *commune*; always provided that, in case of inability through poverty, the *commune* shall apply to the depart-

ment, and the department to the state. This point may be assumed as universally admitted, and may therefore become law. Indeed practice has already anticipated law; for a year past all the municipal councils have voted as large a portion of their funds as they could possibly spare, for the support of popular instruction in their *communes*. Nothing further is required, therefore, than to annex to this fact, which is nearly universal, a legal obligation.

You are likewise aware, Sir, that many of the councils of departments have felt the necessity of securing a supply of schoolmasters, and a more complete education for them, and have, with this view, established primary normal schools in their departments. Indeed, they have often shown rather prodigality than parsimony on this head. This, too, is a most valuable and encouraging indication; and a law ordaining the establishment of a primary normal school in each department, as well as of a primary school in each *commune*, would do little more than confirm and generalize what is now actually doing in almost all parts of the country. Of course this primary normal school must be more or less considerable according to the resources of each department.

Here we have already two most important points on which the country is almost unanimously agreed. You have also, without doubt, been struck by the petitions of a number of towns, great and small, for the establishment of schools of a class rather higher than the

common primary schools ; such as, though still inferior in classical and scientific studies to our royal and communal *colléges*, might be more particularly adapted to give that kind of generally useful knowledge indispensable to the large portion of the population which is not intended for the learned professions, but which yet needs more extended and varied acquirements than the class of day-labourers and artisans. Such petitions are almost universal. Several municipal councils have voted considerable funds for the purpose, and have applied to us for the necessary authority, for advice and assistance. It is impossible not to regard this as the symptom of a real want,—the indication of a serious deficiency in our system of public instruction.

- You, Sir, are sufficiently acquainted with my zeal for classical and scientific studies ; not only do I think that we must keep up to the plan of study prescribed in our *colléges*, and particularly the philological part of that plan, but I think we ought to raise and extend it, and thus, while we maintain our incontestable superiority in the physical and mathematical sciences, endeavour to rival Germany in the solidity of our classical learning. Indeed, classical studies are, without any comparison, the most important of all ; for their tendency and their object is the knowledge of human nature, which they consider under all its grandest aspects ; here, in the languages and the literature of nations which have left indelible traces of their passage on earth ; there, in the fruitful

vicissitudes of history, constantly re-modelling and constantly improving the frame of society; lastly, in philosophy, which reveals the simplest elements, and the uniform structure of that wondrous being, whom history, language and literature successively invest with forms the most varied, yet all connected with some part, more or less important, of his internal constitution. Classical studies keep alive the sacred tradition of the moral and intellectual life of the human race. To curtail or enfeeble such studies would, in my eyes, be an act of barbarism, a crime against all true and high civilization, and in some sort an act of high treason against humanity.

Let our royal *colléges* then, and even a great proportion of our communal *colléges*, continue to lead the youth of France into this sanctuary; they will merit the thanks of their country. But can the whole population enter learned schools? or, indeed, is it to be wished that it should? Primary instruction with us, however, is but meagre; between that and the *colléges* there is nothing; so that a tradesman, even in the lower ranks of the middle classes, who has the honourable wish of giving his sons a good education, has no resource but to send them to the *collége*. Two great evils are the consequence. In general, these boys, who know that they are not destined to any very distinguished career, go through their studies in a negligent manner; they never get beyond mediocrity; and when, at about eighteen, they go back to the habits and the business of their

fathers, as there is nothing in their ordinary life to recall or to keep up their studies, a few years obliterate every trace of the little classical learning they acquired. On the other hand, these young men often contract tastes and acquaintances at *collège* which render it difficult, nay, almost impossible, for them to return to the humble way of life to which they were born : hence a race of men restless, discontented with their position, with others, and with themselves ; enemies of a state of society in which they feel themselves out of their place ; and with some acquirements, some real or imagined talent, and unbridled ambition, ready to rush into any career of servility or of revolt. The question then is, Sir, whether we are prepared to make ourselves responsible to the state and society for training up such a race of malcontents ? Unquestionably, as I shall take occasion to say elsewhere, a certain number of exhibitions (*bourses*) ought to be given to poor boys who evince remarkable aptness : this is a sacred duty we owe to talent ; a duty which must be fulfilled, even at the risk of being sometimes mistaken. These boys, chosen for the promise they give, go through their studies well and thoroughly, and on leaving school experience the same assistance they received on entering. Thus they are enabled, at a later period of life, to display their talents in the learned and liberal professions which are open to them, to the advantage of the state to which they owe their education. As, however, it is impossible for any government to find employment for everybody, it ought not to furnish facilities

for everybody to quit the track in which his fathers have trod. Our *colléges* ought, without doubt, to remain open to all who can pay the expense of them ; but we ought by no means to force the lower classes into them : yet this is the inevitable effect of having no intermediate establishments between the primary schools and the *colléges*. Germany, and Prussia more especially, are rich in establishments of this kind. I have described several in detail, at Frankfurt*, Weimar†, and Leipsig‡. The Prussian law of 1819 sanctions them§. You perceive, Sir, that I allude to the schools called tradesmen's or burghers' schools, or schools for the middle classes (*Bürgerschulen*), *écoles bourgeoises*,—a name which it is perhaps impossible to transplant into France, but which is accurate and expressive, as contradistinguishing them from the learned schools (*Gelehrteschulen*), called in Germany *gymnasia*, and in France *colléges*, (in England, 'grammar-schools'),—a name, too, honourable to the class for whose especial use and benefit they are provided,—honourable to those of a lower class, who by frequenting them can rise to a level with that above them. The burgher schools form the higher step of primary instruction, of which the elementary schools are the lower step. Thus there are but two steps or gradations : 1°. Elementary schools,—the common basis of all popular instruction in town and country ; 2°. Burgher schools, which, in towns

* See first part of the *Rapport*, p. 4—8.

† *Ibid.*, pp. 48—55.

‡ *Ibid.*, p. 125.

§ See Title III. pp. 51—56.

of some size and containing a middle class, furnish an education sufficiently extensive and liberal to all who do not intend to enter the learned professions. The Prussian law, which fixes a minimum of instruction for the elementary schools, likewise fixes a minimum of instruction for the burgher schools; and there are two kinds of examination, extremely distinct, for obtaining the brevet of primary teacher for these two gradations. The elementary instruction must be uniform and invariable, for the primary schools represent the body of the nation, and are destined to nourish and to strengthen the national unity; and, generally speaking, it is not expedient that the limit fixed by the law for elementary instruction should be exceeded: but this is not the case with the burgher schools, for these are designed for a class among whom a great many shades and diversities exist,—the middle class. It is therefore natural and reasonable that it should be susceptible of extension and elevation, in proportion to the importance of the town, and the character of the population for whom it is destined. In Prussia this class of schools has, accordingly, very different gradations, from the minimum fixed by the law, with which I have already made you acquainted*, to that point where it becomes closely allied with the gymnasium, properly so called. At this point it sometimes takes the name of Progymnasium.

I have now before me a report on the different progymnasias existing in the department of

* P. 56, 57.

Münster : you will see that these establishments are, as their title implies, preparatory gymnasias, in which classical and scientific instruction stops short within certain limits, but in which the middle or trading class may obtain a truly liberal education. In general, the German burgher schools, which are a little inferior to our communal *colléges* in classical and scientific studies, are incomparably superior to them in religious instruction, geography, history, modern languages, music, drawing, and national literature.

In my opinion, it is of the highest importance to create in France, under one name or another, burgher schools, or schools for the middle classes, which give a very varied education ; and to convert a certain number of our communal *colléges* into schools of that description. I regard this, Sir, as an affair of state. I entreat you not to listen to those who will tell you that we have several gradations in primary instruction, and that what I ask for has been already provided. It is no such thing : we have three stages it is true, but they are ill defined, which reduces the distinction to nothing. Besides, three degrees form an arbitrary classification, the reason of which I confess myself at a loss to find ; whereas the two degrees determined by the Prussian law are founded on the most obvious and natural distinctions. Lastly, while we circumscribe these two degrees within the limits of primary instruction, it is not unimportant to define and characterize them by different names. Those names in use among us

—schools of the third, second, and first degree, —mark nothing but abstract differences ; they say nothing to the imagination, and therefore do not impress themselves on the mind. In Prussia, the names of elementary school and of burgher school, representing the lowest and the higher degree of primary instruction, are popular and significant ; that of *Mittelschule* (middle or intermediate school), instead of *Bürgerschule*, is also in use in some parts of Germany*. I beg of you, Sir, to consider whether this name could not be introduced amongst us ; middle school and elementary school would comprehend the two essential degrees of primary instruction, and our primary normal schools would equally furnish masters to these two degrees ; for which, however, there would be two sorts of examination and two sorts of brevet. You would only have to fix a minimum of instruction for the middle schools, as you would doubtless do for the elementary ; having care to let each establishment gradually go beyond this minimum according to its resources, and, above all, according to its success.

This, Sir, appears to me to be substantially the object of all those petitions which the towns are now addressing to you ; some, for a change in the scheme of our communal *colléges* ; some, for instituting a course of instruction of a more general utility in our royal *colléges*, collaterally with the scientific and classical course now given ; some, to have schools for which they know not very well how to find a name, and

* Part I. of the *Rapport*, Letter I. p. 4—7.

which have sometimes been called *écoles industrielles*, in contradistinction from our *collèges*. On no account must you reduce or abridge the classical course of our *collèges*: on the contrary, I repeat, it ought to be rendered more profound and extensive. We must not introduce into our *collèges* two sorts of scholars; this would be contrary to all sound discipline, and would infallibly enfeeble the more difficult studies for the benefit of the more easy. Neither must we give the name of *écoles industrielles*—schools for the manufacturing and trading classes*—to schools where the pupils are not supposed as yet to have any special calling. The mass of the people are conscious only of their wants; to you, Sir, it belongs to discover the true means of satisfying those wants. There is a cry raised from one end of France to the other, demanding, on behalf of three fourths of the population, establishments which may fill the middle ground between the simple elementary schools and the *collèges*. The demands are urgent and almost unanimous. Here, then, we have another point of the highest importance, on which it would be easy to come to an understanding. The general wish, and numerous attempts, more or less successful, here call for the intervention of the legislature, and render it at once necessary and easy.

The most difficult point in a law on primary instruction is the determination what are the

* We have the word *commercial* as applied to schools, but these are notoriously so far from approaching the point M. Cousin aims at, that I dislike to employ it.—TRANSL.

authorities to be employed. Here also let us consult facts. Since you have been charged with the direction of public instruction, where, Sir, have you found an active, efficient ally in your solicitude for the education of the people? who have assisted you? who have made sacrifices in common with those of the state? who have built schools, paid masters, set on foot normal schools? In all directions it has been the municipal councils, and the councils of the departments, stimulated and represented by the *maires* and the prefects. Wherever the municipal and departmental councils have had the will, they have found the means; and they have had the will, wherever the *maires* and the prefects have had it too: and these latter have invariably followed the impulse of the superior authority which appoints them, and to which they are responsible. Here, then, is the clue you must follow. You must look for support and assistance from that quarter where you have always found them,—the quarter, I will add, in which the whole force and vitality of France reside. The French administration is the glory and the masterwork of the imperial government. The organization of France in *mairies* and prefectures, with municipal and departmental councils, is the foundation of government and of social order. This foundation has stood firm amidst so much ruin, that prudence and policy seem to point to it as the best and safest prop. Moreover, this organization has just been reformed and vivified by rendering the municipal and departmental councils elective and popular.

Thus the French administration unites all that we want, activity and popularity. The administration, then, is what you must call to your aid. Recollect, also, that it is these local councils that pay, and that you cannot fairly expect much from them unless they have a large share in the disbursement of the money they have voted. These councils are chosen out of the body of the people, and return to it again; they are incessantly in contact with the people; they *are* the people legally represented, as the *maires* and the prefects are these councils embodied, if I may so say, in one person, for the sake of activity and dispatch. I regard, then, as another incontestable point, the necessary intervention of the municipal and departmental councils in the management of public instruction. As there ought to be a school in every *commune*, so there ought to be for every communal school a special committee of superintendence, which ought to be formed out of the municipal council, and presided over by the *maire*. I shall perhaps be told, that men who are fit to conduct the business of the *commune* are not fit to superintend the communal school. I deny it: nothing is wanted for this superintendence but zeal, and fathers of families cannot want zeal where their dearest interests are concerned. In Prussia no difficulty is found in this matter, and every parish-school has its *Schulvorstand*, in great part elective. Over the heads of these local committees there ought to be a central committee in the chief town of each department, chosen out of the council of the

department, and presided over by the prefect. The committee of each *commune* would correspond with the committee of the department ; that is to say, in short, the *maire*, with the prefect. This correspondence would stimulate the zeal of both committees. By it, the departmental committee would know what is the annual supply of schoolmasters required for the whole department, and consequently, the number of masters the normal school of the department ought to furnish, and consequently, the number of pupils it ought to admit. It would have incessantly to urge on the zeal of the local committees in establishing and improving schools, for the sake of providing as well as possible for the pupils it sends out of its normal school. Nothing can be more simple than this organization. It is, applied to primary instruction, what takes place in the ordinary administration : I mean, the combined action of the municipal councils and the departmental councils,—of the *maires* and the prefects.

After the administrative authorities, it is unquestionably the clergy who ought to occupy the most important place in the business of popular education. How is it possible they could neglect, nay even repugn, such a mission ? But that they have done so is a fact, which, however deplorable, we are bound to acknowledge. The clergy in France are generally indifferent, or even hostile, to the education of the people. Let them blame themselves if the law does not give them great influence over primary instruction ; for it was their duty to anticipate the law,

and to take up a position which they must necessarily have continued to occupy. The law, offspring of facts, will therefore place small reliance on the clergy; but if it rejected them altogether, it would commit an egregious fault; for it would set the clergy in decided opposition to primary instruction, and would engage in a conflict, open, scandalous and perilous. The rational middle course is to put the *curé* or the pastor*, and if need be both, on every communal committee; and the highest dignitary of the church in each department, on the departmental committee. To make ecclesiastics presidents of these committees, as the restored government did with regard to its committees of cantons, would be neither more nor less than to intend what that government intended, viz. that these committees should never meet at all, or should meet to no end. On the other hand, to exclude ecclesiastics from our committees, as certain persons who fancy themselves great philosophers would fain do, would be a reaction very pernicious in various ways. We must neither deliver over our committees into the hands of the clergy, nor exclude them; we must admit them, because they have a right to be there, and to represent the religion of the country. The men of good sense, good manners, and of consideration in their neighbourhood, of whom these committees ought to be, and will be, composed, will gradually gain ascendancy over their ecclesiastical colleagues, by treating them with the respect due to their sacred func-

* i. e. the catholic and the protestant clergyman.—TRANSL.

tions. We must have the clergy; we must neglect nothing to bring them into the path towards which everything urges them to turn,—both their obvious interest, and their sacred calling, and the ancient services which their order rendered to the cause of civilization in Europe. But if we wish to have the clergy allied with us in the work of popular instruction, that instruction must not be stripped of morality and religion; for then indeed it would become the duty of the clergy to oppose it, and they would have the sympathy of all virtuous men, of all good fathers of families, and even of the mass of the people, on their side. Thank God, Sir, you are too enlightened a statesman to think that true popular instruction can exist without moral education, popular morality without religion, or popular religion without a church. Christianity ought to be the basis of the instruction of the people; we must not flinch from the open profession of this maxim; it is no less politic than it is honest. We baptize our children, and bring them up in the Christian faith and in the bosom of the church; in after-life, age, reflection, the breath of human opinions, modify their early impressions, but it is good that these impressions should have been made by Christianity. Popular education ought therefore to be religious, that is to say, Christian; for, I repeat it, there is no such thing as religion in general; in Europe, and in our days, religion means Christianity. Let our popular schools then be Christian; let them be so entirely and earnestly. By degrees the clergy will open

their eyes, and will lend us efficacious assistance. Indeed, it seems to me impossible that poor priests, scattered through remote villages, dependent on the people, to whom they owe their subsistence, and among whom they live, should long escape the enlightened influence of a power at once national, strong and benevolent. The higher clergy are yours by your power of nomination, and by their temporal interests. By degrees they will come into your views. Meantime, let us watch them ; but treat them with respect, and with regard for their interests and their office. Let us throw open our schools to them, for we have nothing to conceal ; let us call upon them to cooperate in the holy work we are undertaking. If, after all we can do, they refuse their assistance, we shall have vindicated our prudence and fulfilled our duty. The rest is in the hand of Providence, veiled amid the impenetrable destinies of European society.

But, Sir, you will have remarked that I have not alluded to the share which the university should have in public instruction. In the first place, I profess myself ignorant of what the university now is ; I know no university but the imperial university ; and that, after having rendered eminent services, expired in 1815. It was succeeded, first, by the royal commission of public instruction, and afterwards by the ministry of public instruction and ecclesiastical affairs. That is the law of the land as at present established. Now nobody contests that the proceedings of the communal and depart-

mental committees, the *maires*, sub-prefects and prefects, ought, like all the other parts of the administration, to refer to one common centre, from which a vigorous impulse and a supreme guidance may emanate, and upon whom all the responsibility before the chambers may rest.

This centre, in France, as in Prussia, is, the ministry and council of public instruction. This is not only according to law, but to nature and reason. It is perfectly consistent to leave primary instruction to the minister who has all the rest of public instruction, as well as ecclesiastical affairs, in his hands; that is to say, the two things with which the education of the people is the most intimately connected. What could be gained by consigning primary instruction to the office of the minister of the interior? If the arts have been put there, that is a capital error which must on no account be repeated. Has any evil resulted from the present order of things? Far from it: everybody is agreed that the minister and his council have done a great deal for primary instruction since the revolution of July. As you, Sir, would have been able to effect nothing without the municipal and departmental councils, the *maires* and prefects, so those authorities acknowledge that they could have done little or nothing without your cooperation and direction. It is you who excited their zeal, who supported and encouraged them; you who, as the enlightened dispenser of the funds placed in your hands by the two chambers, have given vigour to public in-

struction, by giving proportionate aid to necessitous places. You will render an account to the chambers, and I do not think your statements will induce them to reverse the actual division of public business, or to abridge your powers, which they ought rather to extend. Reasonable men do not wish to take primary instruction out of your hands; they know that it properly falls within your department.

So far there are no difficulties; but difficulties will arise as soon as you seek to govern primary instruction by means of your ordinary agents, the academical rectors and inspectors. Here you have to encounter an almost universal resistance. We must inquire into the causes of this resistance. People in general do not see what primary instruction has to do with academical or university education or discipline: they think that this instruction being essentially communal and departmental, the authorities under whose superintendence it naturally falls are those of the *commune* and the department. They think, too, that primary instruction demands constant, and therefore local, superintendence; and they think that the rector and the inspectors of an *académie**, which often embraces three, four, or five departments,—as for instance that of Brittany,—are incapable of such superintendence, seeing that in Germany there is a special inspector not only for every regency, but for every circle. And besides, between ourselves, with some few exceptions, your academical inspectors inspect

* See Explanatory Preface.

very little more than your inspectors-general. In short, I shall never cease to repeat,—no inspections are good for anything that are not special. The same man cannot, to any purpose, inspect faculties, royal and communal *colléges*, a countless mass of institutions, boarding-schools, and establishments of primary instruction, all differing very widely. These different stages of instruction demand different inspectors. I therefore strongly recommend the creation of a special inspector of primary instruction for each department. Our academic inspectors should be reserved for schools of the second class, which will suffice, and more than suffice, to employ all their powers and all their diligence. Your natural agents and correspondents for primary instruction are the prefects, who would preside over the departmental committees, and to whom the correspondence of *maires* and communal committees, as well as the report of the departmental inspector, would be addressed.

The prefects would correspond officially with you, as they have hitherto done extra-officially; and there would be a councillor in the central council of public instruction, specially charged with the reports to be made on that portion of the business, as in fact there is now. This machinery is very simple, and would produce quick results; being less complex, it would work more freely. The only thing in which I would employ agents taken from the body of teachers would be, the commission of examination appointed for granting schoolmasters' brevets.

No one disputes that professors have peculiar qualifications, and all the necessary impartiality, for that office. I should wish, then, that the examination-commission should be appointed by you, and composed of masters or professors of the royal or the communal *colléges* of the department ; adding, for the religious part, a clergyman proposed by the bishop.

As to private teachers, and what people are pleased to call liberty of primary tuition, I can only repeat what I have said elsewhere*,—we must neither oppose it, nor reckon upon it. There are branches of the public service which must be secured against all casualties by the state, and in the first rank of these is primary instruction. It is the bounden duty of government to guarantee it against all caprices of public opinion, and against the variable and uncertain calculations of those who would engage in it as a means of subsistence. On this principle are founded our primary normal schools in each department, bound to furnish annually the average number of schoolmasters required by the department. We must rely exclusively on these normal schools for the regular supply of communal teachers.

But if, in the face of our primary communal schools, there are persons who, without having passed through the normal schools, choose to establish schools at their own risk and peril, it is obvious that they ought not only to be tolerated, but encouraged;—just as we rejoice that private institutions and boarding-

* Part I. of the *Rapport*, pp. 60, 61.

schools should spring up beside our royal and communal *colléges*. This competition cannot be otherwise than useful, in every point of view. If the private schools prosper, so much the better; they are at full liberty to try all sorts of new methods, and to make experiments in teaching, which, on such a scale, cannot be very perilous. At all events, there are our normal schools. Thus all interests are reconciled,—the duties of the state, and the rights of individuals; the claims of experience, and those of innovation. Whoever wishes to set up a private school must be subject to only two conditions, from which no school, public or private, can on any pretext be exempt,—the brevet of capacity, given by the commission of examination, and the supervision of the committee of the *commune* and of the inspector of the department. I would very readily give up the certificate of moral character, as illusory, and as implicitly contained in that of fitness, especially if there be, as there ought to be, a clergyman on the commission.

Here, much more than in Prussia, the privation of a schoolmaster's brevet ought to be pronounced only after a judicial sentence, and by an ordinary court of justice; only, that court must admit special proceedings for special offences. Indeed, everybody understands well enough that a man may be a very bad schoolmaster without having committed any of the crimes or misdemeanours provided against by the law.

All these measures, on which I will not enlarge, are more or less founded on existing

facts ; they have the sanction of experience ;— it would be simply advantageous to add that of law. On all the points concerning which the law is silent, experiments might be made. Among these experiments some would probably be successful : when sufficiently long practice had confirmed them, they might be inserted in a new law ; or *ordonnances* and instructions, maturely weighed by the royal council, would convert them into general and official measures. Nothing must pass into a law which has not the warranty of success. Laws are not to be perilous experiments on society ; they ought simply to sum up and to generalize the lessons of experience.

II.

STATISTICS OF PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

Sir,

You are now acquainted with the organization of primary instruction in the kingdom of Prussia. You know what are the legal duties of parents, and those of parishes; what the general objects of education, in the two different degrees into which primary instruction is divided; what the mode of recruiting, of appointing, and training masters; the system of superintendence, and the various authorities to which it is confided; in a word, you know the law. It is now time to enter upon details: you possess a tolerably complete idea of the external mechanism of popular instruction; you have still to learn what this mechanism has produced; that is to say,—

1. How many primary schools, elementary and burgher, there are in Prussia; how many children attend them; how many masters are employed, and what are their salaries.

2. How many primary normal schools there are, and what they cost.

I will endeavour, with the aid of official documents, to establish these statistics of primary instruction in Prussia*.

* The reader will find the latest, fullest and most accurate details on this subject in the Supplement, published by M. Cousin in 1833, and annexed to this volume, of which it forms a most important part. It gives a view of the state of public education in Prussia in the year 1831.—TRANSL.

It is evident that, in a country where popular instruction is essentially parochial and departmental, the firmest and best obeyed government cannot, by any exertion of care, obtain in a day complete information on all the schools in every village and every town throughout a great monarchy. In April 1819, the minister of public instruction, at the same time that he arranged and systematized all existing regulations respecting primary instruction, was desirous of ascertaining the precise point from which he started, and required from each of the Regencies tables, framed according to law, of all the existing town and country schools in their jurisdiction. These tables were not completed till February 1821, and the government published them some time after in Beckendorf's journal. They represent the state of these schools as long ago as 1821, or perhaps only in 1819, the time at which they were ordered and commenced. Now it appears from these tables that, even at that time, the kingdom contained 2462 town schools, with 3745 masters, and 17,623 village schools, with 18,140 masters. I subjoin the tables, which contain the number of town and village schools in each department of Prussia, with the protestant schools distinguished from the catholic, and an average of the salaries of the masters, protestant and catholic, of all the schools in each department.

TOWN SCHOOLS,

WITH THE AVERAGE SALARIES OF SCHOOLMASTERS.

No.	Regencies or departments.	Protest- ant schools.	Catholic schools.	Total number of schools.	Average salaries of schoolmasters.		
					Thlr.	Gr.	Pf.
1	Königsberg.....	97	16	113	{	Prot.	186 18
						Cath.	119
2	Gumbinnen.....	52	1	53			270 12
3	Dantzic	49	8	57			273 14
4	Marienwerder....	57	24	81			201 2
5	Posen	80	71	151			132 15
6	Bromberg	26	36 *	62			148 18
7	Berlin	101	1	102			639 6
8	Potsdam	131	1	132			236 19
9	Frankfurt-on-Oder	155	2	157	{	Prot.	223 15
						Cath.	102
10	Stettin	75	..	75			291 12
11	Cöslin	35	..	35			242
12	Stralsund	34	1	35			200 4
13	Breslau	58	45	103	{	Prot.	228
						Cath.	146
14	Oppeln	16	42	58			170-21 8
15	Reichenbach	33	33	66			180 19
16	Liegnitz	83	25	108	{	Prot.	179 6
						Cath.	145 2
17	Magdeburg.....	142	7	149			284
18	Merseburg.....	158	1	159			183 4
19	Erfurt	67	16	83	{	Prot.	134
						Cath.	104 13
20	Münster	10	92	102			138 18 6
21	Minden	21	13	34			239 10
22	Arnsberg.....	89	61	150			154
23	Köln	5	62	67			149
24	Düsseldorf	36	35	71			297 17
25	Cleve	37	32	69			164 11
26	Coblentz.....	29	43	72			149 14
27	Trier	10	20	30	{	Prot.	218 5
						Cath.	190 11
28	Aachen	10	78	88			177 3
Total		1696	766	2462			

* Amongst these 36 schools there are 13 called *Simultan-Schulen*, that is, which have masters and pupils of both communions, protestant and catholic.

VILLAGE SCHOOLS,

WITH THE AVERAGE SALARIES OF SCHOOLMASTERS.

No.	Regencies or departments.	Protest- ant schools.	Catholic schools.	Total number of schools.	Average salaries of schoolmasters.
					<i>Thlr. Gr. Pf.</i>
1	Königsberg ...	1026	95	1121	63 7 1
2	Gumbinnen ...	921	...	921	109 4 4
3	Dantzic	227	190	417	98 4 8
4	Marienwerder .	461	239	700	80 8 9
5	Posen.....	250	196	446	50 2 8
6	Bromberg	205	113 *	318	44 11 7
7	Berlin.....	...	...	...	...
8	Potsdam.....	1329	...	1329	96 7 1
9	Frankfurt-on -Oder.....	1188	11	1199	80 11 4
10	Stettin	917	...	917	71 5
11	Cöslin	847	...	847	30 18 3
12	Stralsund	257	...	257	53 2
13	Breslau	661	191	852	{ Prot. 90 3 Cath. 107 10
14	Oppeln	67	568	635	66 6
15	Reichenbach ...	340	268	608	95 1
16	Liegnitz	603	106	709	{ Prot. 144 1 Cath. 95
17	Magdeburg ...	871	9	880	113 20 3
18	Merseburg.....	1008	...	1008	117
19	Erfurt	291	115	406	95 4 6
20	Münster.....	39	292	331	49
21	Minden	225	241	466	119 19
22	Arnsberg	358	268	626	91 12
23	Düsseldorf.....	194	157	351	152 16
24	Cleve	81	102	183	80
25	Köln	64	311	375	73 22
26	Coblentz	307	479	786	77 16
27	Trier	57	509	566	{ Prot. 106 2 Cath. 65 11
28	Aachen	15	354	369	61 16
	Total	12,809	4814	17,623	

* Of these 113 schools, 37 are common to protestants and catholics.

The following is a comparative view of the salaries of schoolmasters, extracted from the foregoing tables.

IN TOWNS.

No.	Salaries of schoolmasters.	Protestant.	Catholic.	Total number of masters.
1	Under 50 thaler..	68	54	122
2	Between 50 and 100..	298	195	493
3	100 and 150..	447	295	742
4	150 and 200..	506	188	694
5	200 and 250..	443	113	556
6	250 and 300..	544	48	392
7	300 and 350..	237	24	261
8	350 and 400..	139	19	158
9	400 and 450..	108	6	114
10	450 and 500..	50	9	59
11	500 and 550..	35	2	37
12	550 and 600..	102	2	104
13	600 and 650..	7	..	7
14	650 and 700..	3	..	3
15	700 and 1200..	3	..	3
Total number of schoolmasterships }		2790	955	3745

The annual cost of maintaining all these town schools amounts to 796,523 thaler 11 groschen (about 119,478*l.* 10*s.*), to which the state contributes 69,329 thlr. 19 grs. (10,399*l.* 9*s.*), partly in money, partly in kind, as wood and other materials.

The average salary of a town schoolmaster is 212 thlr. 2 groschen 9 pfennig (about 31*l.* 16*s.*) per annum.

IN VILLAGES.

No.	Salaries of schoolmasters.	Protestant.	Catholic.	Total number of masters.
1	Under 10 thaler ...	263	60	323
2	Between 10 and 20...	641	216	857
3	20 and 40...	1652	635	2287
4	40 and 60...	2002	824	2826
5	60 and 80...	2116	841	2957
6	80 and 100...	1807	1026	2833
7	100 and 130...	1652	766	2418
8	130 and 150...	869	283	1152
9	150 and 180...	794	292	1086
10	180 and 200...	333	81	424
11	200 and 220...	209	47	256
12	220 and 250...	222	31	253
13	250 and 300...	221	23	244
14	300 and 350...	124	8	132
15	350 and 400...	82	2	84
16	400 and 450...	12	...	12
17	450 and 500 ..	6	...	6
Total number of schoolmasterships }		13005	5135	18150

The annual cost of maintaining all these village schools is 1,556,229 thlr. (about 233,434*l.* 7*s.*), to which the state contributes 78,048 thlr. (about 11,707*l.* 4*s.*), partly in money, partly in kind, as wood and other materials.

The average salary of a village schoolmaster is 85 thlr. 16 gr. (12*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.*) per annum.

The preceding tables abound in interesting results of every kind; I shall point out but one. A kingdom which has not thirteen millions of inhabitants, annually pays for primary instruction (not including the primary normal schools, which are not noticed here) nearly 300,000*l.*, a considerable sum, to which the

state contributes the inconsiderable portion of 22,000*l.* This is the happy result of the strict observance of the two following points, without which there can be, in my opinion, no popular education. 1st, An obligation on all parents to pay something towards the instruction of their children, unless they can prove extreme poverty: 2nd, An obligation upon every parish to support the schoolmaster out of its own funds, in addition to the money paid by those children whose parents can afford it, except the said parish can prove its real inability to do so.

At the end of 1825, the minister of public instruction caused a new census of the number of primary schools, and of the number of the masters who were employed therein, to be made, as in 1819. This comprises a most important element omitted in the former,—viz. the number of children who frequent the schools. It distinguishes the elementary schools and the burgher schools; but it omits an important feature inserted in that of 1821,—the salaries of the masters. The results of this new statistical inquiry have been published in the Royal Gazette of Berlin, the *Staats-Zeitung*, No. 79, 29th March, 1828. The following is an extract from this article:—

“According to the census made at the end of 1825, the number of inhabitants in the whole Prussian monarchy amounted to 12,256,725; amongst whom were 4,487,461 children under 14 years of age; which gives 366 children for every 1,000 inhabitants, or about eleven thirtieths of the nation.

“Admitting education in the public schools to

begin at the age of 7 years complete, we may calculate that three sevenths of the entire population of children are of an age to go to school, and we should have for the entire Prussian monarchy the number of 1,923,200 children capable of receiving the benefits of education. Now, at the end of 1825 there were in the kingdom,—

Elementary schools for town and country, ordinarily for both sexes together	20,887	
Burgher or middle schools	{ for boys .. 458 } { for girls .. 278 }	736

Total 21,623 schools.

In which were employed—

Masters	22,261
Mistresses	704

Total 22,965

to which must be added 2,024 assistants.

“ These schools extended instruction to—

Boys	{ Elementary schools .. 822,077 } { Burgher schools 49,169 }	871,246
Girls	{ Elementary schools .. 755,922 } { Burgher schools 37,050 }	792,972

Total number of children 1,664,218

“ Now we have reckoned the total population of children from 7 to 14 years of age, in the whole monarchy, at 1,923,200. It follows, then, from the foregoing calculations, that out of every fifteen children, thirteen actually attend the public schools; and as we have to allow for those who go to private schools, or who receive instruction at their fathers' houses, or who have perhaps already entered the lower classes

of the gymnasia, the general state of things appears sufficiently gratifying.

“But, it must be owned, there is no proportion between the different provinces of the kingdom, as respects popular instruction. In some provinces in which education is very generally diffused, the number of children who go to the schools at the age of six years, and even under, greatly exceeds three sevenths of the whole population of children, whilst in several other less advanced provinces, the number of scholars sent to the schools is considerably less, and sometimes does not exceed a seventh of the whole population of children.

“Of 1000 children under 14, we reckon that those from 7 to 14 form three sevenths, which gives about 429 in every thousand, of an age to go to school. Here follow the comparative results, furnished by all the regencies of the kingdom at the end of 1825, of the number of children who attend the public schools, elementary or burgher.

REGENCIES.

Magdeburg, out of 1000 } 524	Trier (Trèves).....	410
children, }	Oppeln	380
Merseburg	Cöslin	370
Erfurt	Gumbinnen	355
Liegnitz.....	Königsberg	345
Arnsberg	Köln (Cologne).....	311
Breslau	Dantzig	295
Münster.....	Düsseldorf.....	295
Frankfurt	Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle)	272
Coblentz	Marienwerder	242
Potsdam.....	Stralsund	202
Stettin	Posen	182
Minden	Bromberg	148

“According to this extract, the average for the whole kingdom was 371 children out of 1000, instead of 429, which is the three sevenths of 1000.

It will be seen that if, on the one side, 7 regencies exceed this last proportion,—on the other, 5 do not even reach two sevenths of the total number of children, viz. 286 out of 1000. But we must consider that in these latter regencies, public education has been very much neglected by the governments which have preceded the Prussian, and that there is a great number of private schools which have not been included in the general census, and which would perhaps alter the proportion above stated with relation to the more central regencies, where there are very few private primary schools.”

The progress of public instruction in Prussia from 1819 to 1825 may give some idea of the advance which it must have made from 1825 to 1831, a period during which the normal schools have been in full activity, and have given a great impulse to all primary instruction. A new census, which would define the present state of things, would be infinitely valuable* ; but government would require more than another year to collect the materials for statistical tables, like those of 1821 and 1825. In default of which, the government has furnished me with a document which may, in some degree, serve as a substitute; I mean the account of its own expenditure for this object. The following is the statement of the pecuniary aids granted by the state for popular instruction in the year 1831.

* For this, see Supplement,—*State of Public Education in Prussia in 1831.*

No.	Provinces.	Sums for 1831.		
		<i>Thlr.</i>	<i>Gr.</i>	<i>Pf.</i>
1	East and West Prussia	52,012	6	7
2	Brandenburg	71,739	17	11
3	Pomerania	8,957	18	1
4	Silesia	17,796	23	0
5	Posen	9,186	6	1
6	Saxony	24,689	26	6
7	Westphalia	19,889	17	1
8	Kleve-Berg	11,098	26	11
9	Lower Rhine	5,557	2	10
10	For popular instruction in general	9,390	0	0
Total		230,317	22	0
		(About 34,547 <i>l.</i> 12 <i>s.</i>)		

Thus, nearly a million of francs (40,000*l.*) was granted by the state, from the general budget, for primary instruction in the year 1831; whilst, in 1821, the corresponding grant amounted to but little more than half that sum, out of a total expenditure of nearly nine millions of francs (300,000*l.*): whence we may infer that, if the parishes have severally increased their outlay in the same proportion, the sum total of the expenditure of the state and of the parishes for primary instruction, will be increased for the year 1831 to about fourteen million francs (560,000*l.*). And this supposition will still appear to be below the reality, if we recollect the fundamental principle of primary instruction in Prussia; viz., that it shall be a parochial expense, to which the state shall contribute as little as possible. The contrary principle is in force amongst us. Yet, acting under this principle, the French government, up to 1828, granted for primary instruc-

tion, out of the general budget, the miserable sum of 60,000 fr. (2,400%). In 1828 the chamber increased this sum to 300,000 fr. (12,000%). The government of July has raised it to 700,000 fr. (28,000%), and afterwards to 1,000,000 fr. (40,000%), that is, to a sum very little exceeding that granted by the Prussian government, acting on the parish principle, for a population of only twelve millions ; and that, without reckoning the expense of the primary normal schools. I come now to these latter establishments.

In Prussia, although the law obliges the parishes to found and maintain schools which the whole population is compelled to attend, the government fosters and supports this grand system by taking upon itself the duty of training upright and able masters for the supply of the parishes. The parishes maintain the primary schools, the state affording them but slight assistance ; but the contrary holds in the case of the primary normal schools ; these are instituted and mainly supported by government ; the several districts are only called upon for small subsidies.

What follows will show whether the Prussian government has performed well the task it has imposed upon itself. At the present time there is not in the Prussian monarchy a single province in which each department or regency (*Regierungsbezirk*) has not its primary normal school ; and by this I mean, a great normal school (*Haupt-Seminar*), rich in masters and in pupils ; sometimes even with one or more branch normal schools (*Hülfs-Seminarien*), that is, small normal schools (*kleine Seminarien*), where the number of the pupils, of the masters,

the instruction, and the cost, are all confined within very narrow limits. These little normal schools are very numerous. In their obscurity they render the most important service. Mr. von Beckedorff in his Journal, vol. 6, No. I. for 1807, gives the following note on those small primary normal schools which had come under his notice.

EAST AND WEST PRUSSIA.

Department of Königsberg.

One at Mülhausen, founded in 1811 : income fixed ; 700 thaler (105*l.*) granted by the state for the entire support of six pupils. A much greater number attend at their own expense. This little school is most beneficial in its effects.

Department of Gumbinnen.

One at Zabienen, founded in 1821 ; it was a moveable or ambulating school, and went a circuit to train the Polish masters for the whole province. This singular establishment was broken up in 1825, but it had been of great service to the whole province.

There has been formed at Angerburg, on the confines of the two departments, a little normal school of twenty-four pupils, which receives from the state a fixed revenue of 1200 thaler (180*l.*).

BRANDENBURG.

Department of Frankfurt-on-the-Oder.

At Alt-Döbern there was a little primary normal school, which has been merged in the great school of Neuzelle.

Department of Potsdam.

The little normal school of Gross-Böhnitz, founded in 1811, and which in 1825 numbered twenty-six pupils, has been merged in the great

school of Potsdam. But another has been founded at Jüterbock, which prepares for the great school at Potsdam.

POMERANIA.

Department of Stettin.

From 1820 to 1823 there was a little school at Fritzow which was very useful.

At Stettin a similar school has been formed in the suburb named Lastadie. This school only trains masters for the humblest places, where the salary is very small.

At Pyritz, the same kind of establishment.

Department of Köslin.

At Bartzwick, the same again, but on a larger scale. In 1818 it had but ten pupils, but at the beginning of 1827 there were fifty, thirty-two of whom were masters already appointed, who came there to perfect themselves. It has a grant from the state.

SILESIA.

In all this province there is but one small normal school, at Schlegel in the county of Glatz, but it has been very long established, and suffices for the wants of the county. It has from ten to twelve scholars, and receives a grant from the state.

POSEN.

Department of Posen.

One small protestant normal school at Frau-stadt ; a second, a small catholic school, is projected.

Department of Bromberg.

One protestant at Fordon, one catholic at Lob-sens. Many other establishments of this kind are already projected for the grand duchy of Posen.

SAXONY.

Department of Magdeburg.

One at Gardenleben, which is very flourishing, and which in 1825 numbered sixty-four pupils; there are many other establishments of this kind in the same department.

Department of Merseburg.

The number of small normal schools in this department in 1821 was as follows:—one small normal school for music at Zeitz, annexed to the gymnasium; another at Eisleben, in the gymnasium of that town, (it was proposed to lodge the pupils in Luther's house, which serves also for a charity-school); another at Sangerhausen, in the town school; one at Queerfurth, conducted by two masters from the town school; one at Herzberg, conducted by two masters from the town school, and containing more than twenty pupils; one at Jessen; one at Liebenwerda, founded since 1801; one at Seyda; one at Halle, intended to perfect schoolmasters; one at Bitterfeld; one at Eilenburg, with three masters; one at Rochwitz; one at Muckenberg; one at Stolzenhain; one at Saathain; one at Corbetha, which in 1825 had eleven scholars; one at Tauchern; one at Wittenberg.

Department of Erfurt.

A catholic normal school at Heiligenstadt. Mr. von Beckedorff declares that this department must have many more establishments of this kind of which he has no knowledge.

WESTPHALIA.

Department of Minden.

An excellent primary normal school at Petershagen, which had twenty-five pupils in 1825,

and in 1827 thirty-two; another at Münster, once very flourishing, but now weakened by the neighbourhood of the great normal school of Büren.

RHINE.

Many establishments of the same kind.

These accounts, incomplete as they are, will yet give an idea of the number and effect of these lesser primary normal schools. The assistance they receive from government is entirely matter of favour. It almost always contributes something to the stipend of the head master. It gives general encouragement to these small normal schools, but its dependence is on the great ones. These it founds itself, defrays a great part of their expenses, watches over them with unwearied solicitude, requires from the provincial consistories frequent and detailed reports, and obliges the directors at stated periods publicly to give an account of the establishments under their charge. So early as the year 1826 there were twenty-eight great normal schools in full activity, that is to say, one for each department. I here present you with a table, made at that time, of all these excellent establishments, province by province, with the names of the towns in which they are placed, the year of their foundation, the amount of their outlay, the number of masters, and that of the pupils, called *seminarists*, the length of their stay in the normal school, the number of whole or half purses or exhibitions (*bourses*), or simple grants (*stipendia*), and some brief remarks on the director or head master; for it is an admitted principle in Prussia, that as is the director, so is the school.

TABLE
Of all the great Primary Normal Schools of Prussia.

No.	Place.	Year of foundation.	Income.	Number of masters and their assistants.	Number of scholars.	Length of residence.	Number of free scholarships and exhibitions.	Remarks.
I. EAST PRUSSIA.								
1	Königsberg. Protestant.	1701. Reorganized in 1809.	6497 thlr. 17 grosch. 7 pfen. (3166 thlr. from the royal purse.)	4	30	not fixed	30 free scholarships.	Director wanting.
2	Karalene. Protestant.	1811.	6544 thlr. 8 grosch. 10 pfen. (5984 thlr. 8 grosch. 10 pfen. from the royal purse.)	6	33	2 and 3 years.	25 free scholarships.	Mr. Patzig is director. The institution, being in the country, has buildings of its own, and a village school, as school for practice.

Mr. Riedel, pastor, is director. Out of the two years of residence, one and a half are chiefly devoted to theory, and the rest to practice. The institution has its own buildings, in the country, and the village school for practice.

Mr. Burgund, an old ecclesiastic of a catholic order, is director. The institution has no school for practice belonging to it. There are some day-pupils out of the house.

Mr. Kawerau is director. The institution is in the country, and forms a little isolated colony. Although the masters are protestant, the greater number of the pupils are catholics. The school for practice is attended by children from the village which is close by. Schoolmasters already appointed receive there a supplementary course of instruction. There are generally six of them.

3	44	3 years.	33 free scholars.
4	22	not fixed. The pupils when he appears sufficiently advanced, and finds a place.	20 free scholars.

3	Kleindexen. Protestant.	1772.	2898 thlr. 33 grosch. 6 pfen. (2250 thlr. from the state treasury).	3	44	3 years.	33 free scholars.
4	Braunsberg. Catholic.	1810.	4100 thlr. from the state treasury.	3	22	not fixed. The pupils when he appears sufficiently advanced, and finds a place.	20 free scholars.

II. WEST PRUSSIA.

7 38 not fixed. All free.

5	Jenkau. In this school children of each faith are admitted.	1798. Founded by the Chamberlain von Conradi.	5158 thlr.	7	38	not fixed. All free.
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No.	Place.	Year of foundation.	Income.	Number of masters and their assistants.	Number of scholars.	Length of residence.	Number of free scholarships and exhibitions.	Remarks.
6	Marienburg. Open to both churches.		3033 thlr. 10 grosch. from the royal purse.	6	56	3 years.	1256 thaler are distributed to 46 scholars, in 5 classes.	Mr. Häbler, pastor and school-inspector, is the director and originator of the establishment. He has under him 5 masters, who belong, not to the normal school, but to the schools of the town. Among the 65 pupils of the past year, 12 were catholic, and received religious instruction from the catholic curate of the place. The lowest class serves as a school for practice to the higher classes.
7	Graudenz. Open to both churches.	1817.	2000 thlr. 16 grosch. 8 pfen. from the state treasury.	4	60 and more.	3 years.	The sum of 1160 thaler is divided annually among 40 scholars.	Mr. Dietrich, a catholic, is director. The institution possesses a spacious edifice, formerly a Jesuit college, and is connected with a town school. The director and 40 pupils live in the house. The time of residence, which should be two years, is sometimes shortened to supply the wants of the province.

III. BRANDENBURG.

8	Neuzelle. Protestant.	17. At this time the semina- ries of Lukkau and Zul- lichau were uni- ted and trans- fer- red to Neuzelle.	8856 thlr. 2 gr. 6 pfen. (5500 thlr. 2 gr. 6 pf. from the state trea- sury).	7	90	3 years.	24 scholarships wholly gratuitous, and 22 half gra- tuitous.	Mr. Krüger, pastor, is di- rector. The institution is in the vast edifice of a secularised con- vent, where the two masters and all the pupils live. The school for practice is the orphan-house of thirty children, annexed to the normal school.
9	Potsdam. Protestant.	1817.	5438 thlr. 25 gr.	6	63	3 years.	10 scholarships wholly, and as many half, gra- tuitous. Besides which a fixed sum is divided amongst the other scholars, as a donation ex- traordinary.	This normal school was at first a private establishment of the con- sistory councillor, Mr. Höcker. It was created at Berlin in 1748, made a public establishment in 1753, and transferred to Potsdam in 1817, with an increase of funds. Mr. Strietz, pastor, is director. A charity-school is joined to the normal school. The institution has its own buildings, where the pupils have lodging and board.

No.	Place.	Year of foundation.	Income.	Number of masters and their assistants.	Number of scholars.	Length of residence.	Number of free scholarships and exhibitions.	Remarks.
IV. POMERANIA.								
10	Alt-Stettin. Protestant.	1735.	2909 thlr.	5	33	2 years.	600 thlr. a-year are entered in the state-budget for the support of the pupils.	Mr. Grassmann, assessor to the consistory, is director. The institution is in a place which it hires, and where some pupils are lodged gratis; but in a short time it will have a place of its own.
11	Cöslin. Protestant.	1816.	2516 thlr. (2436 thlr. from the state treasury).	4	34	2 years.	The state gives yearly, as a donation, 36 thlr. for 3 pupils, 24 for 17 others, and 12 more for 17 others.	Mr. Runge is director. The institution has its own edifice, which must shortly be rebuilt from the foundation. The pupils lodge in the house, but board in the town. The elementary school of the town serves as a school for practice.
12	Greifswald. Protestant.	1791.	206 thlr. 19 gr. 4 pf.	2	5	not fixed.	The state gives 138 thlr. 9 grosch. 1 pfen., for the support of the pupils.	This normal school will be wholly reorganized, and the establishment of a new normal school for Pomerania, at Cammin, has been deferred, only because the liquidation of the estates of the chapter of Cammin, destined for that purpose, has not yet been accomplished.

V. SILESIA.

13	Breslau. Protestant.	1765.	5038 thlr. (3400 thlr. from the state trea- sury).	6	80	2 years.	To 44 free scho- larships are at- tached 829 thlr. 21 gr. 5 pfen. per ann. Admissions are granted altoget- her, or half gratui- tously, according to circumstances. Besides the above, 26 thlr. 8 gr. 7 pf. are entered in the state budget, for extraordinary do- nations.	Mr. Hientsch is provisional di- rector. The building of the insti- tution will be enlarged by the purchase of the neighbouring house. The normal school has its school for practice, and a private prepa- ratory class. Two masters and all the pupils now lodge in the house; the latter board there.
14	Breslau. Catholic.	1765.	3137 thlr. (786 thlr. from the state trea- sury).	6	75	2 years.	The state gives for dinners for 31 pupils, 587 thlr. 17 gr. 2 pf., and 65 thlr. 12 gr. 10 pf. as extraordinary donations.	Mr. Wurst, an ecclesiastic, is di- rector. He, with one of the head teachers, and all the pupils who are boarded, live in the normal school, in which is the school for practice.

No.	Place.	Year of foundation.	Income.	Number of masters and their assistants.	Number of scholars.	Length of residence.	Number of free scholarships and exhibitions.	Remarks.
15	Buntzlau. Protestant.	1816.	3700 thlr.	15 They serve also for the orphan-house to which the normal school is annexed.	83	2 years.	One sum of 36 thlr. yearly is fixed for 19 pupils, and for 22 others another sum of 18 thlr.; 12 Lusatians receive 36 thlr. yearly. Eatables to this amount are given them by the orphan-house.	Mr. Hoffmann, a pastor, is director of these united establishments. The institution possesses spacious buildings, and some pieces of land. A charity-school of the town serves as school for practice. The institution was originally a private foundation of Zahn, a master mason of Buntzlau, and was first, in 1744, a poor's school. In 1753, it was erected into an orphan-house; in 1805, it obtained an increase of funds; in 1816, a primary normal school was established there.
16	Ober-Glogau. Catholic.	1801.	2625 thlr. 1 gr. 5 pf. (325 thlr. from the departmental fund of Oppeln, and 2300 thlr. from the funds of Neuzelle.)	4	67	2 years.	1080 thlr. are entered in the state-budget for the support of 36 pupils. Latterly this sum has been made to furnish dinners for 52 pupils.	Mr. Müller, an ecclesiastic, is director. The institution has its own building, and a town-school serves as school for practice.

VI. POSEN.

17	Bromberg. Hitherto com- mon to both churches, but henceforth Protestant.	1819.	2633 thlr. 10 grosch.	4	51	2 years.	518 thlr. 10 gr. per ann. are al- lowed by the state for the support of the pupils.	Mr. Grützmacher, pastor, is di- rector. Care will be taken to pro- cure for the institution a building of its own, the place where it now is being dilapidated.
18	Posen. Hitherto com- mon to both churches, but henceforth Catholic.	1804.	4205 thlr. from the provincial funds of Posen.	5	40	3 years.	18 free scholar- ships.	Catholic director wanting. The provisionary director, Mr. Grus- czynski, is a protestant. The normal school has its own build- ing, gardens, and a school for practice of three classes, with 266 scholars.

VII. SAXONY.

19	Magdeburg. Protestant.	1790. Reorga- nized in 1824.	3607 thlr. 2 grosch. 6 pfen.	13	70	2 years.	24 pupils have free commons.	Mr. Zerrenner, a consistory and school-councillor, is director. There are but 2 other masters ex- clusively attached to the institu- tion. The rest are assistants, and principally town schoolmasters, who are found to be qualified for the institution. The normal school has its own building, where the pupils are lodged and boarded, as well as its school for practice.
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No.	Place.	Year of foundation.	Income.	Number of masters and their assistants.	Number of scholars.	Length of residence.	Number of free scholarships and exhibitions.	Remarks.
20	Halberstadt. Protestant.	1778.	2145 thlr. 6 gr. 1 pf. (1100 thlr. 2 gr. 6 pf. from the foundation of the con- vent of Berg- 717 thlr. 3 gr. 7 pf. from the funds of the state.)	4	43	2 years.	To support 12 pupils, there is a sum of 360 thlr.	Mr. Brederlow, pastor, is director. The place of head master is only filled provisionally. The institution has its own building in an ancient canonry, where the director, two masters, and the pupils live. It is in connexion with two schools.
21	Weissenfels. Protestant.	1794.	3207 thlr. 18 gr 5 pf. (1200 thlr. from the state funds, and 1266 thlr. 7 gr. 6 pf. from the royal purse of Saxony, for the pupils.)	6	61	2 years.	8 town exhibitions, each of 30 thlr.; and 4 ancient royal exhibitions of 30 thlr. To these 12 exhibitions are added 20 thlr. in paper money. There are 11 new royal exhibitions, each of 24 th.; and a knights' exhibition, of 24th.	Dr. Harnisch is director. The institution has its own buildings, and large gardens, but it will probably be removed from the suburbs to the convent of St. Clara. The pupils lodge and board in the institution. A numerous suburban school, in the same house, serves as school for practice.

The institution is under the provisional direction of Mr. Hahn, a regency- and school-councillor, who contributed by the great success of his exertions to its establishment and support. At present it has no fixed income. One master only and an inspector are employed exclusively for the normal school; the rest have other occupations besides; some teach gratuitously, others for very small fees. The site of the institution is the ancient convent of the Augustins. Several other institutions are in connexion with the normal school; a model school, a school of artisans, a higher school for girls, and an institution for the deaf and dumb. When removed to a building of its own, it will be completely organized and simplified.

.....

3 years.

113 in
1824.
The normal number, or complement, is 80.

13

...

1830.
Provisionally,

Erfurt.
Common to both churches.

	Place.	Year of foundation.	Income.	Number of masters and their assistants.	Number of scholars.	Length of residence.	Number of free scholarships and exhibitions.	Remarks.
33	Soest. Protestant.	This normal school was formerly at Wesel; after the occupation of that town by the French, it was transferred to Söst.	3070 thlr. (2506 thlr. from the state funds.)	5	57	2 years.	1000 thlr. are divided into 36 exhibitions; 16 of 25 thlr.; 10 others, 30 thlr.; and the remaining 10, 40 thlr. per ann.	Mr. Ehrlich is director. The greater part of a secularised convent was granted to the institution in 1818. The school of that quarter of the town in which the normal school is situated, has served, since 1819, as the school for practice; 44 pupils, the director, and the music-master lodge in the institution, but board elsewhere.

VIII. WESTPHALIA.

Mr. Klocke, the curate, is director. A part of an old jesuit college has been assigned to the institution. A school for practice, consisting of two classes, will also be established. This normal school will shortly be opened.

Mr. Braun is director. The institution has its own building, inhabited by the director, the head master, and the pupils. Those among them who receive an exhibition of 80 thlr. are bound to give lessons to the younger scholars.

Mr. Diesterweg is director. The institution has its own buildings, and its own school for practice. The directors, masters, and pupils live in the house, and the pupils board there. Those who receive an exhibition of 80 thlr. are under the same obligation as the scholars at Neuwied.

IX. AND X. RHENISH PROVINCES.

24	Büren, catholic.	1895.	about 4000 thlr.	3	50	3 years.		
25	Neuwied, protestant.	1895. Organized definitely in 1893.	3999 thlr. 17 gr. 6 pf. from the state funds.	4	38	3 years.	1130 thlr. are granted for the pupils; so that 3 receive 80 per ann.; 4, 50; 5, 40; 8, 30; and 10, 25.	
26	Meurs, protestant.	1890. Organized definitely in 1893.	3000 thlr. 13 gr. 6 pf. from the state funds.	3	30	3 years.	The same as Neuwied.	

No.	Place.	Year of foundation.	Income.	Number of masters and their assistants.	Number of scholars.	Length of residence.	Number of free scholarships and exhibitions.	Remarks.
27	Brühl, catholic.	1832.	6661 thlr. 10 gr. (6599 thlr. 10 gr. from the state funds).	5	100	2 years.	3150 thlr. are divided into 87 exhibitions, which are thus distributed. Among 6 scholars, 80 per ann.; among 12 others, 50; among 15, 40; among 24, 30; lastly 25, among 30.	Mr. Schweizer, an ecclesiastic, is director. The building, inhabited by all the masters and pupils, was formerly a convent of Franciscans. Those who receive an exhibition of 80 thlr. are under the like obligation to teach the younger ones. Hitherto, there have been but four masters.
28	St. Matthew, at Trier, catholic.	1810. It was broken up during the war in 1813, and re-established in 1816.	735 thlr. from the state funds.	2	45	1 and 2 years.	There is nothing fixed for the support of the pupils.	Mr. Schülzen, curate, has been director, since the resignation of the canon, Mr. Dewora. The pupils lodge with the citizens of Trier, or in the houses belonging to the suburb of St. Matthew. The lessons are given in a room in the curate's house.

The foregoing table gives the following results:

Of these twenty-eight establishments, only fourteen existed before 1806; and, again, amongst these there were three which were not then definitively constituted normal schools, viz. those of Königsberg, Jenkau, and Buntzlau. All the others have been founded either since the war or even during the war, but chiefly since the peace of 1815. It follows, then, that since 1808 there have been established seventeen primary normal schools, of which twelve date from 1816.

The cost of the support of these establishments, without counting that of Erfurt, which has not yet a fixed revenue, amounts to 99,815 thlr. 7 gr. 11 pfen. (14,972l. 6s.) per annum.

Fifteen hundred pupils are instructed there; so that each pupil costs 66 thlr. (9l. 18s.) per annum.

897 pupils remain in the normal schools two years, and 483 three years; but, for 120, the time of stay is not fixed. There leave annually 161 of those who stay three years, and, in all, 609 per annum, who are called *Candidaten*. We must reckon nearly 21 more who quit those normal schools where the length of stay is not fixed, which brings the number of well-prepared candidates to 630; and if we include about 120 of those who quit, with adequate acquirements, the small normal schools, we shall find that the primary normal schools of Prussia, altogether, annually furnish 750 candidates.

Now, according to the census of 1821, it has been seen that there were in the whole kingdom 21,885 schoolmasterships. Here, then,

are about 21,000 places for the candidates who quit the normal schools. If, again, from these 750 annual candidates, we deduct a fifteenth who change their career, who leave the profession of schoolmaster, or who become preceptors in private families, there remain for the 21,000 schoolmasterships, 700 new applicants every year, that is, three for every hundred places. Up to the present time the proportion of new masters annually required has not been more than two or three per cent. Supposing, then, that we must reckon, that of a hundred places, four annually become vacant, there will then be wanted, for the whole kingdom, 840 candidates per annum; so that to complete this number will require 140 candidates who have not yet quitted the normal schools, and who do not always give all the necessary assurance of fitness. This number will diminish by degrees, when a decided preference shall everywhere be given to the candidates from the normal schools. This preference has already been recommended to all the parish authorities by a ministerial ordinance; and it is the more just, as each normal school pupil is obliged, for the first three years after he has quitted, to accept any place which government offers him.

It must also be considered, that if the places of schoolmaster are eventually occupied by pupils of the normal schools only, that is to say, by persons, on an average, of twenty-four years of age, we may calculate that in general they will, one with the other, remain in office thirty-three years and four months, and that thus there will be annually only three places vacant out

of a hundred. 700 pupils from the normal schools will then suffice for the 21,000 schoolmasterships, and thus the existing number of normal schools will be enough to supply the whole kingdom with the required number of schoolmasters, so that the humblest village school shall be held by one thoroughly trained, and able to fulfill his mission worthily.

Such are the results at which, since 1826, the Prussian government has constantly aimed. Towards this point it has regularly proceeded, by the uninterrupted improvement of its normal schools. Since 1826 many small normal schools, for example, Mühlhausen, Angerburg, Bartzwitz, Gardeleben, Düsseldorf, Petershagen, are almost become great normal schools, with an increase of expenditure and of pupils. I requested and obtained from the Prussian government the budget of the expenses of the great primary normal schools for the year 1831. Now the sum in this budget is 101,553 thlr. (16,583*l.*), whilst in 1826, by the table above, it was only 99,000 thlr. (14,850*l.*). This difference of 11,000 thlr. indicates a very considerable progress. In fact, in 1826 there were only twenty-eight normal schools; in this table there are thirty-three. It is also to be observed, that there is no mention made of the normal school of Königsberg, an omission which I cannot at all understand. The following table exhibits the cost of the great primary normal schools of the Prussian monarchy during the year 1831, province by province, with the sum total of the outlay, and the part which the state bears.

No.	Provinces.		Total expenditure.			Grants in aid from the state.		
			Thlr.	s.g.	pf.	Thlr.	s.g.	pf.
EAST & WEST PRUSSIA.								
1	Normal School of Braunsberg ...		4440	11	9	4149	10	9
2	—	— of Dexen	2846	23	6	2250	0	0
3	—	— of Mühlhausen...	700	0	0	700	0	0
4	—	— of Angerburg ...	1590	0	0	1300	0	0
5	—	— of Karalene	6656	0	0	5980	0	0
6	—	— of Marienburg ...	2147	10	0	2147	10	0
7	—	— of Graudenz.....	2050	16	3	2050	16	3
8	—	— of Jenkau	5311	18	1			
BRANDENBURG.								
9	—	— of Berlin	2000	0	0	2000	0	0
10	—	— of Potsdam	5430	0	0	5430	0	0
11	—	— of Neuzelle	11554	2	6	6945	2	6
POMERANIA.								
12	—	— of Stettin	3410	0	0	3069	0	0
13	—	— of Cöslin	2608	0	0	2556	0	0
14	—	— of Bartzwitz.....	250	0	0	250	0	0
SILESIA.								
15	—	— of Breslau { Prot.	4543	6	0	3909	6	0
16	—	— — { Cath.	3287	0	0	3287	0	0
17	—	— of Bunzlau	3800	0	0	400	0	0
18	—	— of Ober-Glogau .	2700	0	0	2700	0	0
POSEN.								
19	—	— of Posen	4675	0	0	4675	0	0
20	—	— of Bromberg ...	2683	10	0	2633	10	0
SAXONY.								
21	—	— of Halberstadt ...	2750	0	0	2150	0	0
22	—	— of Magdeburg ...	4782	0	0	2650	0	0
23	—	— of Gardeleben ...	685	0	0	685	0	0
24	—	— of Weissenfels ...	3419	10	10	2404	7	2
25	—	— of Erfurt	3706	0	0	3255	0	0
WESTPHALIA.								
26	—	— of Büren	4494	2	0	4127	2	0
27	—	— of Soest.....	3270	0	0	3120	0	0
28	—	— of Petershagen ..	522	15	0	300	0	0
CLEVE-BERG.								
29	—	— of Meurs	3000	12	6	3000	12	6
30	—	— of Düsseldorf ...	787	23	9	100	20	10
31	—	— of Brühl	6809	5	0	6599	10	0
LOWER RHINE.								
32	—	— of Neuwied	2999	17	6	2999	17	6
33	—	— of St. Matthew, village near Trier	2135	0	0	500	0	0
Total			110553	3	8	88323	5	6
Or about			£ 16,583	0	0	13,249	0	0

When, Sir, will France have reached this high degree of prosperity in the business of popular instruction? The law which you contemplate will make it imperative on each *commune* to support a school; I trust it will equally compel each department to support a primary normal school, great or small, according to the extent, population and wealth of the department, and to the number of masters wanted each year. Here, above all, it is for you to originate and to superintend; and there can be no better employment of the funds entrusted to you by the Chambers, for the promotion of the education of the people.

Impressed with the high importance of normal schools in general, and with the excellence of those in Prussia, I have minutely examined these establishments, and beg permission, Sir, to devote to them a distinct chapter of this report.

III.

OF PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOLS.

SIR,

You are already acquainted with the title of the law of 1819, which institutes primary normal schools, and lays down the principles of their organization*. You also know what was the number of them in 1826 and in 1831, the number of the scholars, that of the masters, and what each school cost the province and the state. We must now proceed to survey the interior of these establishments, and to observe their discipline, their plan of study, and their moral and intellectual government. On these points I shall lay before you a mass of details, which the importance of the subject will, I hope, justify in your eyes. I shall not hesitate to multiply official documents and information, of which I have collected a great quantity, chiefly in manuscript. I shall give them frequently without any abridgement, that facts may speak for themselves, and may produce their own proper effect. I shall reserve to the end the reflections suggested to me by an attentive examination of these documents, and by the verification of them by personal visits to the most celebrated normal schools of Prussia.

I begin with the small normal schools. But as these are almost all private establishments, the state, though it watches over them, does not

* See p. 62.

subject them to the same publicity it requires of its great schools. These lesser schools court obscurity rather than display. This is their happiness and their merit. But it renders it difficult to know them. I have, however, succeeded in procuring the regulations of some of them.

The small normal schools differ, generally, from the large, not only in the number of pupils, which is much smaller, but above all as being nurseries of village schoolmasters for the very poorest parishes. This is their proper object; this it is which gives them so peculiar a character, so profound a utility. The great schools, it is true, furnish masters for the country as well as for the towns; and their pupils,—those at least who receive the *stipendia*, or exhibitions,—are for many years at the disposal of the government, which sends them where it likes; a right which, from the well-known rigour of the Prussian government in making all public servants work, we may be sure it exercises. But in every country there are parishes so poor, that one would hesitate to send a schoolmaster of any eminence to live in them; and yet it is precisely these miserable villages which stand in the greatest need of instruction to improve their condition. This need, then, the small normal schools are destined to supply. They labour for these poor and backward villages. To this their whole organization, their studies, their discipline, are to be directed. Unquestionably, the great normal schools of Prussia are entitled to the highest respect; but never can there be veneration enough for these humble labourers in the field of public

instruction, who, as I have said, seek obscurity rather than fame ; who devote themselves to the service of poverty with as much zeal as others to the pursuit of riches, since they toil for the poor alone ; and who impose restraints on every personal desire and feeling, while others are excited by all the stimulants of competition. They cost scarcely anything, and they do infinite good. Nothing is easier to establish,—but on one condition, that we find directors and pupils capable of the most disinterested, and, what is more, the most obscure, devotion to the cause. Such devotion, however, can be inspired and kept alive by religion alone. Those who can consent to live for the service of men who neither know nor can appreciate them, must keep their eyes steadfastly fixed on Heaven : that witness is necessary to those who have no other. And, accordingly, we find that the authors and directors of these small schools are almost all ministers of religion, inspired by the spirit of Christian love, or men of singular virtue, fervent in the cause of popular education. In these humble institutions, everything breathes Christian charity, ardour for the good of the people, and poverty. I shall lay before you a description of two ;—one hidden in a suburb of Stettin, and the other in the village of Pyritz in Pomerania.

Stettin has a large normal school, instituted for the training of masters for the burgher schools. An excellent man, Mr. Bernhardt, school-councillor (*Schulrath*) in the council of the department, was the more powerfully struck by the necessity of providing for the wants

of the country schools. He founded a small normal school for this sole purpose, and placed it, not in the town, but in a suburb called Lastadie : he laid down regulations for its government, which I annex nearly entire.

Small Primary Normal School of Lastadie, near Stettin.

1. This school is specially designed for poor young men who intend to become country schoolmasters, and who may, in case of need, gain a part of their subsistence by the labour of their hands.

2. Nothing is taught here but those things necessary for small and poor country parishes, which require schoolmasters who are Christians and useful men, and can afford them but a very slender recompense for their toils.

3. This school is intended to be a *Christian school*, founded in the spirit of the Gospel. It aspires only to resemble a village household of the simplest kind, and to unite all its members into one family. To this end, all the pupils inhabit the same house, and eat at the same table with the masters.

4. The young men who will be admitted in preference, are such as are born and bred in the country ; who know the elements of what ought to be taught in a good country school ; who have a sound straightforward understanding, and a kindly cheerful temper. If, withal, they know any handicraft, or understand gardening, they will find opportunities for practice and improvement in it in odd hours.

5. The school of Lastadie neither can nor will enter into any competition with the great normal schools completely organized ; on the contrary, it will strive always to keep itself within the narrow limits assigned to it.

6. The utmost simplicity ought to prevail in all

the habits of the school, and, if possible, manual labour should be combined with those studies which are the main object, and which ought to occupy the greater portion of the time.

7. The course of instruction is designed to teach young people to reflect, and by exercising them in reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing, to put it in their power to instruct themselves, and to form their own minds. For the humblest peasant ought to be taught to think; but to enlighten him, to make him a rational and intelligent being, does not mean to make him learned. "God willeth that all men be enlightened, and that they come to the knowledge of the truth."

8. The instruction ought to have a direct connexion with the vocation of the students, and to include only the most essential part of the instruction given in the great normal schools.

9. The objects of instruction are, religion, the German language, reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing. To these are joined the first elements of geometry, easy lessons in natural history, narratives drawn from the national history, (particularly that of Pomerania,) and geographical descriptions. The principal object, and the foundation of all education, is religion, as learned from history and the Bible. The principal books are the Bible, the psalter, and the catechism. The school of Lastadie will also strive to excite and cherish in its pupils a love of nature, and to that end will cultivate a taste for gardening and planting.

10. In treating of all these subjects, the pupils must be trained to speak in pure and accurate language; for after the knowledge of religion and of nature, there is nothing of which the children of peasants stand so much in need, as to learn to express what they know with simplicity, truth, and accuracy.

11. The students know enough, when they speak,

read, and write well ; when they can produce a good composition in the German tongue ; when they can calculate with facility and with reflection, and when they sing well ; they know enough, when they are thoroughly versed in the Bible, when they possess the most essential notions of the system of that universe which they have constantly before their eyes, of that nature in the midst of which they live : they have attained much, when they are Christian, rational, and virtuous men.

12. The period of study is fixed at two years. The first year the pupils learn what they are hereafter to teach to others ; besides which, they assist at the lessons the masters give to the children of the school annexed to this small normal school. In the second year the future teacher appears more distinctly, and from that time everything is more and more applied to practice. They continue the whole year to practise teaching, and at the end they receive a set of rules, short and easy to understand, for the management of a school of poor country children. ✓

13. To the school of Lastadie is joined a school of poor children, in which the young men have an opportunity of going over what they have learned, by teaching it to others, and of exercising themselves in tuition according to a fixed plan. This school consists of a single class, in order that the students may see how a good school for poor children should be composed and conducted, and how all the children may be kept employed at once.

14. The number of pupils is fixed at twelve. The pecuniary assistance they receive will depend on circumstances. The instruction is gratuitous. Six pupils inhabit each room. The master lives on the same floor. They take their simple but wholesome meals together. Servants are not wanted. The pupils do the work of the house.

15. The daily lessons begin and end with prayers and psalmody. It rests with the master to fix the hours of devotion, (founded chiefly on the Bible and the book of psalms,) as well as their number. So long as the true spirit of Christianity—faith quickened by charity—shall pervade the establishment, and fill the hearts of masters and of pupils, the school will be Christian, and will form Christian teachers; and this spirit of faith and of charity will be productive of blessings to the poor and to the mass of the nation.

16. It will not, therefore, be necessary to lay down minute regulations; but practical moral training must be combined as much as possible with instruction. "The letter killeth, the spirit quickeneth." But what will it not require to imbue the whole establishment with the true spirit of Christianity, so that masters and pupils may devote themselves with their whole hearts, and for the love of God, to the children of the poor?

- 17. Whoever wishes to be admitted into this establishment, must not be under eighteen nor above twenty years of age. He must bring the certificates of his pastor, of the authorities of his parish, and of the physician of the circle, as to his previous conduct and the state of his health. He must, moreover, have such preliminary knowledge as is to be acquired in a well-conducted country school, on Biblical history, reading, writing, arithmetic and singing. Those who join to these acquirements the principles of piano-forte or violin playing, will be preferred. The candidates for admission give notice to the director, and are examined by the members of the departmental authorities who have the care of the people's schools.

18. There is no public examination. The examination on quitting is likewise conducted by the school-councillors of the department, and the certi-

ificates of capacity are founded on this examination, according to the gradations 1, 2, 3, and are delivered by the departmental authorities.

19. As to the placing of the pupils, it is desirable that they should work some years as assistant-masters, in order that they may gradually acquire the necessary experience and confidence, and may become well acquainted with children, and with the inhabitants of villages. Under this supposition, the age of admission might be conveniently fixed at sixteen ; and this arrangement would be a great relief to aged schoolmasters who are become burthensome to themselves and to their parishes.

20. Particular attention is paid to singing and to horticulture ; as means of ennobling and animating the public worship of God, and the general course of a country life ; of providing the pupils with an agreeable recreation, and, at the same time, a useful occupation ; and, further, of combating the grossness of mind and the obstinate prejudices to which uneducated husbandmen are prone.

21. All the students attend divine service in the church of Lastadie on Sundays.

22. The vacations must not exceed four weeks for the whole year : they are at Easter, in the autumn, and at Christmas.

23. The establishment has no other revenues than what it owes to the bounty of the minister of public instruction. These funds are employed,—

1. In maintaining the poorest students.
2. In indemnifying the assistant masters of singing and gardening.
3. In paying for the school tuition.
4. In paying the expenses of lodging the students.
5. In lighting and warming the school-room and the two lodging-rooms.
6. In extraordinary expenses.

The expense of the meals taken at noon and evening, in common, is also chiefly defrayed from these grants; the students, however, contribute a little from their own means.

The school of Lastadie pays the head master from its own resources.

May this establishment, (concludes Mr. Bernhardt,) which owes its existence to such fervent charity, not be deprived of that blessing, without which it can do nothing!

Assuredly there is not a virtuous heart which does not unite its prayers with those of the worthy and benevolent councillor.

The second small normal school of this description was founded in 1824, in honour of Otto, bishop of Bamberg, who introduced Christianity into Pomerania, having baptized 4000 Pomeranians in 1124 near the fountain of Pyritz. When the minister of public instruction granted the license for its establishment, he made it a condition that the students should be instructed in agriculture, not merely as a recreation, but as essential to their destination; that they should be bound to study gardening, the cultivation of fruit-trees, and of silk-worms. The special superintendence of this house is entrusted to the pastor of the place. The regulations are as follows:—they resemble those of Lastadie in many respects, but go into greater detail, and are perhaps still more austere as to discipline.

Rules of the small Normal School of Pyritz in Pomerania.

I.

1. The purpose of this endowment is to give to every pupil the training and instruction suitable for a good and useful country schoolmaster: this, however, can only be done by the union of Christian piety with a fundamental knowledge of his vocation, and with good conduct in the household and in the school.

2. Piety is known—

By purity of manners ;

By sincerity in word and deed ;

By love of God and of his word ;

By love of our neighbour ;

By willing obedience to superiors and masters ;

By brotherly harmony among the pupils ;

By active participation in the pious exercises of the house, and of public worship ;

By respect for the king, our sovereign, by unshaken fidelity to our country, by uprightness of heart and of conduct.

3. A thorough knowledge of the duties of a teacher are acquired—

By long study of the principles and elements ;

By learning what is necessary and really useful in that vocation ;

By habits of reflection and of voluntary labour ;

By constant application to lessons ;

By incessant repetition and practice ;

By regular industry and well-ordered activity ; according to this commandment, " Pray and work."

4. Good conduct in the house and the school requires—

A good distribution and employment of time ;

Inflexible order, even in what appears petty and insignificant ;

Silence in hours of study and work ;

Quietness in the general demeanour ;

Care and punctuality in the completion of all works commanded ;

Decent manners towards every person and in every place : decorum at meals ;

Respect for the property of the school, and for all property of others ;

The utmost caution with regard to fire and light ;

Cleanliness of person and of clothing ;

Simplicity in dress, and in the manner of living ; according to the golden rule, " Every thing in its time and place. Let things have their course. Provide things honest in the sight of all men."—*Rom. xii. 16, 17.**

II.

1. All the pupils inhabit one house and one room ; for they must live in union, and form one family of brothers, loving one another.

2. The whole order of the house rests on the master of the school ; he lives in the midst of the pupils ; he has the immediate superintendence of them, of their conduct, and of their labours. He ought to be to those under his care what a father of a Christian family is in his household.

He is responsible for the accounts of the establishment, the registers, the result of the quarterly examinations, and for the formation of the necessary lists. He has the special care of the provisions, the

* I do not happen to have the French version of the Bible. The texts as quoted by M. Cousin do not agree with those in our version. Ver. 11. is rendered by Luther, *Schicket euch in die Zeit*, Adapt yourselves to the time ; which is not given in our version. The next clause above, I find neither in his version nor in ours.—TRANSL.

rooms, the library, the furniture. He is responsible to the school-administration for good order in every department.

3. The oldest and most intelligent of the students assists the master. He is called the master's assistant. He must take care—

That every one in the room under his care rises and goes to bed at the appointed moment:

That nobody, without the master's permission, leave the house, smoke, or carry candles into the passages or the loft:

That no one wantonly injure the windows, doors, or furniture, or throw anything out of the windows:

That the utmost cleanliness be observed in the sitting-room, the passage, and the sleeping-room;

That all clothes, linen, books, &c., be in their places;

That no noise be made in going up and down stairs, or in going to the children's school.

It is his especial business to help his companions in the preparation of their lessons, to hear them repeat, to prepare the exercises for the master, and to assist him as far as he can in all his business. He ought to be to his fellow-students what a good elder brother is to his younger brothers and sisters. He is chosen, on the master's recommendation, by the school-committee.

4. The humbler sort of household work, such as cleaning and putting in order the rooms, dusting the furniture, fetching water, cleaving wood, &c., is done by the pupils, who serve a week in rotation. The time of service is prolonged by order of the master, in case of negligence.

5. The order of the day is as follows:

In winter at five, in summer at half-past four in the morning, at a given signal, all the pupils must rise, make their beds, and dress.

Half an hour after rising, that is at half-past five

in winter, and five in summer, all the pupils must be assembled in the school-room. The assistant first pronounces the morning benediction, and each pupil then occupies himself in silence till six. If any repetitions stand over from the preceding day, they must be heard now. After this, breakfast.

In winter, as well as in summer, the lessons begin at six o'clock, and last till a quarter before eight. Then the students go with their master to the children's school, attached to the normal school, where they remain till ten, either listening, or assisting in teaching some small classes; or they may be employed in their own studies at home.

To these employments succeeds an hour of recreation, and then an hour's lesson in the establishment.

At noon, the students assemble in the master's room, where they find a frugal but wholesome meal, consisting of vegetables, meat and fish, at the rate of two thaler (six shillings) a month.

The time which remains, till one o'clock, may be passed in music, gardening, or walking.

In the afternoon, from one till three, while the master is teaching in the town school, the pupils accompany him, as in the morning. From three till five, lessons.

The succeeding hours, from five till seven, are, according to the seasons, employed in bodily exercises, or in the school-room in quiet occupations. At seven they assemble at a simple cold supper.

From seven to eight they practise singing and the violin; then repetitions or silent study till ten, when all go to bed.

Two afternoons of each week are free, and are usually spent in long walks. The time from four to six, or from five to seven, is devoted to the practice of music.

On Sundays or holydays all the pupils must attend divine service in the church of the town, and assist in the choir. The remainder of these days may be passed by every one as he pleases: in the course of the morning, however, the students must write down the heads of the sermon (the text, the main subject, the distribution), and in the evening must give an account of the manner in which they have spent the day.

Every evening, as well as on the mornings of Sundays and holydays, a portion of time is spent in meditation in common.

A few Sundays after the setting-in of winter, and after the festival of St. John*, the students partake of the Lord's supper, in company with their masters.

Every student, from the time of his admission, must solemnly engage (in token of which he gives his hand to the master and signs his name) to follow the rules of the house, which may be summed up in these three principal maxims:—

1. Order in behaviour and in work, combined with the utmost simplicity in all things; to the end that the students who belong to the poorer classes, and whose destiny it is to be teachers of the poor, may willingly continue in that condition, and may not learn to know wants and wishes which they will not, and ought not to have the power of satisfying. For this reason they must be their own servants.

2. As to the course of instruction, the repetitions must always be heard by the forwardest pupils. The pupils must be made, as much as possible, to teach each other what they have learned of the master, in order that they may perfect themselves in the art of teaching.

3. Piety and the fear of God should be the soul of their little community, but a true Christian piety,

* May 6th.

a fear of God according to knowledge and light, so that the pupils may do all to the glory of God, and may lead a simple, humble and serene life, resigned and contented in labour and travail, according to the exhortation of the Apostle :

“Fulfill ye my joy, that ye be like-minded, having the same love, being of one accord, of one mind. Let nothing be done through strife or vainglory ; but in lowliness of mind let each esteem other better than themselves.”—*Philipp.* ii. 2, 3.

“And as many as walk according to this rule, peace be on them and mercy!”—*Galat.* vi. 16.

I abstain from all comment on these two sets of regulations, which seem to have been dictated by the spirit of St. Vincent de Paule. The greater number of the small normal schools of Prussia are founded and governed in the same spirit. All rest on the sacred basis of Christianity. But beneath their simple lowly exterior we trace a taste for instruction, a feeling for nature, a love of music, which take away every vestige of coarseness, and give these modest institutions a character of liberality. Undoubtedly all this is the offspring of the national manners, and of the genius of Germany ; yet Christian charity might transplant a good deal of it into our France ; and I should esteem myself happy, if the regulations of the little schools of Lastadie and of Pyritz were to fall into the hands of some worthy ecclesiastic, some good curate or village pastor, who would undertake such an apostolic mission as this.

The great normal schools exhibit a character rather different. They form the masters for the two degrees of primary instruction ; that is to

say, for the elementary schools and the burgher schools. The law of 1819, which institutes them, deferred their organization to ulterior ordinances; and it is impossible too much to admire the zeal and constancy with which the ministry of public instruction has laboured at the perfecting of these noble establishments.

In the first place, to that ministry they belong. It is the parish which supports the parochial school; it is the provinces and the state which combine to maintain the normal schools. The government organizes the system and appoints the masters; while the provincial school-authority, that is to say, the school-board (*Schulcollegium*), is charged with the superintendence. Thus every normal school is departmental as to its destination, (which is, to furnish masters to the department or regency in which it is situated;) but it is responsible only to the province and the state; we may indeed affirm, that it is the state—the ministry of public instruction and ecclesiastical affairs—which has the principal share in the progress these institutions have made in the very short space of time from 1825 to 1831.

The first thing to do was, to secure the studies of the normal schools from all interruption, by exempting the students from military service. As long ago as the 27th of May 1819, the law exempted schoolmasters who were in the active exercise of their calling from service in the army on duty, and from the first ban or levy of the *Landwehr*, and placed them in the second levy; always understood, that these ex-

emptions were only to have force in time of peace. A new decision, of the 26th of June 1822, settled all the conditions under which a schoolmaster was enrolled in the second levy of the *Landwehr*. A circular, of the 4th of September 1826, which I transmit to you, confirms all the previous decisions, and enjoins the commandants of provinces to exempt all schoolmasters from the periodical drill of the first levy.

But it was not sufficient to establish these regulations in favour of the acting schoolmasters. It was necessary to apply them to the pupils of normal schools. This was done by a Cabinet-order of the 29th of November 1827, confirmed and amplified in a circular of the 5th of January 1829, the principal provisions of which I subjoin.

1. So long as the pupils remain at the primary normal schools, they can neither be called out in the active army nor in the *Landwehr*; and this is in so far a departure from the instructions of the 30th of June 1817, concerning recruiting, which require an uninterrupted service in the active army up to the age of twenty-two inclusive.

2. The pupils of the normal schools shall draw lots, like other young men of twenty of the class called out. They shall be exempted from all service till the expiration of their time at the normal school. Then, whether they have drawn the lot for the line or for the reserve, they must serve six weeks, for the purpose of learning military exercises.

3. In order that the candidates for schoolmaster-ships may go through their six weeks of drill, when

they have drawn either for the line or the reserve, (conformably with the order of the 29th November 1827,) the provincial consistories shall arrange so as to make the conclusion of the courses of the normal schools coincide as nearly as possible with the beginning of the time of drill; that is, about the 1st of April.

4. The candidates cannot be fixed as schoolmasters till after they shall have fulfilled these conditions of the law concerning military service. The candidates for the higher class of tuition shall enjoy the same advantages as those of the primary normal schools, when they leave the normal schools devoted to the learned professions (*Seminaria theologica, philologica; &c.*).

Nay, further; a Cabinet-order of the 24th of December 1829, a circular of the minister-at-war of the 4th of February 1830, another Cabinet-order of the 20th of February of the same year, followed by a ministerial circular of the 27th, reduce all the military exercises before required of schoolmasters and of candidates who have just quitted the normal schools, to a month's duty in the active army, at whatever time they themselves choose. Such is the present state of things; and it is as little burthensome as it can be in a military state like Prussia.

The preceding measures protected the primary normal schools against the vexatious interruptions of military service. I add another, which secures to the candidates, on their quitting the normal schools, almost an exclusive appointment to masterships. It is dated the 1st of June 1826, that is, the time when normal

schools were established in all parts of the kingdom, completely organized and in full activity. It could not be anterior to that time, for this would have been to demand privileges for normal schools before it was certain that they deserved them.

Circular of the 1st of June 1826.

1. In all nominations of schoolmasters dependent on the king's government, particular regard shall be had to the pupils of the higher normal school of the province who are furnished with certificates of fitness ; and so long as there are any such unprovided for, it shall not be lawful to take young men trained to the business of schoolmaster in any other manner.

2. Parishes which have the right of election or presentation to schoolmasterships, shall be subject to the same rule.

3. Private founders of schools shall also be recommended to choose pupils of the normal schools in preference ; at all events they can appoint only such persons as are furnished with a certificate of examination, attesting their fitness for the office.

4. The certificate attesting the fitness for being placed at the head of a school must in every case be given by the director and masters of a higher normal school, and countersigned by the school-councillor of the regency.

5. The examinations on which are founded the certificates of fitness granted to candidates who have not been educated in a higher normal school, shall take place at certain periods announced in the newspaper of the district in which the normal school is situated ; in compliance with Article 10 of the circular now addressed, together with these presents, to the school-boards of the provincial consistories.

6. Persons who, without having been trained at a higher normal school, shall desire to pass their examination as teachers, shall apply to the authorities for that purpose, and shall transmit,

a.) The certificate of a physician;

b.) An account of their lives, written by themselves ;

c.) The requisite proofs and certificates, showing that they have received a good education, generally, and that they have, in particular, prepared themselves for the business of a schoolmaster ;

d.) The certificate of the local authorities and the pastor, attesting that they have hitherto led an irreproachable life, and have the moral and religious qualities fitting them for the office of teacher.

7. The members of the royal administration are hereby directed to examine these certificates, to make scrupulous inquiries, and not to require the higher normal school to examine the applicant until after they have obtained the most perfect conviction that there is nothing to object to him, physically or morally.

8. Students thus examined and judged duly qualified, must, notwithstanding, without exception, serve as provisional schoolmasters for one, two, or three years ; but this term may be shortened for those who particularly distinguish themselves. At the expiration of that time, they cannot be definitively appointed till after they have given fresh proof of their capability. It shall, however, rest with the royal administration to decide whether or not a new examination is necessary.

9. Every candidate who has been examined and declared duly qualified, but has not immediately received an appointment, must give notice to the royal administration of the place he intends to reside in. He will then be under the special superintendence of

the school-inspector, who will make regular reports on his studies and conduct.

10. A student who has been expelled from school, or who has quitted it voluntarily and without a parting certificate, must in no case be admitted to examination, and still less appointed to a place as schoolmaster.

The privilege of recruiting the ranks of primary instruction, not to the exclusion of, but in preference to, all others, secured the prosperity of the normal schools, and attracted a great number of students to them. Having gained this point, and being perfectly sure of never wanting students, the minister was enabled to subject these establishments to very strong internal measures, which gradually raised their character, and rendered them more and more worthy of their high mission, of the favour and bounty of the government, and of the confidence of the people.

The first measure was to institute a severe system of examinations at quitting, which confer the quality of candidate for schoolmaster-ships; to grant, at first, only a provisional nomination, and from time to time to summon back to the normal school candidates already appointed, in order to perfect their education. In this point of view, the following circular merits the utmost attention. Its date is the same as that of the foregoing circular. The very day a privilege was conferred, it became matter of strict justice to take such steps that it might be certain to be deserved, and might not degenerate into a barren monopoly.

Second Circular of the 1st of June 1826.

1. From this time forward, (as indeed has been practically the case in most instances hitherto,) all the great primary normal schools in the kingdom shall subject all students quitting school to rigorous examinations at the seasons fixed for the departures.

2. The pupils shall be examined by the masters of the school in all the branches of knowledge taught in the establishment, in the presence and under the direction of one or more commissioners deputed by the school-board. The superintendent, the principal pastor, and in general all clergymen, shall be permitted to be present at these examinations, which, however, are not to be public.

3. The examinations shall also include a trial of the student's manner of teaching, by which to judge of his peculiar aptitude for his profession.

4. According to the result of these examinations, and especially after requiring the precise and conscientious opinion of the director and masters of the school, each of the students about to leave shall receive a parting certificate (*Abiturienten-Schein*), given by the director and masters, and countersigned by the commissioners.

5. This certificate must not only testify to the different branches of knowledge acquired in the school, but moreover to the ability to teach, to the moral fitness for the functions of schoolmaster, to the conduct and character. It ought also to notify what may reasonably be hoped from the examinee hereafter. All this must be conscientiously set forth, and at the end, summed up in these words, 'excellent', 'sufficient' (or 'good'), 'passable', (*vorzüglich, hinlänglich, nothdürftig*), and marked by the numbers 1, 2 and 3.

6. This certificate only renders the candidate eligible to an appointment for three years. At the end

of that time, he must present himself for a second examination at the normal school. Nevertheless, any student who has received a certificate No. 1. ('excellent'), and who is immediately placed as teacher in a public school, is not required to go through a second examination ; all others can only be installed provisionally.

7. The second examination is not to take place at the same time as the parting examinations, but in the presence, under the direction, and with the participation of the school-councillors, at a fixed time for each primary normal school.

8. As the special object of the parting examinations is to ascertain whether the students have completely mastered the course of instruction given in the school ; whether they thoroughly understand it, and are competent to communicate it to others, the second examinations ought not to bear immediately on the instruction received in the school, but ought to be directed to the general solidity of attainments, the tendency and the originality of views, and particularly to the practical skill and capacity.

9. A certificate shall likewise be delivered as to the result of this examination, and annexed to the former. It shall express in how far the hopes conceived have been justified, surpassed or deceived, and that in a precise manner ; it shall also specify what branch of public instruction may be most advantageously confided to the candidate.

10. At the same time, and according to the same principles, shall be held the examinations of candidates who have not been trained in the higher normal schools, and whom the royal administration shall send for this purpose to a normal school. At the end of the examination, such candidates are to be furnished, like the others, with certificates, stating with the greatest possible exactness the degree of their ac-

quirements, of their ability, and above all of their practical talents.

11. But in order that the beneficial influence of the normal schools may extend to acting schoolmasters who want assistance, or whose intelligence and knowledge make no progress, or even rather fall off, such masters shall be recalled to the normal school for a greater or less period of time, according to their wants; either to go through a complete course of methodology, or to exercise themselves in some peculiar branch, or to be subjected to the moral discipline of the school; at the same time they shall be attached to the boys' school. With regard to the manner of carrying this measure into execution, the ministry will be glad to receive the suggestions of the school-board, after that body shall have consulted with the provincial authorities.

12. Both for the purpose hereabove stated, and, generally, to obtain an exact knowledge of the nature and the wants of the schools in their regency, the directors or head masters of the primary normal schools must yearly, during their vacations, visit a part of the regency or of the province for which masters are trained in their establishment: in their quality of commissioners, they shall examine into the state of country schools; they shall render an account of their observations to the ministerial authorities; a copy of their report must also be sent to the school-board, which will take the measures judged necessary, and particularly that of summoning back to the normal schools masters who fall under the description given in No. 11. The cost of these journeys shall be taken from the funds of the province appropriated to the improvement of primary instruction. These same funds will also serve to defray the expense attending the displacing of acting masters who have to go through the course of methodology.

13. It is expedient that the vacations of the primary normal schools be fixed in such a manner, that the masters may be able to visit other establishments of the same kind as their own, when in full activity. But the provincial school-boards must be left to make the necessary communications on this subject.

The ministry expects to receive in due time the circumstantial report of all that shall have been done and decided, conformably with the provisions of this circular, by the school-board, in concert with the royal authorities of the province.

We have already said, that the pupils of primary normal schools who receive exhibitions from the government or from the provinces, are bound, after going through the parting examination and being entered as candidates, to remain three years at the disposal of the state, and to accept any place which is offered them. This obligation, a just acquittal for all the care and all the cost bestowed upon them, is contained in the following ministerial rescript of the 28th February 1825.

The reports of the departmental authorities state, that the candidates who have just quitted normal schools, often refuse the schoolmasterships offered them, under the pretext that they are not lucrative enough, and try to gain a subsistence by giving private lessons or becoming tutors in families. This is extremely injurious, not only to the interests of the schools, but to those of the young men themselves, who thus contract wants that cannot be supplied on the salary of a village schoolmaster, to which they are generally obliged to have recourse at last. And as, moreover, the heavy expense incurred by the state for the maintenance of normal schools is not incurred with a

view to the training of private tutors, it is ordered as follows:—

1. Every pupil of a primary normal school shall be at the disposal of the regency in which the said school is situate, for three years from the time of his quitting it, and shall be bound to accept the school-mastership assigned to him. No engagement he may have contracted elsewhere will be accepted as an excuse.

2. Whoever shall refuse to fulfill this obligation, as soon as he is required, shall be bound to reimburse the normal school for his expenses, viz.: the sum of ten thaler (11. 10s.) for every half-year he was at the school, over and above his board and lodging.

3. All the pupils now in primary normal schools shall declare, with the consent of their parents, that they bind themselves to fulfill the conditions of the present decree, or shall immediately quit the school.

I have now lying before me a great number of general measures taken by the minister of public instruction for the progressive amelioration of the normal schools, both as to moral discipline and instruction. I shall describe some of these measures, for the sake of making known the spirit which presides over the management of these important establishments.

The discipline is generally very severe. Thus music, so natural and so dear to Germans, is doubtless cultivated with great assiduity; but the government does not suffer the students to regard this acquirement as a source of mere amusement, nor allow them to display it in public concerts, which, though innocent, are of a light character. It permits them to join publicly in church-music alone. I find this re-

striction in a ministerial circular of the 8th of June 1814.

I also find quoted, in a report of the normal school of Soest, an order of the minister of public instruction, declaring that any out-pupil of a normal school who should be seen in a public-house (*cabaret*) should be instantly expelled. Indeed, it is obvious that the conduct of those students who do not lodge in the school-house must be subject to a special police, and that is, in fact, everywhere the case. One of the most useful things in the primary schools, and particularly those in towns, is the gymnastic training; consequently it is necessary to introduce it into the normal schools. Though the recollections attached to the gymnastic exercises of the celebrated Jahn were not calculated to render the Prussian government favourable to them, it had the good sense to overcome this natural repugnance, and to institute regular gymnastic exercises in all the primary schools of the monarchy, as we see from the following circular.

“Circular of the royal ministry of public instruction and ecclesiastical and medical affairs, to all school-boards, concerning the gymnastic exercises in primary normal schools.

February 26, 1827.

“It is by no means the intention of the ministry to introduce into primary normal schools, (and especially those which have not annexed schools,) gymnastic exercises classed among the regular objects of study, systematically taught with the aid of a special apparatus in halls or places set apart for the purpose, and

with a particular costume, all of which would lead to the belief that the old gymnastic exercises (*Turnen*) were re-established. This would be wholly contrary to the intention of the ministry, to the object of the primary normal schools, to the destination of the students, to the station and character of the masters and teachers, and to the system of those establishments, as well with relation to the course of study, as to the habits of life which are desirable for the pupils.

Nevertheless, it is expedient to take into consideration, and to provide for, the physical training of the pupils.

In the first place, on account of the health. Experience proves that the change in the manner of living to which the pupils who enter these schools must habituate themselves, is unquestionably detrimental to the health. Most of them, coming from the country, are accustomed to live in the open air, and have not been used to very assiduous mental labour. At an age when the growth is not complete, they must accustom themselves to a sedentary life, to long and uninterrupted study, to change of diet; they must give up the indulgences of home. They are, moreover, exposed to trials which are really severe and painful. They must curtail themselves of sleep; work ten hours and more a day, in classes and rooms full of people; sleep in hot rooms in summer, and in cold ones in winter; go to work immediately after meals, and employ even their hours of recreation in occupations in which the mind is still on the stretch. Such a life must needs be unfavourable to health; and for that very reason it is necessary to contrive bodily exercises which prevent exhaustion, promote the free action of all the organs, and preserve the elasticity, gaiety and freshness of the mind. Nothing, moreover, can be worse for a schoolmaster than to habituate himself to too sedentary a life. In the first place, the taste

for such a life would be extremely injurious to the school, where the example of a masculine and sustained activity is absolutely indispensable; secondly, it would favour an air of retirement and grandeur incompatible with the position of a country schoolmaster, who is usually forced to go through severe bodily labour for the support of his family.

2. *For the deportment and good carriage of the body.* Awkward and embarrassed manners justly make an unfavourable impression, because they generally prove that a man is coarse and ignorant, or at least, ill-assured in the use of his faculties and his powers. And as presence of mind, courage and firmness are shown by physical address and ability, pure moral sentiments by a decorous air, an amiable and gracious temper by politeness and good manners; so, a good and graceful carriage of the body re-acts on the moral part, and strengthens the good qualities of the soul. Moreover, physical address gives a man invaluable advantages in the inevitable accidents of life, both for his own defense and the assistance of others in times of danger. But it is above all things urgent that a schoolmaster should have a decent and engaging exterior, joined to physical strength, whereby he may gain the esteem and confidence of the parents, and the affection of the children.

3. *Also on account of his calling.* The future master ought to be familiar with all that contributes to the development of the body, and with all salutary exercises. As master, he is bound to watch over the physical accomplishments and the health of his pupils. He ought therefore to know, at least, what are the means proper for the preservation of the health, and in what way bodily exercises may be combined with the games and employments of children. It follows, that bodily exercises must form a part of every system of education of schoolmasters.

But how are these exercises to be arranged, so as to fulfill their end in accordance with the three objects indicated above? This is a question which cannot be answered in a precise and general manner. It must be left to the judgement of the master and teachers, and to the local capabilities of each individual school.

Establishments like those of Bunzlau, Jenkau, Neuzelle, to which are attached small charity schools for children, are in a most advantageous position. There, children may be trained more regularly and strictly to bodily exercises, and the students of the normal school be made to superintend, and even take an active part in them; the exercises may even be made according to military rules.

But in the primary normal schools to which no such institutions are annexed, bodily exercises must be the more carefully combined with all the ordinary occupations of the pupils,—with their labours in the garden and their excursions. In the evening when they return from bathing and swimming, they shall exercise themselves at their pleasure in running and leaping. When they go out botanizing, or are occupied in household employments, they shall take every occasion of increasing the agility, suppleness and strength of their bodies.

But all will depend on the manner in which the masters manage this. If they contrive that these exercises, established in reality for purposes of utility, appear to the pupils an agreeable and healthful amusement; if they equally avoid a pedantic formality and a scornful indifference; if they have the art of inspiring a taste for these exercises, yet of keeping them always subordinate to the main object,—moral and intellectual education; lastly, if they can observe a just measure in the whole conduct of the matter,—not only is there no danger to be feared, but

several advantages may be hoped for. Among others, this: that the pupils, preserved in a certain vigour and agility of frame, may be kept from falling into a heavy gravity, or a melancholy ill suited to their time of life, and above all to be dreaded in men destined to pass their lives among children.

Every possible arrangement must therefore be made in all normal schools for favouring the physical development. It is not to be imagined that there can be any want of time for these exercises; and if there really were, according to the present distribution of the lessons, this would afford a sufficient reason for making such alterations as would leave time. •

The minister leaves to the school-boards the care of making known the resolution contained in this circular, to the directors of primary normal schools; whether by communicating it to them entire or abridged, or by means of special circulars founded on the peculiar situation of each school; and at the same time, of charging the said directors, in all their future annual reports, to state the manner in which the bodily exercises are practised at their establishment.

* One of the most interesting documents I have obtained is the circular of the 21st of March, 1827, which regulates the course to be followed by schoolmasters recalled for a time to the primary normal schools with a view to perfect themselves in their art. The following is an abridgement of it:—

↓ The circular of the 1st of June 1826 decrees that acting masters may be recalled to the normal school, with a view to their improvement, when it shall be judged necessary; and that they are there to go through a course of methodology (*methodologischer Lehrcursus*,—methodological teaching-course); or to exercise themselves in any particular branches of

teaching ; or, lastly, to acquire the art of keeping a class in good order, by practising in the school attached for that purpose to the normal school.

According to the observations furnished by experience, and the different suggestions made on this head by the competent authorities, the minister of public instruction hereby makes known, that these measures are not applicable to all the normal schools, which as yet have not complete and methodical courses on all the principal branches of primary instruction. Indeed it cannot be required of the masters of normal schools that they should repeat their regular annual courses, for the benefit of the young masters recalled for improvement ; nor would much advantage result from compelling such masters to follow the ordinary courses for the short time they have to spend there. It will therefore be more expedient to form small societies or meetings of schoolmasters, for three or four weeks, in order that they may go over, methodically and in concert, some special portion of what they have to teach, as, for instance, arithmetic, singing, the German language, or religion.

This plan will have the advantage of always bringing together men of equal attainments on one single point, which will thus be studied more fundamentally ; and of taking off the attention of only one master of the normal school ; namely, of the one who habitually presides over that branch, and who can easily submit to this slight increase of work for a few weeks.

After going over all the several branches of instruction with the same individuals, (who will have been annually recalled for some years,) a general and more extensive course may be arranged, which will find its natural place during the four weeks before the close of the annual labours of the students of the highest class, when they go through the general repetition of

the courses of *Didaktik*, *Methodik*, and *Pädagogik**. The acting schoolmasters may be present at these repetitions, and indeed their presence will be advantageous to the pupils of the normal schools.

If necessary, the vacations may be given up to this purpose, one every three or four years.

Indemnities may, in such cases, be granted to the most zealous masters of the normal schools, as also to the most necessitous of the schoolmasters recalled for these studies.

The superintendents and inspectors, on their part, shall take care to provide temporary substitutes for these schoolmasters. If, however, a school were to be shut a month, (which, if possible, must always be avoided,) the children under their care would still be the gainers, from the increase of knowledge and of skill the master would acquire during his absence.

The principal aim of these measures is to stimulate the zeal and emulation of the masters, and to keep them all in a state to diffuse education throughout the country in a uniform manner, and to participate in the progress which time gradually brings, so as to render the normal school the centre of all primary instruction. This excellent measure recalls to me another of

* As we have no single words approaching to these, I have determined to put the original German, or rather Greek, and to give the definitions in a note. M. Cousin's words are, *de didactique, de méthode, et de pédagogie*. *Méthodique* would seem more analogous: it is not *method*, but the science of *methods*.

"*Pädagogik*. The science of education (or training); the still more difficult *art* of education."

"*Didaktik*. A part or division of *Pädagogik*, namely, the art of teaching."

"*Methodik*. The theory or science of methods; *i. e.* a guide to the discovery of the best possible methods in any science or art."—*Krug's encyclopädisch-philosophisches Lexicon*.—TRANSL.

the same kind, which, though it forms no part of the internal regulations of normal schools, has equally in view the improvement of the acting masters; I mean those conferences of the schoolmasters of a circle or district, in which each communicates to his brethren his own methods and experience, and all are enlightened by the interchange of views and thoughts. These conferences are voluntary, it is true; but the government encourages them, counsels them, and often arranges them itself by means of the school-inspectors. We may judge of the importance of these periodical meetings by the regulations for one of them, which I translate here.

1. From the 1st of May to the end of August, the meetings are held once a week on Wednesday afternoon*, from two to six o'clock; from the 1st of September to the end of October, once a fortnight, from two to five; from the 1st of November to the end of February, once a month, from two to five, after the moon's first quarter; and from the 1st of March to the end of April, once a fortnight†.

The chief subject of discussion at these meetings is, *method*. The best, it is true, must ever reside in the accuracy of judgement, the zeal and activity, of the master, which alone can give interest and life to his school. Nevertheless, it is desirable that similarity of method should, as far as possible, prevail throughout a district; order and regularity in teaching must be promoted by it. The masters shall examine, therefore, what is the best known method for teach-

* Wednesday afternoon is a holiday in Germany, as Thursday is in France.

† No other conferences meet more than once a month.

ing reading, arithmetic, and singing; and what the best elementary books. They shall pass in review all the new works which have appeared on any of the branches of instruction: Dr. Harnisch's method of reading, Pestalozzi's *Elements of Arithmetic*, or those of Kawerau, Mucke, Schellenberg, Fischer, Rennschmidt, and others; or Scholz's excellent work on arithmetic. They will inquire whether Rothweil's or Natorp's methods of teaching singing are satisfactory? Which is preferable for singing, music written in cipher or with notes? What are the best pieces to give pupils? What is the best reading-book for the second class of country schools? And, among many good works, is Wilmsen's *Children's Friend* to be preferred, or Dr. Harnisch's *Second Reading Book*?

Religious instruction, as the foundation of all popular education, shall form the first object of the deliberations of the conference. Ought the catechetical method to be neglected, as it has been of late years? What are the works necessary to the master, besides the Bible and Luther's Catechism? Does he find sufficient directions in Hoffmann, Geisser, Handel, Hänel, and Kohlrausch? In consequence of the recent extension of the instruction given in our village schools, the conference shall discuss how far the elements of geometry and of drawing may be expediently pursued; within what limits the lessons in geography, history, and the natural sciences are to be circumscribed, and whether these additions are likely to be really useful, or only a barren work of memory.

Discipline is one of the prime conditions of the success of a school; and here the question presents itself as to the employment of rewards and punishments. Experience has proved that this is the part of education the most difficult to handle. Special attention must be paid to it, and all difficulties will be

overcome by those who, filled with the spirit of the Gospel, are convinced they owe to their pupils whatever is enjoined by a religious love and a boundless devotion to the holy office they hold.

It is no less the object of these conferences, to furnish the masters with an opportunity of gaining new lights and of extending their own knowledge. Questions in grammar, in the German tongue, in arithmetic, &c. will therefore always form part of the business of the meeting; as likewise, the reading of works on education, and other books which are likely to furnish matter useful to schoolmasters; the practice of singing, and reciprocal communication of the experience of each.

Among the works on education (*ouvrages pédagogiques*) particularly recommended, they will have the journals on primary instruction published in Prussia and throughout Germany.

The pastors charged with the inspection of the conferences may propose questions, which shall be treated in writing, and afterwards discussed at the conference.

A report shall be made of all the meetings.

(Extract of the report of Mr. Falk, of Landeshuth, superintendent of the conferences of schoolmasters, within the range of his school-inspection. Beckedorff's Journal, Vol. ii. No. 2.)

But vainly would all these measures (which I could have multiplied) have been taken by the minister of public instruction, had he not required an accurate yearly report of the state of the primary normal schools. Thus so long ago as 1823, an ordinance of the 4th of April rendered it imperative on the school-boards of the provincial consistories to send the minister

an annual report of the different normal schools of the province. This report must be complete, circumstantial, and embracing all the following topics :—

1. State of buildings, repairs, increase or diminution of the furniture, library, collections, instruments, &c.;
2. Number of students ;
3. State of their health ;
4. Order, discipline, moral condition ;
5. Method of teaching, and state of the school for practice annexed to the normal school ;
6. Masters, change of functionaries, distribution of the subjects taught ;
7. Results of the examination at departure ;
8. Appointment of the students who have quitted ;
9. Account of pupils newly admitted ;
10. Distribution of exhibitions among the pupils ;
11. Historical notice of the year ; inspections, visits received, festivals, &c. ;
12. Wants of the school, requests, suggestions.

The school-board requires this report at the hands of the director or principal of the normal school, and sends it to the minister, adding the opinion and remarks of the board.

From year to year the ministry goes on reforming abuses, whether in men or things, and labours at the perfection of the establishment. Frequently, in accordance with the spirit of the law of 1819, this report of the director is pub-

lished ; and the different reports of the normal schools throughout the kingdom are instructive to all connected with them, and keep up a beneficial emulation and a useful interchange of proceedings.

This publicity is not only useful, but necessary, to the parishes of each regency, which become more zealous in their demands for masters from the normal schools, in proportion as they know them better and watch their progress from year to year. The reports are scrupulously exact, as the superintendence of the school-boards is real and effective, and the government is punctually obeyed.

I have, Sir, under my eye, a considerable number of these reports, from 1825 to the present time, as well as the rules of most of the normal schools. The repetitions and resemblances would prove the identity of the plan followed by the ministry, while the differences show the diversities which exist among the several provinces of the Prussian monarchy. These differences would also have the advantage of offering a greater number of facts to the discreet imitation of our normal schools. In this great variety of arrangements, adapted to different localities, there is not one of our normal schools which would not find something fitted to its use. Prussia contains normal schools for catholics, for protestants, and again others where pupils of both communions are admitted. Generally speaking, the catholic normal schools, though not lax, are less austere in their discipline than the protestant. The latter are al-

- most excessive in the rigour of their discipline; if, in a numerous boarding-school of young men from sixteen to twenty-two, it were possible to be too rigorous. Experience has shown that young men taken from the lowest classes, and not yet divested of a certain coarseness, cannot with impunity be shut up together for two or three years, unless a strong religious spirit pervade the society, and a vigorous discipline keep them constantly to their duties. The rule of such societies is condemned to be
- somewhat monastic and military; and this is, to some extent, the character of the discipline of the normal schools of Prussia. The regulations of the studies differ less in the schools of the two churches; yet they are also conceived in a more severe spirit in the protestant normal schools, and it may be generally affirmed that these are superior to the catholic. The main reason is, that they are older; and that here, as in everything, time and experience have immense advantages. It is natural, too, that the normal schools of backward provinces, as for instance the Polish, Westphalian, and Rhenish, should partake in some degree of the state of the district from which they are recruited; while the normal schools of the central provinces owe to the higher civilization of those provinces a prosperity which is every year increased by its own effects. When we enter one of the great normal schools of Saxony, or of Brandenburg, we cannot help being struck with the perfect order and the austere discipline which prevail there, as in a Prussian barrack; while at the

same time everything breathes liberality of thought, and love of science and letters. As it will be impossible for me to give a just notion of the twenty-eight great normal schools of Prussia, I prefer selecting one or two, with which I can make you thoroughly acquainted, to giving a superficial account of all. I shall take the two most unlike, both from their religious creed, and from the state of the provinces in which they are placed. I shall choose, as a specimen of a catholic normal school, belonging to the provinces recently annexed to the monarchy, the catholic normal school of Brühl, on the banks of the Rhine. This district has only belonged to Prussia since 1815. The school itself is no older than 1823. It is therefore a recent creation, such as we are now attempting in France. The Principal is a catholic clergyman, Mr. Schweitzer, curate: the report was made in 1825, that is, two years after its foundation. The other which I wish to exhibit to you, as type of a protestant normal school, and belonging to Old Prussia, is that of Potsdam. It was founded upon a small normal school previously existing, and was organized in its present form in 1817. Its Principal is Mr. Strietz, a protestant clergyman: the report is dated 1826. I must add that these two great schools have a sufficient and suitable income, but inferior to that of some other schools, especially the great school of Neuzelle; so that here is nothing to dishearten our normal schools, and everything to excite their emulation. I shall now give a somewhat abridged translation of

these two reports, the tone and manner of which differ as widely as the two establishments they describe. Mr. Schweitzer shall speak first.

“ Annual Report of the Catholic Primary Normal School of Brühl, from 1824 to 1825, by Mr. Schweitzer, curate, Principal of the establishment.

“ It will not, I imagine, be out of place to begin this report with some details respecting the little town of Brühl, in which the establishment in question is situated.

“ The town of Brühl stands in a beautiful plain on the left bank of the Rhine, two leagues from Köln, three from Bonn, and a short league from the river. It is surrounded by fertile fields and picturesque villages. Directly before it majestically rises the ancient Colonia, with its numerous towers and steeples, and its colossal cathedral. It bounds the view on that side : on the right, the *Siebengebirge** traces its gigantic outlines on the blue distance, and on that side presents to the eye a picture of grandeur and repose. From some neighbouring heights the lover of natural beauty looks down with admiration on the plains which lie outspread before him, and the silvery lustre of the majestic Rhine, which, in its ample windings, rolls peacefully along, as if it delighted to linger in these smiling regions, while two long chains of hills seem to hold this magnificent plain in their embrace. One of these chains stretches along the left bank of the Rhine, to the Eifel mountains, and is for that reason called the *Vorgebirge*,—(fore or introductory range): at the foot of this chain is Brühl. The summit is clothed with the forest of Vill, and the undulating sides are dotted with country-houses and pretty villages, the

* The cluster of seven mountains nearly opposite to Bonn.

houses of which are half hidden among fruit-trees. At the blossoming season these villages present the most delightful aspect, and help to compose a picture of enchanting variety. It is not without reason, then, that Brühl was the favourite residence of the Electoral Archbishops of Köln, and in former times this little town was far more important than it now is. At the present day Brühl consists of only 278 houses, among which are many poor mud cottages, and contains only from fourteen to fifteen hundred inhabitants. Since it ceased to be the residence of the Electors, its inhabitants nearly all live by agriculture, and by a small trade. There are only two remarkable buildings,—the palace, which is abandoned, and the monastery. This latter building is occupied by the establishment under my care.

The monastery was formerly the nursery of the order of Franciscan monks for the whole province of Köln. After the suppression of the order on the left bank of the Rhine, in 1807, Napoleon gave the monastery and its dependences to the town of Brühl, which, in 1812, granted them to Messrs. Schug and Schumacher for the establishment of a secondary and commercial school, whose existence closed in 1822. At the end of that year, the town ceded these buildings to the government, for the establishment of the primary normal school which now occupies them.

1. BUILDINGS.

The house is built in a grand style, with three stories, and in a quadrangular form. The entrance is to the north, and leads by a small fore court, on the one side into the convent, on the other into the church, which is handsome, light and lofty. The high altar, of artificial marble, and the organ, are much admired. On the south side are two wings, which give the buildings a handsome and palace-like

appearance. From the very entrance, the cloisters are wide, with lofty vaulted roofs, cheerful and well lighted. They run quite round the building, as do the corridors over them on the first and second stories. On the ground-floor we have four rooms or halls for study, and a large and very light dining-hall which serves also for our public meetings, for study and for prayer. Beside it, are two school-rooms, and two rooms for the steward, with kitchen, offices and servants' hall in the basement story, where the porter has also his kitchen and two rooms. The establishment has a pump, abundantly supplied with fine water, near the kitchen; a rivulet which runs under the two wings is of great importance for purposes of cleanliness.

The director occupies the eastern side of the building on the first floor; the inspector, the left wing and a part of the southern side; the steward has the rest of that side; the right wing and the western side are inhabited by an ancient father and brother of the Franciscan order,—regarded as the last remnant of a once flourishing body, now extinct,—and by the master of the school for practice (*Uebungsschule*). There are no rooms to the north, only corridors adjoining the church.

The assistant masters inhabit the upper story, in which are also five hospital rooms to the south, and two large dormitories for the students to the east and west of the main building. A granary or loft, in good repair, runs over the whole of the building, and affords both steward and masters convenient stowage for their stock of grain of all kinds.

Both masters and pupils have ample reason to be satisfied with the rooms for study and for dwelling. The masters' apartments are not handsome, it is true; other schools have better: with a little cleaning and decoration they might however be made very com-

fortable. The students' dormitories are cheerful, and better fitted up than any I have seen in any normal school ; their appearance is very neat and agreeable, with the clean beds all covered alike, which can be done only where they are furnished by the establishment. This house has only one inconvenience,—violent currents of air, but these might I think be remedied.

The outside of the building is as agreeable as the inside is convenient ; it is situated on the prettiest side of the town, and has no communication with any other building except the palace, with which it is connected by a covered way, and by the old orangery. It has a magnificent view over delightful country, a large kitchen-garden, a commodious court, and two flower-gardens.

The building is of stone, and consequently very substantial ; its aspect is indeed a little hoary now, but a new coat of plaster would soon give it a cheerful appearance. The roof is in good condition, and if once the building underwent a thorough repair the whole might be kept up at a very small expense. During the past year no great repairs have been done.

(Here follow a list of repairs and alterations, and the inventory in the prescribed form).

The following books have this year been added to the library of the normal school.

The Christian Popular School, by Krummacher.

What it is necessary to know of Physical Science, by Herr.

A *Herbarium Vivum*, consisting of three hundred and sixty-nine numbers.

2. NUMBER OF STUDENTS.

The number of students is fixed at a hundred ; at this moment there are ninety-two. The object of

the establishment is to train schoolmasters for the catholic parishes of the four regencies of Coblenz, Köln, Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle) and Düsseldorf. Its position with relation to the government, is, in principle, to receive the pupils from its hands, and to render them back accomplished for their task. In the other normal schools the rule is, that the candidates for admission be examined by the schoolmasters, and by them declared fit or unfit to be either entered or immediately admitted; but here it is the custom for them to be examined in the department they come from, without any intervention of the school, and afterwards admitted by the director on the nomination of the government. On the other hand, the parting examination rests with the school, under the condition of a special commissioner being present. The pupil declared fit for nomination is not subject to be re-examined by the government authorities. According to its regulations, the school is not only authorized but obliged, at the end of the first year, to send away the pupils who are judged incapable of attaining the requisite excellence. At the time of the last parting examination, the school had been obliged to exercise this power in the case of eight pupils, which reduced their number to ninety-two.

3. SANITARY STATE OF THE STUDENTS.

The health of the students was not so good in 1824 as in the preceding year; as sufficiently appears from the bill for medical attendance for the two years.

In 1823 this amounted to 66 thaler (9*l.* 18*s.*), in 1824 to 177 thaler (26*l.* 11*s.*). But we must not forget that the number of pupils in the latter year, as compared with the former, was as three to two. There have indeed been no contagious dis-

eases, and few of a serious character, but frequent inflammatory and catarrhal fevers, some intermittent and one nervous fever. Inflammatory ophthalmia, attacks on the chest, and palpitations of the heart have not been rare. The physician has paid the pupils great attention, indeed I might almost say too much; and I have agreed with him that he shall not order them medicines, except in cases where diet, rest, perspiration and domestic remedies are insufficient. In order to prevent the young men from abusing the facility of applying to a physician, I have ordered that no one shall for the future consult him without my permission. Infectious cutaneous diseases are avoided by having the pupils examined by the physician on their entrance, and again a week after. If any well-founded suspicions arise, separation takes place as a measure of precaution; if the appearances of a contagious disease are certain, the pupil is sent home till perfectly cured. Since the foundation of the establishment two pupils have been attacked by consumption and died at their fathers' houses; the one, Johann Heinrich Schmitz of the department of Köln, on the 23rd of May of the last year; the other Joseph Waldnehl of the department of Düsseldorf, on the 21st of January. Doctor Scholl has drawn up a succinct report of the maladies which have occurred, and their causes, which I subjoin. (Then follows the report.)

4. ORDER, DISCIPLINE, MORALITY.

Without rigid attention to order, we could not hope for the smallest success. In an establishment composed of various elements, like this normal school, where young men who differ in language (dialect), manners and education are gathered together, there must be rigorous obedience to rule. In domestic life, the head of the family is the rule; and in a large establishment, unquestionably those who govern are

strictly bound to furnish an example to all under them. They are that spring of the great machine which cannot cease to move without stopping the whole. But it is also necessary that the establishment should have its precise rules, its written code of laws. The governors, it is true, fill the place of the law whenever it is silent; but all, without distinction, ought to know accurately what they *must* do, and what they *may* do. For this reason the undersigned cannot share the opinion of some very estimable teachers who think it not necessary, nor even expedient, that there be written laws for an establishment like the primary normal schools; nay, that their promulgation may operate only as an incitement to break them. Laws seem to me to grow out of the very nature of the institution. Gather together a number of young men without laying down any rule for them; they themselves will soon feel the necessity of making laws for the government of their intercourse with each other, and will choose one of their body as guardian of these laws. It is then natural, useful and fitting, that the managers and masters should make laws for the school confided to them. If it be true that laws create the temptation to break them, that is a reason why laws for all human society ought to be abolished. Fixed laws give to an institution a steady course, protect the weaker against caprice and tyranny, prevent mistakes and precipitation, and, what is more important for the future, they show in a clear and striking manner the necessity of laws for the commonwealth, and train youth to a reasonable and willing obedience to them. The opinion I offer here springs from my general conviction of the utility of positive written laws, which my own experience has greatly strengthened. For in those infractions of order and discipline which have occasionally happened, I have contented myself with punishing the fault by reading

the infringed law to the culprit, in a calm but severe manner, either in private or before all the pupils assembled; and this punishment has never failed of its effect.

After this digression which I have thought it expedient to insert here, I return to the order of the house. It is our duty to make the utmost possible use of the day-light, as being more healthful, more cheerful, and more perfect than lamp-light, and costing nothing. In our situation it would be unpardonable to turn night into day. I make it a great point, too, that the young men should get the habit of rising early, so that in the evening they may lay aside all anxiety and all labour, and give themselves up to the enjoyment of tranquil and refreshing sleep. In summer, therefore, we rise at four, and even earlier when the days are at the longest; in winter at six, in spring and autumn at five. In summer, I and my pupils go to bed at nine or half-past, in spring and winter at ten. The pupils ring the *réveil* by turns; a quarter of an hour after, the bell rings again, and all assemble in the dining-hall, where the morning prayer is said; then they all follow me to the church, where I perform the service of the holy mass. One of the students assists in the service; the others sing the responses; this religious act, for which we use the prayer-book and psalter of Bishop von Hommer, is sometimes mingled with singing, but rarely, because singing very early in the morning is said to be injurious to the voice and chest. All is terminated in an hour; and the pupils, after having thus sanctified the first hour of morning, return to the house, make their beds, breakfast, and then prepare for lessons, which begin at seven or at eight according to the season. In establishing this rule, I had some fears at first, that rising so early and going directly into a cold church in the depth

of winter, might be injurious to their health ; but I am always there before them, and I have never suffered. It may be said that I am more warmly clothed than the young men ; but then they are young, their blood is warmer than mine, and that restores the balance. Moreover, it cannot but be advantageous to them to harden themselves, while habits of indulgence and delicacy would be extremely unfavorable to them in their profession. On the Sundays and festivals of the church, I say mass to the students at half-past eight in the morning. They sing a German mass for four voices, or simple chants and hymns ; and, on high festivals, a Latin mass. During the last year, the pupils of the first class have several times executed some easy masses extremely well. But, generally speaking, I am not perfectly satisfied with our church music ; not that our masters and pupils do not do their best, but we have not a suitable supply of church music. The singing in catholic churches is subject to a particular condition ; it must be connected with the acts of the mass ; it must form a whole, distinct, and yet in harmony with the mass, and moreover must be adapted to each of the epochs of the ecclesiastical year. Now we have very little church music fit for the people. What there is, is in the hands of a few individuals who do not choose to part with it. There is doubtless an abundance of sacred music suited to every occasion, but it is all in the most elevated style ; and to what good end should the studies of the pupils be pushed so far beyond what can be of use to them in their future sphere of action ? Music of the highest order never can nor ought to become the property of the people. Music ought not to be cultivated as a mere gratification of a sense ; it ought to help to ennoble and refine the heart, and to form the moral taste.

It does not signify so much how they sing, as what they sing. In primary normal schools music ought not, any more than reading, to be the principal object; it must be regarded and treated as a means towards a higher end, which is, education and moral culture. It is therefore with reason that the primary normal schools are required to diffuse a nobler and more worthy kind of popular sacred music; this is, as regards music, their proper office. A good composer, who would devote himself to this object, might acquire immortal honour. It is to be wished that the higher authorities, particularly of the church, would encourage composers who show a genius for sacred music, to fill this chasm. In these remarks I have in view, it is true, only the catholic church. It is quite otherwise with the protestant, which possesses a great store of psalms; there is only to choose what are appropriate to the sermon. This greatly facilitates the task of the protestant normal schools. In the catholic worship, on the contrary, the sermon is only a subordinate part of a higher whole, with which the singing must harmonize, adapting itself to the different important moments, and hence the scarcity of simple counterpoint fit for the purpose. To attain the proposed end, we ought to have, not only a good organist, but also an able composer, which it is not easy to find. I return to the order of the day.

As the day begins with prayer, so it ends with it. A quarter of an hour or half an hour before going to bed, all the pupils assemble, at the sound of the bell, for evening devotions. A short portion of the holy Scripture is read, and after enlarging more or less on a text, and recommending it to imitation, I conclude by a prayer. During the past year I preached a homiletical discourse on the lesson of the day, before mass every Sunday morning; but as it

becomes difficult for me to speak fasting, I now reserve it till evening. It has also been decided, that as a means of keeping alive religious and moral feelings, the pupils should confess and communicate once a month, unless particular reasons render it expedient to prolong the interval to six weeks, or, at furthest, two months. The rest of the day is employed according to the scheme of lessons and the order enjoined by the minister. The pupils are not allowed to go out, except on the weekly afternoon holiday; and this is sufficient for their health, because in all their hours of recreation they can take exercise in a garden of two acres which belongs to the establishment. Nevertheless, on fine days I occasionally give them leave to make expeditions into the country, when I think their health will be benefited by it; making it an express condition that they shall take no pipes.

It is good to correct faults; better still to prevent them. Abundance of arguments have been adduced in support of the principle that we must let children have their will, in order that their will may become vigorous, and wait till the time when the reason expands to give it a lofty direction. But this is letting the tares overtop the wheat before we attempt to root them out. Experience proves that the good seed springs up more vigorously and thrives better when the soil has been cleared of weeds. Discipline ought, therefore, to precede and to accompany the instruction of young men, as docility and modesty that of children. Doubtless external reverence and reserve are but the beginning of wisdom; man must be brought to think spontaneously and without external impulse, of the duties he lies under, so that it may become his inclination to fulfill whatever he has clearly recognised as a duty, to consult nothing but conscience, and to set himself above the praise and

the blame of men. This is true and uncontested ; nevertheless, the flesh is always weak, even though the spirit be willing ; and there are few of those elect for whom approbation and censure, remonstrances and encouragements, hope and fear, are not necessary helps ; and for that reason, such helps are used for great and small, in private houses as well as in schools, in church as well as in state, and will never fail, if wisely used, to have a salutary effect. A hard ascetical constraint and discipline are as far from my taste as from my principles ; but experience demands rigorous order in great schools, especially at their outset. When order has once been thoroughly established, when the will of each has learned to bend to the unity of the collective body, the early severity may be relaxed, and give place to kindness and indulgence. As long as I can recollect, I have observed that the education of children is best in houses where this principle is observed. To let children grow perverse and wayward in their infancy through weak tenderness and indulgence, and then to reprove and chastise them with harshness when their habits are formed, cannot be other than a false system. For these reasons we always begin by reading the rules and disciplinary laws of the house, so that the pupils may distinctly know what they have to do ; we then take care that these laws are strictly enforced. The masters, on their side, are careful to show the most punctual obedience to all their duties. We afterwards read portions of the rules, according to circumstances, and to the demand for any particular part ; thus the discipline is strengthened and facilitated. The highest punishment is expulsion ; and last year we were obliged to resort to this twice. In all cases we try to proportion the punishment to the fault, so as to conduce to the amendment of the culprit and the good of all. For instance, if one of

the pupils lies in bed from indolence, he is deprived of his portion of meat at dinner, and for four days, a week, or a fortnight, as it may be, is obliged to declare his presence when we meet in the morning. Being kept at home on holidays, ringing the bell, fetching water, &c. are the only corporal punishments for faults of indolence and infractions of order. Faults of impatience or carelessness, of insincerity or mischievousness, of coarseness or any sort of incivility, offences against decency or good manners, are punished by notes in the inspection-book, which the culprits themselves are obliged to sign. As to the conduct of the students when out of the house, the authorities and inhabitants of the whole neighbourhood unanimously bear witness that the presence of these young men is in no way perceived. It is not difficult to speak to their hearts, and by expostulations suited to their age and station to touch them even to tears.

Of this I could cite several instances, did I not fear prolonging this report. I will, however, give one. Last year the students of the highest class were dissatisfied with the steward, and presented a petition very numerously signed, in which they enumerated their causes of complaint, and asked to have him removed. I gave the petition to him, that he might answer the charges; and after he had made his defence, I suffered accusers and accused to plead their cause, at the time of one of the religious lessons. The steward was not irreproachable; his fault was, indeed, evident enough: on the other hand, the complaint was exaggerated, invidious, inexact, and inconsiderate; for several had signed without reading; others had signed because such or such a point seemed to them just; others again had shown themselves extremely active in collecting signatures, and had reproached those who refused to sign. The affair being clearly and cir-

cumstantially stated, the steward had his share of the reprimand, and was deeply affected by it; others were moved to tears; and the offenders, when the unbecoming, inconsiderate, and even criminal points of their conduct was distinctly explained to them, acknowledged their injustice, and promised never to act in the like manner again.

Order and discipline, instruction and prayer, are thus regarded and employed as so many means, general and particular, for cultivating the morality of the pupils; and the undersigned, during the short time he has had the care of the institution, has had the satisfaction of seeing many who entered it with bad and distressing habits, leave it metamorphosed and renewed. Sedateness and modesty have been substituted for giddiness; the spirit of temperance for craving after sensual enjoyments; and those who came to seek but ordinary bread, have acquired a taste for purer and higher food. It is hardly possible that among so many, a vicious one should not occasionally creep in; and last year, among the new comers, was a cunning and accomplished thief, whose depredations filled the establishment with dissatisfaction and alarm. It was difficult to find him out, but falsehood and perversity betray themselves in the end. Heavy suspicions were accumulated during the year on the head of the criminal; and though there were not positive proofs, he could not so escape our vigilance as not to leave us in possession of a moral certainty against him. He was expelled at the examination of last year. Nevertheless, as there was no legal proof, his name was not stigmatized by publicity, and the higher authorities will readily excuse my not mentioning it here, and will be satisfied with the assurance that no misfortune of the kind has since occurred.

5. INSTRUCTION.

The business of the primary normal school is to form schoolmasters. It must therefore furnish its pupils with the sum of knowledge which the state has declared indispensably necessary to the intellectual wants of the lower classes of the people, of whom they are to be the teachers, and must afterwards fit them to fulfill their important vocation with zeal and with a religious will and earnestness.

No more than grapes can be gathered from thorns, or figs from thistles, can anything good be hoped from schoolmasters who are regardless of religion and of morality. For this reason religious instruction is placed at the head of all other parts of education: its object is to implant in the normal schools such a moral and religious spirit as ought to pervade the popular schools. The course of religious instruction has undergone no change from that stated in the report of last year, except that the several classes have been united for the Biblical part. During the present year we propose to treat the concordance of the Gospels, the history of the Apostles, and some of the Epistles. The course adopted is this:—The series of the concordance is established and dictated* by the master; the passages and discourses are explained, and, if thought expedient, learnt by heart by the pupils. For the catechising, or religious and moral instruction, properly so called, the classes are separated. The great catechism of Overberg is taken as a groundwork; and we treat first of faith, then of morals, so that the latter may be intimately connected with the former, or, to speak better, that morality may flow from faith as from its source. I regard

* The Professors of German Universities used to pronounce their lectures very slowly, in order that the pupils might write notes. This dictation is now nearly discontinued.—TRANSL.

religion as a disposition or affection of the soul, which unites man, in all his actions, with God; and he alone is truly religious who possesses this disposition and strives by every means to cherish it. In this view of the subject all morality is religious, because it raises man to God, and teaches him to live in God. I must confess, that in religious instruction I do not confine myself to any particular method; I try by meditation to bring the thing clearly before my own mind, and then to expound it intelligibly, in fitting language, with gravity and calmness, with unction and earnestness, because I am convinced that a clear exposition obliges the pupils to meditate, and excites interest and animation.

As for the historical part, I have made choice of a short exposition of the history of the Christian church, with an introduction on the constitution of the Jewish church. I think it impossible to learn anything of universal history, that can be useful or instructive to the students, in less than a hundred lessons. It signifies little whether a village schoolmaster knows the history of India, China or Greece; but he ought to know something of the history of the church, because it is in many points nearly connected with that of religion. I must confess that, in the measure of time allowed us, I cannot make universal history very interesting or profitable to the pupils; but it is otherwise with ecclesiastical history.

I introduce the theory of education and tuition by experimental psychology. This course of study is of infinite use, in teaching the science of education (*Pädagogik*), and of tuition (*Didaktik*), as likewise in teaching morals and religion: but I regard the school for practice, and the method there pursued, as the best course of pædagogical instruction. I have come to the conviction that, generally speaking, it is necessary to recommend to the pupils of the normal

schools, and to all young schoolmasters, a firm and decided plan, leaving it to them to modify it as time and experience dictate. It is with them, as with a traveller going to a place he has never been at before; it is best to show him the high road, that he may not lose himself; when he is familiar with that, he may try cross roads, if he thinks they will abridge his journey. The masters of the school agree in my views on this point, and endeavour to act up to them. The following are their courses of instruction in their several departments, furnished by themselves.

Mr. Wagner, inspector and first master.

Language.

First class, or class of the first year. In the first half-year we begin with the simplest elements, and gradually go through all the parts of speech, but without their subdivisions. In the second half-year we go through the subdivisions in like manner; so that, in the first year, a thorough knowledge is acquired of the simple and compound elements, as well as of the divisions and subdivisions, of speech. The course of instruction is partly synthetic, and partly analytic; that is to say, what has been learned in the first manner, is made thoroughly clear in the second, by the analysis of a passage from some author.

Second class, or class of the second year. This class, proceeding in a similar way, goes through the most complicated periods. In the second half-year the pupils are familiarized with the most important principles of logic and of etymology.

Arithmetic.

Second class.* In the first half-year are studied

* Another master takes the arithmetic for the first class or first year.

the rule of three, single and compound interest, and discount; in the second, the extraction of the square and cube roots, as far as equations of the first and second degree. The result of this course is a complete familiarity with all the branches of common arithmetic. These two departments of instruction, language and arithmetic, are taught according to the views of the inspector.

Geometry.

Second class. In the first half-year they get through what relates to rectilinear figures and the circle; in the second, the theory of the transmutation of figures is added; and after that, the most important principles of geometry and the measurement of solids. The books of instruction are those of F. Schmid and von Türck.

Drawing.

First class. In the first half-year drawing is carried as far as the knowledge of the most important laws of perspective, so as to place objects, not too complex, according to the laws of perspective. In the second half-year they study light and shade.

Second class. During the first half-year the attention is directed to the relief and shading of works of art, such as houses, churches, vases, &c. In the second half, the pupils copy good drawings of landscapes, flowers, &c., with a view to familiarise them with the style of the best masters. The method adopted is that of F. Schmid.

Reading.

First class. Begins by the enunciation of some simple propositions, which are decomposed into words; the words are reduced to syllables, and these to their simple sound. This course has been adopted with the pupils, that they may themselves use it with the younger children, and thus acquire a familiar ac-

quaintance with it. It is taught according to the views of the inspector.

Second class. In the first class the principal object is reading with ease; in the second, reading with expression. The chief means of instruction consist in the masters reading aloud frequently, because it is considered that this plan is more unfailing and more easy than any rules. Since, however great the application on the part of both master and pupil, the art of reading is at all times difficult to acquire, this branch of instruction occupies a whole year.

Singing.

First class. In the first half-year they begin with easy exercises in time and melody; the next step is to easy pieces for four voices. The second half-year is devoted to more difficult exercises of the same kind; so that, by the end of the year, the pupils have acquired a tolerable facility in reading. The method followed is that of Nägeli and Schneider.

Natural Philosophy.

Second class. During the first half-year the attention is directed to the general and particular properties of bodies; to those of the elements, water, air and fire; then to the theory of sounds, the velocity of winds, the equilibrium of fluids, and aqueous meteors. In the second half-year comes the theory of light, electricity, the lever, the inclined plane, luminous meteors, optics, &c. The principal object is to render the pupils attentive to the most striking phenomena of nature, and to accustom them to reflect upon her laws and secrets. The method adopted here is that of the inspector.

Mr. Richter, assistant master.

During half of last year my lessons embraced the following points.

Mental Arithmetic.

1, The knowledge of numbers with reference to their value and form; 2, addition; 3, subtraction; 4, subtraction and addition combined; 5, multiplication; 6, multiplication combined with the preceding rule; 7, division; 8, varied combinations of the four fundamental rules.

Each rule was accompanied by its application, and by examples drawn from common life. My principal aim was to exercise the pupils in applying the rules to practice. I have endeavoured also to draw their attention to the theory, and especially to the mode of using different rules in the solution of the same problem: with this view I have always alternated the oral and written exercises.

Arithmetic on the slate.

Calculation on the slate is based upon mental arithmetic, insomuch that the latter may be considered as a preparation for the former. When the four first exercises in mental arithmetic are gone through, the pupils begin to use the slate. I have laboured not only to give them practical dexterity, but also solid knowledge, and with this aim have accustomed them to try various ways of working the questions.

Elements of Geometry.

I have followed the work of Harnisch, and his theory of space drawn from the theory of crystals, and employed by him as a basis to the mathematics.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Botany.

The principal parts of a plant are first pointed out and named; then each of these parts is examined separately;—1, the root, its form and direction; 2, the stem, its internal construction, its figure and its covering; 3, the buds, their place upon the stalk;

4, the leaves, their variety according to their situation, their mode of insertion, their figure, their place; 5, the flower-stalks; 6, the flowers according to their species, the manner in which they are fixed, their composition; the calyx, corolla, stamina, pistil, the fruit, seed-vessel, and sex of the plants.

All this has been shown to the pupils, either in the plants themselves, or in drawings which I have traced on the slate. I interrupted the botany, till we could take it up again after Easter, and began

Mineralogy.

I have pursued the same course here. The pupils have first been familiarised with the properties which distinguish minerals one from another, as their colours, the arrangement of parts, the external form, regular and irregular, or crystalline, form; the polish, texture, transparency, vein, hardness, alteration of colour, effervescence in acids: all these properties have been observed by the pupils in the minerals of our collection. To this succeeded the classification of minerals, from which the pupils have learned the names and uses of the most important.

Singing.

Having devoted last year, with my singing pupils, to time, tune and acoustics, I have, during the past six months, combined the three branches of the art of singing which I had before taught separately, and have practised them chiefly on sacred vocal music, such as a psalm of Schnabel's, a chorus from Händel's Messiah, a mass of Hasslinger, and another of Schiedermeyer, a chorus from Haydn's Creation, two songs by von Weber, &c.

Mr. Rudisch, assistant master.

Thorough-Bass.

The lessons I have given in this science have been according to Hering's practical introduction, or to

my own ideas. The following course has been adopted: 1, the theory of intervals; 2, the theory of harmonic thirds, *a.* if they comprise a scale, *b.* if they belong to the whole system; 3, the theory of the chord of the seventh, *a.* if it belongs to a scale, *b.* if it belongs to the whole system of chords; 4, modulation, *a.* in a free style, *b.* in a free style, with particular reference to the organ; 5, written exercises in parts for four voices.

Geography.

We have finished Germany and begun Europe: the following course has been adopted. First we made the pupils acquainted, as exactly as possible, with the Rhenish provinces—our own peculiar country; then with Prussia, then with the rest of Germany.

This was done in the following manner: 1, the boundaries; 2, the mountains; 3, the rivers; 4, the natural divisions according to the rivers; 5, the towns. We then considered Germany in its political divisions, paying attention to the position and natural limits of the countries. All the exercises on this subject were done with skeleton maps. If time permit, (though only one year with two lessons a week are allotted to this department,) Europe will be followed by a general review of the earth.

Writing.

In the writing I have followed exactly the system of Hennig; by giving, 1, the easiest and simplest letters of the running alphabet to be copied, each letter separately, till the pupil can make them with ease; 2, words composed of such letters as they have practised; 3, at the opening of the course, after Easter, will come the capital letters, in the same way; 4, English handwriting*. In practising single

* *i. e.* The Italian handwriting, as distinguished from the current German hand.—TRANSL.

letters, I have especially pointed out how one was formed out of another, and the letter they were practising as making part of that which followed. Afterwards copies, written, not engraved, are placed before the pupils, because these last, according to the opinion of good penmen, discourage the pupils.

Orthography.

For orthography, the grammar of Heyse is adopted. 1, The object and utility of orthography; 2, general rules of German orthography; 3, the use of capital letters; 4, the regular use of isolated letters; 5, the division, composition and abbreviation of words.

These rules are alternately put in practice in the dictations.

The director, with the assistance of the masters, examines in each department every three months.

Instrumental music, on the violin, piano-forte and organ, is taught by Mr. Richter and Mr. Rudisch, with the assistance of two pupils.

School for Practice.

It is difficult, in a written description, to convey a just idea of a school, or of any large establishment for instruction. Nevertheless I will endeavour to give a brief sketch of this institution, and of the manner in which the pupils are there occupied. The regulations fix from one to three in the afternoon for the lessons of practice. The children of the school for practice are divided into eight classes, and one of the pupils from the normal school presides over each of these divisions alternately, so that twenty-four are occupied from one to two, and twenty-four from two to three; and whilst the first twenty-four are teaching, the others listen, that they may be ready at any moment to take it up and continue the lesson. This

can be done only where a fixed and complete mode of instruction is laid down.

The branches taught by the pupils are grammar, reading, composition, writing, drawing, arithmetic, mental exercises, singing, religion. Language is taught partly after Krause, and partly on the plan of the inspector, Mr. Wagner. Reading is closely connected with writing, according to the method of the inspector. The pupils of the higher classes have subjects of familiar compositions given them; at the same time, they are made to learn by heart short letters, narrations and descriptions, because this is deemed the best method of familiarising children with the language, and enabling them to express themselves with ease in writing. When they have learnt a piece by heart, they endeavour to write it without a fault, and with the proper punctuation; the comparison with the original and the correction are left to themselves, that the thing may be more deeply impressed upon their mind. Arithmetic is taught on the system of Schumacher and Jos. Schmid. In the lower classes great care is taken that the numbers are always correct, in order to avoid the inefficient and too artificial mental arithmetic of Pestalozzi, and to make arithmetic itself an exercise of language. Singing is taught by the two forwardest pupils of the school, who give two lessons in the morning, and drawing by the two most skilful draughtsmen. For exercises in language and mental activity, use is occasionally made of Krause's *Exercises for the Mind*, and Pestalozzi's *Mothers' Book*. On religion the pupils give but one lesson a week, under the particular guidance of the director. The special superintendence of this school is confided to the inspector, Mr. Wagner, who, besides a daily visit during the lessons, subjects them to a slight examination every week, to keep up a persevering ac-

tivity in the young men, and to know exactly what progress is made. The satisfaction of the parents at the pupils' mode of teaching is proved by the regular attendance at the school. I am well satisfied with the practical ability hitherto shown by the pupils.

6. MASTERS OF THE ESTABLISHMENT.

Two masters, besides the director, were last year annexed to the establishment,—the inspector Mr. Wagner, and Mr. Richter. The assistant master Mr. Rudisch was added at the beginning of this year. These masters give their entire and undivided attention to the school; yet they are not sufficient for this great establishment; two pupils and the organist of the town assist in the department of instrumental music.

The following branches of instruction devolve upon the director: religion, history, the science of education (*Pädagogik*), the theory of composition,—twelve lessons a-week; adding the hours of devotion, the number of his lessons amounts to nineteen.

Mr. Wagner has the charge of language, arithmetic, singing, natural philosophy, the theory of composition, and reading,—twenty-three lessons a-week.

Mr. Richter attends to the arithmetic, geometry, reading, orthography, theory of composition, natural history, singing, and the violin,—twenty-one lessons a-week.

Mr. Rudisch, assistant master, teaches orthography, geography, writing, the piano-forte, and thorough-bass; besides which, he gives lessons in the school for practice: altogether his lessons amount to twenty.

Simon the organist gives two lessons a-day on the organ and piano-forte, and the pupils Mohr and Schwippert give a lesson every day on the violin.

It is evident from this, that the complement of masters is not yet perfect, and that besides the masters already annexed, a good organist is especially

needed, the town organist being employed only for want of a better.

Although the general superintendence rests upon the director, yet, to relieve him, one of the masters in rotation has hitherto conducted the special inspection each week. But I see every day more clearly, that the whole inspection ought to devolve upon the director alone;—in a well-regulated house there should be but one head. The other masters also recognise this principle; and in the end the director will have the whole superintendence, and, in case of need, will transfer it to the inspector. But as the director and the inspector cannot be always with the pupils, and as it is nevertheless necessary that there should be some fixed person to refer to when disturbances or complaints occur, the established custom will be continued of appointing the student who is deemed the best fitted as superintendent of his fellow-students. This plan may, besides, have a very useful effect in the education both of the young superintendent and of his schoolfellows.

7. RESULTS OF THE EXAMINATION AT QUITTING THE SCHOOL.

The first parting examination took place from the 15th to the 19th of September, under the auspices of the consistory-councillor, Mr. Poll, of Köln, and the following left the school :

6 pupils with the certificate, No. 1	
11	2, nearly No. 1.
8	2
13	3, nearly No. 2.
6	3

In all forty-four. There had been, it is true, fifty pupils admitted since the opening of the school; but at the end of the first year, three pupils were permitted by high authority to begin the course anew:

one other, by a decision of the Chief-president of the province, bearing date Nov. 24th, 1823, was expelled: the fifth, Henry Joseph Schmitz, died of consumption, on the 3rd of May of the preceding year: and the sixth, Joseph Waldnehl, sent back to his parents on account of illness before the examination, died of consumption, as has been already stated, on the 21st of January.

8. THE PUPILS' PROSPECT OF APPOINTMENT AFTER LEAVING THE SCHOOL.

As the school is not in direct correspondence with the central government, and the newspapers of the district do not mention the subject, I do not know exactly if all the pupils have met with appointments. From a private communication of Mr. Husgen, consistory-councillor at Aachen (*Aix-la-Chapelle*), I learn, that the pupils from this department are all appointed, and that the parishes are perfectly satisfied with them. I learn also from Mr. Schmitz, consistorial assessor at Köln, that the greater part of the pupils from that department, perhaps all by this time, are appointed: since which, the Köln journal expressed the satisfaction of the parishes respecting the pupils of the primary normal school of Brühl. I do not know the author of this article. The news is without doubt gratifying to the masters and encouraging to the pupils, but we are not puffed up by it, our self-satisfaction resting on another foundation.

9. PUPILS LATELY ADMITTED.

The law of the school says (§ 44), that every pupil, who, at the end of the first year, shall not have made progress enough to warrant the expectation that at the end of the course he will be capable of fulfilling the duties of a schoolmaster, shall be sent back. This, then, fixes a year as the time of trial, and it appears

to me a wise regulation. Experience has shown us that many who enter weak become strong, whilst others who appeared very forward at first are left behind. A few acquirements more or less are not so important in the new-comers as good natural capacity and love of work. I have not yet been three months with the new pupils, so that I cannot give a decided opinion respecting them; but the masters agree in saying, that although none have yet specially distinguished themselves, there are some of very good capacity, and very few who seem weak. I have pleasure in being able to state that a peaceful and joyous spirit reigns amongst them.

10. DISTRIBUTION OF THE GRANTS.

The grants are fixed by the Chief-president of the province, at the time of the admission of the pupils, according to the contributions of each department. The whole amount of the grants for these two years* is 2645 thaler (396*l.* 15*s.*); that of the preceding amounted to 2978 thlr. (446*l.* 14*s.*), which gives an excess of 333 thlr. Although I lament this falling off, I am willing to believe it is the effect of demands of paramount importance. The contribution of each department to the sum stated is as follows:

		<i>Thlr.</i>	<i>Gr.</i>	<i>£.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
1. Coblenz . . for 23 pupils		637	11 or	95	12	0
2. Düsseldorf. — 20 ———		547	1—	82	1	0
3. Köln. — 24 ———		651	16—	97	14	0
4. Aachen . . . — 27 ———		809	2—	121	7	0
		—	—	—	—	—
Total . . 94		2645	0	£396	14	0

Two pupils quitted the school this year, not having a decided turn for teaching: by this withdrawal a *stipendium* of 45 thlr. 15 gr. (6*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.*) is become vacant.

* The course at this school lasts only two years.

11. HISTORICAL NOTICE OF THE YEAR.

(Here occurs an account of some visits.)

His Majesty's birth-day was celebrated by religious solemnities and a joyous feast. In acknowledging my report of the 6th of August, the Chief-president was pleased to testify his high satisfaction at the manner in which this festival had been celebrated by the school. I could not forbid the pupils from celebrating the birth-days of the masters, because similar festivities are customary in well-regulated families. The pupils brought a garland of ivy, and decorated the door and the pulpit with wreaths of it, sung some couplets, and presented their congratulations in writing.

12. WISHES AND SUGGESTIONS.

(Not to be made public.)

I have almost need to ask your pardon, Sir, for the length of this report, which however I have often abridged. But it bears such marks of sincerity, candour, and judicious kindness and indulgence,—it so thoroughly shows the spirit in which this great establishment is governed, that I thought it better to let the worthy *Curé* speak for himself, craving some little indulgence for his diffuseness.

I now submit to you a report of another establishment of the same kind, which, while it preserves the identity of the fundamental principles, exhibits quite a different character,—that of protestantism, and the severe methodical spirit peculiar to Northern Germany. But before I give the entire report of the director of the protestant normal school of Potsdam, I think it right to translate the original rules of

that school, or rather the ministerial instructions, which, from the perfect confidence reposed by government in the director, were allowed to be of the most general kind. This is the constant practice of the ministry in Prussia,—to be scrupulous to the last degree in the choice of a director, and then to leave him great latitude at the beginning, with reservation to the minister to judge of the whole by the results, and to interpose his authority after full knowledge of facts.

Extract of the Instructions (Dienst-Instruction,—service-instruction,) for the Director of the Primary Normal School of Potsdam.

These instructions, which prescribe the duties of the director, are rather calculated to suggest the point of view under which he ought to regard his office, than to define his functions and occupations with precision. These may undergo various modifications from unforeseen circumstances; and the director of an establishment ought not to adhere to the literal meaning of official rules, but to be guided by more large and elevated conceptions, and, wherever the law is silent, to supply the deficiency from his own intelligence.

All that a rational and pious father of a family is to his household, the director ought to be to the whole establishment and to each of its members; the kind friend and colleague of all the pupils and masters who are animated with a true feeling of their duties; on the other hand, the severe and inflexible ruler of those who refuse to listen to the voice of reason and of religion.

He ought to pay attention to the smallest things as well as to the greatest, that nothing may trouble

the harmony of the entire machine committed to his watchful guidance.

He is bound especially,—

1. To manage the pecuniary affairs of the establishment, unless they be placed in the hands of some other authority ;

2. To superintend the domestic economy and the steward ; to have an eye to the library and to all the instruments, &c. necessary for the school ;

3. To preserve and add to these, and to give an account of the funds appropriated to the purchase of books, &c. ;

4. To carry on the correspondence, to make the report to the school-board on the normal school and the school attached to it ; to send in the list of candidates for admission, to keep the archives, &c. ;

5. To call up, examine, and choose the candidates for admission, with the advice of the masters ; and to divide and distribute the grants, or exhibitions, according to fixed principles ;

6. To draw out and present plans of study, after having referred them to the conference of schoolmasters, and to distribute and arrange the subjects of instruction, according to the plan approved by the competent authorities ;

7. To overlook and direct the masters, both in their moral conduct and their functions ;

8. To organize and direct the schoolmasters' conferences, and to draw up prospectuses for them ;

9. To fix and direct the public examinations of the normal school and the school attached ;

10. To maintain the high discipline of the normal school, and of the school attached, by all possible means, even to the expulsion of a student, after the decision of the conference of masters ; subject, however, to the obligation of making an immediate and circumstantial report to the competent authorities.

It is impossible more completely to justify the confidence of the ministry than Mr. Striez has done. From year to year the normal school confided to his care has made extraordinary progress, and in 1826 he laid before the public an account of it, which excited the liveliest interest. This account I place before you; it will give you an accurate and complete idea of the material and moral condition,—of the whole internal life,—of one of the best primary normal schools of Prussia.

*Report of the Primary Normal School at Potsdam,
by F. L. G. Striez, Director of this School and
Minister of the Holy Gospel.*

I.

HISTORICAL STATEMENT.

Until the middle of the last century there were no primary normal schools in Brandenburg. The schoolmasters were appointed by the parishes, either with the approbation of the authorities or without their knowledge, and were all drawn from the primary schools then established. All that was required of these masters, who were chiefly mechanics, was to be able to read, say the catechism, sing tolerably a few well-known psalm-tunes, and to write and cipher a little. Numbers of shepherds, employed in summer-time in keeping sheep, during winter assumed the office of teachers of youth. The nobility used generally to bestow the place of schoolmaster (if it was at their disposal,) on their valets or grooms, as a reward for past services. The primary schools in towns sometimes had masters a little better informed, but even they had neither good taste nor method in their manner of teaching.

Johann Julius Hecker, chief councillor of the consistory at Berlin, and minister of Trinity church, was the first who undertook to train young men for the art of teaching. With this view he founded a school to supply masters for his own diocese.

This establishment, founded in 1748, remained for some time a private one; in the year 1753 it was raised to the rank of a royal primary normal school for schoolmasters and parish-clerks. The provincial authorities were enjoined, in a Cabinet-order published the 1st of October, 1753, to select, as far as possible, the members of this establishment for the royal places of parish-clerk and schoolmaster.

But this primary normal school was still far from meeting the constantly increasing wants of the province, and little merited the name of a royal school. The pupils, scattered in all parts of the capital, were not properly watched nor directed in their studies. Being all mechanics, they laboured at their trades rather than their studies, and were besides exposed to the influence of the corporation spirit*, and to the seductions of a great town. In fact, the time which they devoted to their studies at the normal school was in general too short to afford any hope of effecting the end proposed.

In 1771 Frederick the Great appropriated 4000 crowns, interest upon a capital of 100,000 crowns, to the improvement of the country schools in the Electoral March; he used on this occasion the following expressions: "Primary education, especially in the country, has been hitherto much neglected; it becomes imperative to remove the bad masters, and replace them by competent men." Understanding that the schools were better organized in Saxony, he ordered that masters should be drawn thence, and put

* In Germany the members of each trade, till very recently, composed a *Zunft*,—guild, or corporation.—TRANSL.

in the place of those whom it might have seemed fit to remove, in spite of their being dependents on the crown or on the nobles. An increase of salary was to be allowed to the new masters, from the special fund lately created; and the individuals most distinguished among them to be held out to the primary normal school as *models for masters in training*.

But the benevolent intention of the king could not be entirely realized; either the persons entrusted with its execution were negligent, or they found it difficult to draw skilful masters from Saxony. To obviate this inconvenience, it was determined to place in the schools which were susceptible of reform, theological candidates, who should fill the office of masters. The only effect, however, of all this was to attach a better salary to a certain number of schoolmasterships, and to relieve the inhabitants of the parishes of Brandenburg from the obligation of paying for the education of their children,—the better-paid masters being bound to give gratuitous instruction. Such is the origin of the so-called charity-schools.

Some lesser normal schools, indeed, sprang up insensibly at Berlin; but either they were not of long continuance, or they remained unimportant; or else they had no other view than to form masters for Berlin and the neighbouring towns of an inferior order.

Such was the state of things when, in 1809, the regency of Potsdam, the ecclesiastical authorities, and the school-deputation began to give a new direction to the system hitherto followed in primary instruction.

Nothing was more strongly felt than the want of good masters. Exact information was eagerly sought as to the condition of the primary normal school at Berlin, and in 1810 great improvements were effected in this establishment. Upon their success depended,

in part, whether this school should be continued and remain at Berlin, or whether it should be transferred to another place. Now, on experiment, the measures adopted appeared inapplicable to the establishment at Berlin, and a serious intention was consequently formed of founding another. As the chapter-house of Havelberg, which they had in view, was not at that time to be disposed of, it was, in 1815, resolved to establish provisionally the new normal school at Potsdam. The license was granted in 1816, and the project executed in 1817.

The primary normal school of Berlin having been superseded by that of Potsdam, the best pupils of the old establishment formed the nucleus of the new one.

The building which the royal government had purchased in 1817 was granted the normal school in fee, towards the end of the year 1819.

As early as the commencement of this year, Professor Schärtlich entered on his duties in the normal school. Then came Mr. Runge, a candidate for holy orders, who, under the direction of Mr. von Türck, councillor of primary instruction (*Schulrath*), worked at the first organization of this establishment. The same year Mr. Löffler and Mr. Klöden were engaged, the one as second, the other as head master. A house-keeper was charged with the domestic economy. Soon after Mr. Klöden was made director, and Messrs. Zeisiger and Lichtwert were appointed to teach writing and drawing.

According to the rules, the pupils should have been lodged and boarded in the establishment; but the considerable expense and the small number of purses or exhibitions (eight whole and eight half purses,) rendered it necessary gradually to release some of the pupils from conforming to these regulations.

The normal course was fixed at three years; but as

the means of instruction were insufficient for three classes, they were compelled to limit themselves to two, and adopt, as the term of study for each, the period of a year and a half.

The royal government had founded a school for practice, in connexion with the normal school; but its distance from the normal school so hindered the progress of the studies, that it was long before it accomplished the object of its institution.

To instruct the pupils in gardening, in 1821 an old burial-ground, situated before the Nauen gate was hired.

The swimming-school, before the Berlin gate, ✓ established by Mr. von Türck, on the principles of General Pfuhl, soon presented an excellent opportunity for teaching to swim.

The number of pupils, up to Michaelmas 1824, amounted to about sixty, and, including the young men who had at that time left the school, it had already supplied the province with more than a hundred masters.

At the Easter of 1824, Mr. Runge, called to the directorship of the primary normal school at Cöslin, was succeeded by Mr. Sellin, candidate for holy orders. In July, the same year, Mr. Klöden, being put at the head of the new school of arts and trades at Berlin, the author of this report succeeded to the office of director. Mr. Löffler, removed to another post, was replaced by Mr. Schön; and Mr. Heinrich was appointed master for writing and drawing, and assistant master for different branches of instruction.

These changes were accompanied by improvements in the internal and external management of the establishment. The number of classes was increased to three, and instead of eighteen months, the pupils passed a year in each. The lesser normal school of Grossbänitz having been closed, the number of pupils

in that of Potsdam was considerably increased. A great diminution was made in the charge for board, and the system of economy in the house underwent a change. The grants were augmented, and all the pupils without exception compelled to live in the establishment, to board there, and continue three years. The new arrangements admitted the masters to lodge in the normal school; and lastly a special school divided into four classes, was founded to serve as a school for practice to the young masters.

II.

PRESENT ORGANIZATION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

1. *Direction and Inspection.*

The normal school and its annexed school are placed under a director or principal, subordinate to the royal school-board of the province of Brandenburg at Berlin, and to the minister of public instruction and ecclesiastical and medical affairs.

The last-named authority lays down the principles to be followed in this school, as in all other public schools; exacts an account of all important matters, such as the nomination of the masters, and any change in the fundamental plan of the studies; and receives every year, through the medium of the royal school-board, a detailed report, prepared by the director of the school.

The school-board is charged with the special inspection of the normal school: it must watch its progress, and from time to time send commissioners to make inquiries on the spot. It examines also and approves the plan of studies presented every half-year and decides on all questions submitted to the consistory.

The director should superintend the whole establishment, observe and direct the masters and ser-

vants, make reports to the superior authorities, carry on the correspondence, &c.

2. *Building.*

The normal school, situated near the canal and the Berlin gate, is a large edifice two stories high, with a frontage of 127 feet, and considerable back-buildings, which, joined to the main building, form a square within which is a tolerably spacious court. The whole comprehends :

1. A family residence for the director or principal, and another for a master ;
2. Three apartments for three unmarried masters ;
3. An apartment for the steward and his servants, and sufficient convenience for household business and stowage ;
4. A dining-room for the pupils, which serves also for the writing and drawing class ;
5. An organ-room, in which the music-lessons are given, the examinations take place, and the morning and evening prayers are said ;
6. Two rooms for the scientific instruction of the pupils ;
7. Four rooms for the classes of the annexed school ;
8. Five rooms of different sizes, and two dormitories for the pupils ;
9. Two infirmaries ;
10. A wash-house ;
11. Two cabinets of natural history ;
12. Granaries, cellars, wood-houses, &c.

3. *Revenues.*

The normal school receives yearly 5,400 thaler (810*l.*) from different state funds. To which we must add nearly 2,750 thaler (412*l.* 10*s.*), paid by the pupils, and 250 thaler (32*l.* 10*s.*) by the children of the annexed primary school ; so that the annual income

of the whole establishment amounts to 8,400 thaler (1,260*l.*)

This sum serves to pay,—

1. The salaries of the masters ;
2. The household expenses ;
3. The materials for instruction for the normal school and the school annexed ;
4. The garden-ground ;
5. The heating and lighting ;
6. The repairs of the building, furniture and utensils, the insurance, taxes and expenses of the house, &c. ;
7. The maintenance of the pupils, the ten purses or exhibitions, and half-purses, and the sundries ;
8. The physician and surgeon.

4. *Inventory.*

The establishment contains the following articles ;

1. Things required in the economy of the house, kitchen-utensils, tables, forms, &c. ;
2. Sufficient and suitable furniture, consisting of chests of drawers, tables, forms, chairs and boxes, for the classes of the normal school, and the school for practice, and for the masters' rooms, &c. There is also, for the poorer pupils, a certain number of beds with bedding ;
3. A considerable library for the masters and pupils, as well as a good collection of maps and globes for the teaching of geography ;
4. A tolerably complete collection of philosophical instruments ;
5. A collection of minerals, presented to the establishment by Councillor von Türk ;
6. A collection of stuffed birds, and other objects in natural history ;
7. The instruments most required in mathematical instruction ;

8. Complete drawing apparatus ;
9. A very considerable collection of music ;
10. A very good organ, a piano-forte, seven harpsichords, and many wind- and string-instruments.

Additions are made every year, from funds specially appropriated to this purpose, and by the care of the superior authorities ; the whole inventory of the establishment is insured for 7,500 thaler (1,125*l.*) in the insurance-office at Aachen (*Aix-la-Chapelle*), at a premium of only about 14 thaler (2*l.* 2*s.*).

5. *Domestic Economy and Maintenance of the Pupils.*

To support about eighty pupils, and to preserve cleanliness in the house, a steward has been appointed, whose duties are specified in a contract renewable every year.

The food of the pupils is good and wholesome, which is proved by the state of their health. Some parents think it needful to send their children eatables, or money to purchase them. They are wrong, for the children have no such want ; on the contrary, so far from being advantageous, these presents only serve to take away their appetite at meals, and to make them dainty and gluttonous. The orphans, and those whose parents are too poor to send them any thing, are exactly those who are the strongest and healthiest.

The director is almost always present at meals, to be sure of the goodness of the food, and to prevent any irregularity in the serving up.

Sick pupils are sent to the infirmary, and are attended by the physician or surgeon of the establishment.

6. *Masters.*

1. Mr. Schärtlich, from Saxony, pupil of the primary normal school of Dresden, is charged with the theoretical and practical instruction in singing and music.

2. Mr. Sellin, from Pomerania, pupil of the pri-

mary normal school of Stettin, and student in theology at Berlin, gives instruction in religion, history, the German language, arithmetic, &c.

3. Mr. Strietz, from the Middle March, first, master of the orphan-house of Potsdam, then director of the primary normal school and of the orphan-house at Neuzelle, and minister of the Gospel, is now director of the normal school of Potsdam. He instructs in religion, in the principles of education or training, of the art of teaching, and of the methods of study. (*See p. 200, note.*)

4. Mr. Schön, from Silesia, pupil of the normal school of Bunzlau, having studied at Berlin the mathematics, natural philosophy, geography and natural history, teaches principally these sciences.

5. Mr. Heinrich, from the New March, pupil of the primary normal school of Neuzelle, and of the drawing school of Mr. Schmid at Berlin, teaches writing, drawing, arithmetic, &c.

All these masters belong exclusively to the establishment, in which also they live. Each of them, with the exception of the principal, (whose number varies from twelve to sixteen,) gives from twenty-four to twenty-seven lessons a-week, and Messrs Sellin and Schön have alternately the special superintendence of the pupils.

The number of lessons being so great, one of the cleverest pupils trained in the house is employed as assistant master, so that the number of masters in fact amounts to six.

7. Number of Pupils.

The number of the pupils is fixed by the regulation at from 75 to 80, and is now 78, of whom 72 live in the establishment; the other six have obtained a license to remain with their parents in order to lessen the expense of their maintenance.

This number is determined not only by the build-

ing, but also by the wants of the province. Brandenburg contains about 1500 masterships of primary schools, in town and country. Supposing that out of a hundred places, two become vacant every year, there will be at least thirty masters required for this province; but these places for the most part pay so badly, that they are compelled to be content with but moderately qualified masters, who, perhaps, have not been educated at a normal school, and who sometimes follow some trade or handicraft. If, then, the normal school contains 78 pupils who form three classes, one of which quits annually, it will furnish each year 26 candidates, which about meets the wants of the country.

8. *What is required of Applicants for Admission.*

Once a-year, at Michaelmas, 26 pupils are admitted. Of these are required—

1. Good health and freedom from all bodily infirmity. (Obstacles to admission would be, exceeding smallness of stature, short-sightedness, or a delicate chest;)

2. The age of 17 complete;

3. The evangelical religion;

4. A moral and religious spirit, and a conduct hitherto blameless;

5. A good disposition and talents, amongst which are a good voice and a musical ear;

6. To be prepared for the studies of the normal school by the culture of the heart and mind; to have received a good religious education (which shall include a knowledge of the Bible and biblical history); to be able to read; to know the grammar of the German language, of composition, arithmetic, the principles of singing, the piano-forte and violin.

A written request for admission must be sent to the director, by June at the latest, accompanied with—

1. A certificate of birth and baptism;

2. A school certificate, and one of good conduct ;

3. A police certificate, stating the condition of the young man or his father, or else a written declaration from the father or guardian, stating the time within which he can and will pay the annual sum fixed by law; *i. e.* 48 thaler (6*l.* 16*s.*).

The director enters the petitioners on a list, and in the month of June or July invites them, by letter, to present themselves at the examination which takes place in July or August.

The examination is conducted partly in writing, and partly *vivá voce*.

As a means of ascertaining the acquirements of the candidates, and of judging of their memory, their style, and their moral dispositions, an anecdote or parable is related in a clear and detailed manner, summing up and repeating the principal points, after which they produce it in writing, with observations and reflections.

The oral examination usually includes only religion, reading, grammar, logical exercises, and arithmetic.

They are also examined in singing, the piano-forte and the violin.

After the examination, the talents and merits of the respective candidates are conscientiously weighed and compared, in a conference of the masters. The choice being made, it is submitted to the sanction of the royal school-board, with a detailed report of the result of the examination.

At the end of some weeks the candidates are informed of the decision ; their admission is announced, or the reasons which prevent it stated ; with either advice to give up their project entirely, or suggestions relative to their further preparation.

The admitted candidate is bound to bring, besides his clothes and books, amongst which must be the Bible and the prayer-book used in the establishment,

half-a-dozen shirts, six pairs of stockings, a knife and fork, and, generally, a bedstead with all requisite bedding.

He is also bound to sign, on his entrance, the following engagement to the director, with the consent of his father or guardian.

COPY OF THE ENGAGEMENT WITH THE DIRECTOR, TO
BE SIGNED BY THE PUPIL ON HIS ENTRANCE.

"I, the undersigned, N—— of N——, by these presents, bind myself, conformably with the ordinance of the royal minister of public instruction and ecclesiastical and medical affairs, dated Feb. 28th, 1825, with the consent of my father (or guardian) who signs this with me, to place myself during three years after my leaving the normal school, at the disposal of the king's government; and consequently not to subscribe anything contrary to this engagement; or, in such case, to refund to the normal school the expenses incurred by the state for my instruction, namely:

"1. Ten thaler for each half-year passed in the normal school, and for the instruction received in this period of time;

"2. The whole amount of the grants and exhibitions I may have received.

"Potsdam, the &c."

The applicant rejected, but not advised to choose another course, is summoned to a fresh examination the following year.

The number of applicants having been for some time past very great, the author of this report thinks it his duty to warn parents, (especially school-masters,) whose children do not evince talent and have not a decided taste for teaching, not to suffer them to lose the precious time which they might employ with much more success in some other career.

This respects chiefly the poorer youths, who can have no claim to the exhibitions, unless they give proofs of an extraordinary capacity, from which the state and society may derive a real advantage.

✓ The normal school is by no means designed for those who are unfit for any business, and think, if they can read and write, they are capable of becoming school-masters. This notion is so deeply rooted, that you hear fathers declare with all the simplicity in the world—"My son is too delicate to learn a business," or "I don't know what to make of my son, but I think of getting him into the normal school." We reply to such, that the pupils of the normal school must, on the contrary, be sound both in body and mind, and able to brave the toils and troubles of a career as laborious as it is honourable.

Much neglect unfortunately still exists on a subject which is of the highest importance,—the methodical preparation of these young men for the calling which it is desired they should embrace.

A false direction is often given to their preliminary studies. A young man is believed to be well prepared for the normal school, if he have passed the limits of elementary instruction, and if he have acquired a greater mass of knowledge than other pupils. It frequently happens, however, that candidates who come strongly recommended from school, pass the examination without credit, or are even rejected.

The most immediate and the most important aim of all instruction, is to train up and complete the Man; to ennoble his heart and character; to awaken the energies of his soul, and to render him not only disposed, but able, to fulfill his duties. In this view alone can knowledge and talents profit a man; otherwise, instruction, working upon sterile memory and talents purely mechanical, can be of no high utility. In order that the teacher, and particularly the master of the

primary school, may make his pupils virtuous and enlightened men, it is necessary he should be so himself. Thus, that the education of a normal school, essentially practical, may completely succeed, the young candidate must possess nobleness and purity of character in the highest possible degree, the love of the True and the Beautiful, an active and penetrating mind, the utmost precision and clearness in narration and style.

Such above all things are the qualities we require of young men. If they have reached this state of moral and intellectual advancement by the study of history, geography, mathematics, &c., and if they have acquired additional knowledge on these various branches, we cannot but give them applause; but, we frankly repeat, we dispense with all these acquirements, provided they possess that *formal instruction* of which we have just spoken, since it is very easy for them to obtain in the normal school that *material instruction* in which they are deficient.

It is nevertheless necessary to have some preliminary notions, seeing that the courses at the normal school are often a continuation of foregone studies, and that certain branches could not be there treated in their whole extent, if they were wholly unknown to the young men when they entered. We have already mentioned the branches they should be most particularly prepared in; but this subject being of the greatest interest, we shall conclude this chapter with some suggestions on the plan to be followed.

I. *Religion.* To awaken and fortify the religious spirit and the moral sentiments. For this purpose the histories and parables of the Bible are very useful. Frequent reading and accurate explanation of the Bible are necessary. The pupils should be able to explain the articles of faith, and the most important duties, as laid down in the catechism. Many sentences,

whole chapters and parables from the Holy Scriptures, hymns and verses, should be known by heart; they should be able to give answers on the most interesting points of the history of the church and the reformation.

Useful books on the subject:

1. Hübner, *Biblical Stories*, published by Rauschenbusch, and his *Schoolmaster's Manual*, 3 vols., Schwelm, 1824;

2. *The manifestation of God in the histories of the Old Testament, with the Life of Jesus Christ according to the four Evangelists, and the History of the Apostles according to St. Luke*, 8 vols., Halle, 1820;

3. Krummacher, *Biblical Catechism*;

4. Huber, *Introduction to all the Books of Holy Writ*, Basel, 1812;

5. Hornung, *Manual for the Explanation of Biblical History and Geography*, 1825;

6. *Catechism of the Christian Doctrine for Children*, Hirschberg, 1809;

7. Hornung, *Summary of the Christian Faith*, Berlin, 1823;

8. Schmid, *Sketch of the History of the Christian Religion and Church*, Berlin, 1823.

II. As to *general history*, there is no need of its being circumstantially or profoundly known; but the young men should be able to refer with exactness to those historical facts which may be profitably used to form the heart, to exercise and rectify the judgement, to infuse a taste for all that is grand and noble, true and beautiful.

Useful books on the subject:

1. Ewald, *Examples of Virtue*, a collection of noble deeds and characteristic traits from universal history, &c., 3 vols., Stuttgart, 1813;

2. *School of Wisdom and Virtue*, Stuttgart, 1813;
3. Wagnitz, *Examples of Virtue*, 2 vols.;
4. Fischer, *Lives of celebrated Reformers*;
5. Pflaum, *Lives of celebrated Men*, for the use of young persons;
6. Kraft, *The Modern Plutarch*;
7. Niemeyer, *The German Plutarch*.

III. *Geometry* (the study of forms) combined with *elementary drawing*, the one as a basis for instruction in writing and drawing, and as a preparation for the mathematics; the other to exercise the hand, the eye, and the taste.

Useful books on the subject:

1. J. Schmidt, *Elements of Form and Size*, Berne, 1809;
2. Von Türck, *The Doctrine of Form and Size*;
3. Hoffmann, *The Geometrical Doctrine of Forms*, Mainz, 1818;
4. Stein, *The Doctrine of Forms in connexion with elementary Drawing*, Züllichau, 1824;
5. J. Schmidt, *Elements of Drawing*, Berlin, 1809;
6. Sickel, *Practical Doctrine of Forms*, Leipzig, 1824.

IV. *Writing*. The copies by Heinrich and Henning only ought to be used, which, after long practice, give and preserve a beautiful hand, even when writing fast and much.

V. *Logical Exercises*. These ought to tend to produce in young minds clearness and accuracy of ideas, justness of judgement, and, by consequence, precision and facility in oral and written explanations.

Useful books on the subject:

1. Niemeyer, *Principles of Education and of Instruction*, 2nd vol., 3rd part, 2nd section, 1st chapter;
2. Grassmann, *Manual of Practice in thinking and speaking*.

3. Krause, *Exercises for learning to think in a methodical and natural manner*.

4. Schaller, *Magazine of Logical Exercises*, 1st vol.

VI. *Reading*. When once the pupil can read fluently, he must be taught to give emphasis to his reading, and to feel what he reads. He should be habituated to recite, and even gradually to analyse the phrases and periods he has just read, to change the order, and express the same idea in different words,—to put, for example, poetry into prose, &c. Thus these exercises serve at the same time to teach him to think, and to speak. We advise also that he be made to declaim pieces he has learnt by heart.

Reading books :

1. Wilmsen, *The Children's Friend*, 2nd and 3rd parts ;

2. *The Reading Book* published by the professors of the gymnasium of Helmstädt ;

3. Seidenstücker, *Eutonia* ;

4. The best books of hymns.

VII. *German language and composition*. Language should be regarded and treated on the one hand as a means of *formal instruction*,—as practical logic, and on the other as an indispensable object of *material instruction*.

See, under the former point of view,

Tillich, *The Teaching of languages a powerful means of Education*, Leipzig, 1803, and his reading book, 1st and 2nd parts.

Under the other head,

Krause, *German grammar*, and his *Systematic manual of the German Language*.

See also the grammars of Heyse, Hahn, Rothe, and Bernhardt.

The young men should be made to write many compositions and epistolary exercises.

Useful books on the subject :

1. Falkmann, *System of Exercises in German Style*;
2. Do. *Elementary Book on Style* ;
3. Do. *Manual of Exercises in German Style* ;
4. Baumgarten, *Plans and Materials for Compositions* ;
5. *The Little Letter-Writer* of Baumgarten, Schlez and Dolz, &c.

VIII. *Arithmetic*. This does not include either methods of abstruse calculation or practical arithmetic. Nothing more is required of the pupil than to use figures without difficulty, and to calculate in his head.

Useful books on the subject :

1. Pestalozzi, *Tables of whole Numbers and Fractions* ;
2. His *Explanation of the Relations of Numbers* ;
3. J. Schmidt, *Elements of Numbers*, and the *Elements of Algebra* ;
4. Kawerau, *Book of Arithmetic*.

IX. *Singing, piano-forte, violin*. The formation of the voice and ear. Skill and firmness in producing sounds. Exercises in elementary singing. Psalmody.

For the piano-forte and violin, as much dexterity as can be expected, and a good fingering for the former instrument.

If these suggestions have the effect of inducing a conscientious master to train well even a few young candidates, they will have attained their object.

The enumeration of a great number of works from which assistance may be derived, at least facilitates the choice.

9. Outward condition of the Pupils; and the nature of their connexion with the Normal School.

If the young men have no relations at Potsdam who can answer for their good conduct and application, they are all, without exception, bound to live in the normal school, and to take their food there, paying to the director the sum of 12 thaler (17. 16s.) per quarter.

Each pupil costs the establishment 100 thaler a-year. In paying, therefore, the yearly sum of 48 thaler, required by law, he defrays only half his expenses. A bursar is entitled to lodging, firing, board, candles, and instruction. A half-bursar pays only 24 thaler a-year. He has then only to buy his clothes, to pay for his washing, his books, paper, pens, ink, and whatever is wanted for music and drawing.

The pupils pay for medicine; the establishment, however, willingly lends assistance, if, at the end of a severe illness, the cost is very great.

As to clothes, (which, however, must be clean, and not ragged,) and books, no one is compelled to incur greater expense than his means will allow.

During their stay in the normal school the young men can earn nothing, since they have no time left to give private lessons, which, moreover, would cause great inconvenience.

With respect to lodging, they are distributed into five large rooms with stoves, appropriated to the pupils; and they live and work, to the number of eight, twelve, or sixteen, in one of these rooms, which is furnished with tables, chairs, drawers, book-cases, bureaux, and piano-fortes. Their beds and chests are put in two dormitories. Each sitting-room, each bed-room, has its inspector, chosen from among the pupils, who is responsible for its order. It is the duty of one of the pupils belonging to the chamber to arrange and dust the furniture, &c. every day. Neg-

lect in the fulfilment of his office is punished by the continuance of it.

So long as the pupils remain at the normal school, and behave with propriety, they are exempt from military service.

All the pupils are bound to pursue the course of the normal school for three years; their acquirements and instruction would be incomplete if they did not conform to this regulation.

10. *Education of the Pupils by means of Discipline and of Instruction.*

This important subject is of far too great extent for us to attempt to exhaust it here. We shall take a future opportunity of entering upon it, and show how all the branches of instruction are treated in the normal school. At present we shall content ourselves with the mention of the principles which regulate the instruction and general discipline.

In the education of the masters of primary schools the wants of the people must be consulted.

We have abundant proof that the well-being of an individual, like that of a people, is nowise secured by extraordinary intellectual powers or very refined civilization. The true happiness of an individual, as of a people, is founded on strict morality, self-government, humility and moderation; on the willing performance of all duties to God, his superiors, and his neighbours.

A religious and moral education is consequently the first want of a people. Without this, every other education is not only without real utility, but in some respects dangerous. If, on the contrary, religious education has taken firm root, intellectual education will have complete success, and ought on no account to be withheld from the people, since God has endowed them with all the faculties for acquiring

it, and since the cultivation of all the powers of man secures to him the means of reaching perfection, and, through that, supreme happiness.

Religious and moral instruction, far from leading to presumption and a disputatious spirit, on the contrary produces in man a consciousness of his weakness, and, as a consequence, humility. The object then should be, to give the people solid and practical knowledge, suited to their wants, which will naturally refine and soften their habits and manners.

If such be the instruction the people ought to receive, that of the masters of the primary schools is at once determined, and the principles to be followed in the instruction of our pupils are equally clear.

A more definite direction is given to religious and moral instruction by the belief in the revealed word of God in the Holy Scriptures. But this belief must not be simply historical, as amongst the learned; nor amuse itself with obscure and mystical notions; nor be expressed with affectation, in word, gesture, or deed. It ought rather so to penetrate the heart of man as to produce a constant endeavour to have his thoughts, sentiments, and actions in strictest harmony with the word of God. It is, then, on the living conviction of the truths and doctrines of Christianity that we base the religious and moral character of our pupils. Enemies to all needless constraint, we allow the young men all the liberty compatible with our responsibility, with our duty of guarding them from every seduction, and with the internal order of the establishment. We are indulgent to faults which arise not from bad disposition, but we punish unkindness and rudeness even in look and gesture. To be cringing and hypocritical is a bad way of seeking our favour, but we encourage to the utmost of our power real unassuming piety, docility, zeal, and industry.

To sustain and confirm the religious and moral

spirit of our pupils, we adopt various means. We take particular care that they go to church every Sunday: they are not compelled to attend exclusively the *Heilige Geist Kirche* (church of the Holy Ghost), which is the parish church of the normal school, and which it supplies with a choir of singers; but on the Monday they are required to name the church they went to, and to give an account of the sermon. Every Sunday, at six o'clock in the morning, one of the oldest pupils reads, in turn, a sermon, in the presence of all the pupils and one master. At the beginning and end they sing a verse of a psalm, accompanied on the organ. A prayer, about ten or fifteen minutes long, is offered up every morning and night, by one of the masters. They begin with singing one or two verses; then follows a religious address, or the reading of a chapter from the Bible, and, in conclusion, another verse.

To obtain a moral influence over the pupils, we consider their individual position, their wants, and their conduct. Much aid in this respect is derived from the weekly conferences of the masters, and particularly from the quarterly report (*Censur*) of the pupils, or judgement on the application, progress, and conduct of each. This is written in a particular book, called the report-book (*Censurbuch*), and forms the basis of the certificates delivered to the pupils on their leaving the establishment, as well as of private advice given at the time.

The means of correction adopted are, warnings, exhortations, reprimands; at first privately, then at the conference of the masters; lastly, before all the pupils. If these means do not suffice, recourse is had to confinement, to withdrawing the *stipendia* or exhibitions, and, in the last resort, to expulsion. But we endeavour, as much as possible, to prevent these punishments, by keeping up a friendly intercourse with the pupils, by distinguishing the meritorious,

by striving to arouse a noble emulation, and to stir up in their hearts the desire of gaining esteem and respect by irreproachable conduct.

It is on the interest given to the lessons that especially depends the application to study out of class. Certain hours of the day are consecrated to private study, and each master by turns takes upon himself to see that quiet is maintained in the rooms, and that all are properly occupied.

At the end of each month, the last lesson, whatever the branch of instruction, is a recapitulation, in the form of an examination, on the subjects treated of in the course of the month.

As to the branches of knowledge taught, and the course of study, the following is the fundamental plan:—[See the opposite Table.]

In the first year *formal instruction* predominates; in the second, *material instruction*; in the third, *practical instruction**. The pupils, having then about ten lessons a-week to give in the annexed school, (lessons for which they must be well prepared,) follow fewer courses in the school.

Our principal aim, in each kind of instruction, is to induce the young men to think and judge for themselves. We are opposed to all mechanical study and servile transcripts. The masters of our primary schools must possess intelligence themselves, in order to be able to awaken it in their pupils; otherwise, the state would doubtless prefer the less expensive schools of Bell and Lancaster.

We always begin with the elements, because we are compelled to admit, at least at present, pupils whose studies have been neglected; and because we wish to organize the instruction in every branch, so as to afford the pupils a model and guide in the lessons which they will one day be called upon to give.

With respect to *material instruction*, we regard

* See page 270.

THIRD YEAR.

SUBJ.

SIXTH HALF YEAR.

INSTR. TICAL INSTRUCTION.

LESSONS.

SUMMER.

LESSONS.

1. REL

2. GE
LANG

1.

Composition.

1.

3.

4.

5.

6. 15.

7. 14.

8. 13.

9. 12.

10.

11.



much more the solidity, than the extent, of the acquirements. This not only accords with the intentions of the higher authorities, but reason itself declares that solidity of knowledge alone can enable a master to teach with efficacy, and carry forward his own studies with success. Thus, young men of delicate health are sometimes exempted from certain branches of study, such as the mathematics, thoroughbass, and natural philosophy.

Gardening is taught in a piece of ground before the Nauen gate; and swimming, in the swimming-school established before the Berlin gate, during the proper season, from seven to nine in the evening.

Practical instruction we consider of the greatest importance.

All the studies and all the knowledge of our pupils would be fruitless, and the normal school would not fulfil the design of its institution, if the young teachers were to quit the establishment without having already methodically applied what they had learned, and without knowing by experience what they have to do, and how to set about it.

To obtain this result, it is not sufficient that the young men should see the course gone through under skilful masters, or that they should themselves occasionally give lessons to their schoolfellows; they must have taught the children in the annexed school for a long time, under the direction of the masters of the normal school. It is only by familiarising themselves with the plan of instruction for each particular branch, and by teaching each for a certain time themselves, that they can acquire the habit of treating it with method.

11. *Annexed School.*

The annexed school was founded in 1825, and receives gratuitously from 160 to 170 boys. The higher authorities, in granting considerable funds

for the establishment of this school, have been especially impelled by the benevolent desire of securing to the great mass of poor children in this town the means of instruction, and of relieving the town from the charge of their education.

The town-authorities agreed, on their part, to pay the establishment one thaler and five silber-groschen (3s. 6d.) a year for each child. On this condition we supply the children gratuitously with the books, slates, &c. which they want.

The annexed school is a primary school, which is divided into four classes, but reckons only three degrees: the second and third classes are separated from each other only for the good of the pupils, and for the purpose of affording more practice to the young masters.

The first class, with the two above it, forms a good and complete elementary school; while the highest presents a class of a burgher school, where the most advanced pupils of the normal school, who will probably be one day employed in the town schools, give instruction to the cleverest boys of the annexed school.

Here is a table of what is taught in this school.

Subjects taught.	Lowest class.	The two middle classes.	Highest class.
	Lessons.	Lessons.	Lessons.
1. Religion	4	4	3
2. Reading	6	6	2
3. The German language	6	4	4
4. Arithmetic	3	4	4
5. Geometry and drawing.....	2	2	2
6. Writing	3	3	4
7. Singing	2	3	3
8. Mathematics			2
9. Geography			2
10. Natural History.....			2
11. History			2
Total number of lessons in the week	26	26	30

We shall add a few remarks on this plan.

1. In the two middle classes, the most common sorts of knowledge are taught, together with reading, on the plan of Hempel (*The Primary School's Friend*).

2. The lessons in language consist, in the lower class, of logical exercises and anecdotes; and, in the middle classes, of exercises in language and grammar (after *Krause*).

3. Writing, properly so called, is not taught in the lower class, except to the most advanced pupils; all the others are taught linear drawing and geometry.

The most advanced class of the students of the normal school to be employed in the school for practice, is divided into five *cœtus*, or divisions, each composed of five or six pupils. Each division teaches two subjects only during two months and a half, and then passes on to two other subjects; so that each has practical exercise in all the matters taught, in succession.

As far as possible, all the classes of the school for practice attend to the same subject at the same hour. The master of the normal school, who has prepared the young masters beforehand, is present during the lesson. He listens, observes, and guides them during the lessons, and afterwards communicates his observations and his opinion of the manner in which the lesson was given. Each class has a journal for each branch of instruction, in which what has been taught is entered after the lesson. As far as possible, the young master who is to give the next lesson, witnesses that of his predecessor. By this means, and particularly through the special direction of the whole practical instruction by a master of the normal school, the connexion and gradation of the lessons is completely secured.

It is requisite that every pupil of the normal school should teach all the branches in the lowest class in

succession ; for the master of a primary school, however learned he may be, is ignorant of the most indispensable part of his calling, if he cannot teach the elements.

12. *Departure from the Normal School ; Examinations ; Certificate and Appointment.*

The pupils quit the normal school after having pursued the course for three years ; for the lengthening of their stay would be an obstacle to the reception of new pupils.

But they must first go through an examination in writing and *viva voce*, as decreed by the ordinance of the minister of public instruction and ecclesiastical and medical affairs, of which we give an abstract.

“ 1. All the pupils of the primary normal schools in the kingdom shall go through an examination on leaving.

“ 2. The examinations shall be conducted by all the masters of the normal school, on all the subjects taught in the house, in the presence and under the direction of one or more commissioners delegated by the provincial school-board.

“ 3. Every pupil, before leaving, shall give a probationary lesson, to show to what degree he possesses the art of teaching.

“ 4. After the examination is over, and exact accounts of the pupils leaving are given by the director and all the masters, a certificate shall be delivered to each pupil, signed by the director, the masters and the commissioners.

“ 5. This certificate shall specify the knowledge and talents of the pupil ; it shall state whether he possesses the art of teaching, and whether his moral character renders him fit for the office of primary schoolmaster. It shall include, besides, a general opinion of his character and attainments, expressed

by one of the terms, 'excellent,' 'good,' 'passable,' and answering to the numbers 1, 2, 3.

"6. This certificate only gives the pupil a provisional power of receiving an appointment for three years. After that time he must undergo a new examination at the normal school. But any pupil who, on leaving the establishment, obtained number 1, and has, in the course of the three first years, been teacher in a public school, shall not have to pass another examination. No others can take a situation, except provisionally.

"7. These new examinations shall not take place at the same time as those of the pupils who are leaving; but, like those, always in the presence and under the direction of the commissioners of the school-board.

"8. In the first examinations the principal object is, to ascertain if the pupils have well understood the lessons of the normal school, and learned to apply them; in the last, the only object of inquiry is the practical skill of the candidate.

"9. The result of this new examination shall likewise be expressed in a certificate, appended to the first, and care shall be taken to specify therein the fitness of the candidate for the profession of schoolmaster."

For which reason, the pupils on their departure receive a certificate, the first page of which describes their talents, character and morality, and the two following contain an exact account of the result of the examination on all branches of study.

Those who have not obtained appointments in the interval between the two examinations, shall present this certificate to the superintendents and school-inspectors of the places where they live, and, on leaving that place, shall demand a certificate of conduct, which they shall produce at the time of the second examination. Those who have been in situations during

the three first years, shall produce certificates from their immediate superiors.

All the pupils cannot be appointed immediately on their leaving the school; but a great number of them are proposed by the director for vacant places, and are sought after by the royal government, by superintendents, magistrates, &c.; so that at the end of a year we may calculate that they are all established.

I can answer for the perfect fidelity of this description of the normal school of Potsdam; and in the long visit and minute investigation of this great establishment which I made in person, I came to the conviction that the representation I have now submitted to you, Sir, and which was drawn up in 1826, was, in 1831, below the reality.

The primary normal school of Potsdam now contains eighty students: they all board in the house. The charge is 48 thaler a-year (7*l.* 4*s.*). Half the students pay this entire sum; others have purses (exhibitions) or half-purses. The director and the masters, to the number of five, are all lodged in the house. The director's salary is 1060 thaler a-year (159*l.*); the five masters have 530, 480, 400, 220, and 200 thaler, not including an allowance for wood. 180 thaler a-year are devoted to the maintenance of a garden, and of a gardener, who gives instruction in his art. 120 thaler a-year are spent in books; the library already contains more than a thousand volumes. There is a little cabinet of mineralogy and natural history, a collection of seeds, a tellurium for the illustration of geographical and astronomical lessons; there is also a fine organ, for every one

of the pupils is expected to be able to act as organist. Each study has its piano-forte, each pupil his violin, and a small collection of books. I have said that there are eighty students: at least a hundred applicants for admission present themselves yearly, out of whom twenty-six or twenty-seven are chosen,—about the same number as quit the school. No one can be admitted before the age of seventeen or eighteen, but they may enter considerably later; and I have seen students as old as four-and-twenty. Before they are admitted they undergo an examination, which is a trial of strength, from the identity of the subjects it embraces, and the number of competitors. During the three years of residence at the school, liability to military service is suspended. At the end of three years there is a parting examination; those who go through it with credit are entered as *candidates* for the mastership of an elementary or burgher school.

The punishment for any offence is, first, an admonition of the director in private; secondly, before the conference of schoolmasters, which takes place every week: if the bad conduct continues, the culprit is subjected to a trial or investigation, and finally expelled.

The course of instruction is very solid, and at the same time very extensive; as has been seen in the fundamental plan, which forms part of the preceding report, and by the annexed table containing the prospectus, or scheme, of the lessons for the summer half-year of 1831.

I saw this scheme in action. The spirit

which dictated the arrangement and distribution of the tuition is excellent, and equally pervades all the details. The normal course, which occupies three years, is composed, for the first year, of studies calculated to open the mind, and to inculcate on the pupils good methods in every branch, and the feeling of what is the true vocation of a primary teacher. This is what is called the *formal* instruction, in opposition to the *material* or more positive instruction of the second year, in which the pupils go through special studies of a very solid kind, and learn considerably more than they will generally be called upon to teach. The third year is entirely *practical*, and is devoted to learning the art of teaching. This is precisely the plan which I take credit to myself for having followed in the organization of the studies of the great central normal school of Paris, for the training of masters for the royal and communal *colléges*. At Potsdam, likewise, the third year comprises the sum of the two preceding, and the pupils are already regarded as masters. In this view there is a primary school annexed to the normal school, in which the students, in their third year, give lessons, under the superintendence of the masters of the normal school. The children who attend this primary school pay, or rather the town pays for them, only four thaler (12s.) a-year; there are 170. They are divided, according to their progress, into four classes, which are taught by the twenty or five-and-twenty students, or apprentice-masters, in their third year, with all the ardour of youth and of

a new vocation. I was present at several of these lessons, which were extremely well given. A master of the normal school frequently attends one of the classes, and, when the lesson is finished, makes observations to the young masters, and gives them practical lessons, by which they can immediately profit.

As appears from the prospectus, the musical instruction is carried to a very high point. There are few students who have not a violin, and many of them leave the school very good organists and piano-forte players. Singing is particularly cultivated. The course of instruction embraces not only a little botany, mineralogy, physical science, natural history, and zoology, but exercises in psychology and logic, which tend to give the young men the philosophy of that portion of popular education entrusted to their care. I was present at several lessons; among others, one on history and chronology, in which, out of courtesy to me, the pupils were interrogated on the history of France, particularly during the reigns of Charles IX., Henry III., and Henry IV.,—a period of which protestantism is so important a feature. The young men answered extremely well, and seemed perfectly familiar with the dates and leading facts. I say nothing of the gymnastic courses, as Prussia is the classic land of those exercises.

What struck me the most was the courses, called in Germany courses of *Methodik* and *Didaktik*, as also those designated by the name of *Pädagogik*: the two former intended to

teach the art of tuition, the latter the more difficult art of moral education. These courses are more particularly calculated for the acting masters, who come back to perfect themselves at the normal school; for which reason they are not entered in the table, or prospectus, which exhibits only the regular studies of the school. These courses are almost always given by the director, who also generally gives the religious instruction, which here comes in its proper place,—that is, first. There are many examples in Germany of laymen who teach religion. As all schoolmasters, who are of necessity generally laymen, are bound to give religious and moral instruction in their several schools, it follows of course that the teaching the art of giving such instruction cannot be confined to ecclesiastics. Nevertheless, such lessons can come from no one with more fitness and authority than from an ecclesiastic; and for that reason most of the directors of normal schools are either catholic *curés* or protestant pastors, or persons who, after having gone through a regular course of theological study, devote themselves to public instruction. Mr. Striez is a minister of the Gospel (*i. e.* a protestant clergyman), a man of gravity and learning, who reminded me of Mr. Schweitzer, of the normal school of Weimar*. I ought to add that all the students of the school at Potsdam had a cheerful happy air, and that their manners were very good. If they brought any rusticity to the school, they had entirely lost it. I quitted

* See first part of the *Rapport*, p. 52—55.

the establishment highly satisfied with the students, full of esteem for the director, and of respect for a country in which the education of the people has reached such a pitch of prosperity.

I indulge the hope, Sir, that this mass of authentic documents, relating to the primary normal schools of Prussia, will not be useless to you in your efforts to reform the system of our own. I have designedly accumulated official papers, from the conviction that it is impossible to collect too much information on a point on which depends the whole of primary instruction. In fact, from the moment the law has compelled each *commune* to have a primary school, nothing remains (supposing the law executed,) but to furnish them with good masters. Now the normal schools of Prussia prove that it is possible, in a very few years, to bring these establishments to a remarkable degree of perfection. Most of them are posterior to the law of 1819, some are as late as 1825, and thus three or four years have sufficed to place them on solid foundations, and to enable them to render the most important services. To effect all this, little is wanted on the part of the minister, but a firm hand and the determination to be obeyed; success depends on a very small number of rules, inflexibly adhered to.

I have, Sir, already remarked, that as every *commune* must have its primary school, so every department must have its primary normal school. If the same law which shall render the former imperative on the *communes*, should ren-

T

- der the latter equally imperative on the departments, we should have made a great advance.
- If the law does not go so far as that, you must at all events come at the same results by administrative measures ; you must require every council-general of a department, through the medium of the prefect, to vote funds for the establishment of a primary normal school, under condition of binding yourself to contribute a greater or less portion of the total expenditure, and to take upon yourself, 1. the salary of the director, whom you would nominate ; 2. the books, maps, and instruments necessary for the use of the students. The outlay to which you would thus bind yourself would be, in all respects, worthy of a minister of public instruction ; it would secure to you the moral and literary direction of the school. As to the outlay for the *matériel*, which you require the department to furnish, if it is managed with prudence and intelligence, it will not be very considerable at first. It must be laid down as a principle, that every department must have its normal school ; but that school should be proportioned to the extent and the wealth of the department, and it may, with equal propriety, be small in one and large in another. I have already shown*, and I take the liberty of recurring more at length to, the very simple and very economical plan on which a primary normal school may at first be organized.
 - Choose the best-conducted primary school in the department, that which is in the hands of

* First part of the *Rapport*, p. 59.

the master of the greatest ability and trustworthiness. Annex to this school a class called normal, in which this same master shall teach his art to a certain number of young men of the department, who are willing to come to it to form themselves for schoolmasters. The number of pupils to be admitted is very easily determined. It depends on the average number of new masters required in a year by the department. This principle is fundamental. It is absurd to gather together at random a crowd of students, who have no security for obtaining employment. Indeed this would, in all fairness, deprive us of the right of exacting from them an engagement to devote themselves for a certain number of years exclusively to public instruction. You must therefore begin by clearly ascertaining, at the beginning of every year, the number of masters the department is likely to want, and must determine by that the number of pupils to be admitted into the normal school. None should be admitted till after an examination, made by a commission appointed by you*. This commission must send you the results of its labours; and it would be well that the admission of the students to the primary normal school should be signed by you, as is the case in the admission of students to the great normal school for instruction of the second degree. This small normal school ought never to be placed in a very large town, the influence of which would be adverse to that spirit of poverty, humility and peace, so necessary to

* Sêe pp. 130, 131.

the students. There is no objection to their being day-pupils, provided they be subject to the special control of a police responsible for their conduct out of the house. Nor is it necessary that all should receive exhibitions, or purses, especially whole purses. In all small towns there are families in which a young man may be boarded and lodged for about 300 francs a-year (12*l.*) ; so that 3000 francs, prudently divided into whole, half, and quarter purses, would easily defray the cost of ten or fifteen students. Give the master the title of Director of the normal school, which would be a real gain to him, inasmuch as it would increase his consideration ; and for the additional labour you impose upon him, give him a salary of 700 or 800 francs. Add a yearly allowance of 400 or 500 francs for books, maps, and other things required in teaching ; and thus, for 5000 francs (200*l.*), at the utmost, you have a small normal school, which will be extremely useful to the department. The pupils should be permitted to leave it, if they choose, in a year, provided they be able to go through the examination at quitting, on which depends their obtaining the brevet of primary teacher. Yes, Sir, it rests with you, by means of a circular to this effect, addressed to all the prefects of the kingdom, to have, in a few months, eighty-four small primary normal schools in France. These eighty-four small schools, at 5000 francs each, would cost a little more than 400,000 francs (16,000*l.*), a part of which you could supply from the funds entrusted to you by the Chamber for the

diffusion of primary instruction. By this plan, I repeat, before six months are over, you may have in each department an excellent little normal school, which from year to year you can improve, extend, enlarge. But to wish to begin at the end, at once to found normal schools costing 50,000 or 60,000 francs each, with masters sufficient for sixty pupils, before you know the annual wants of the department, and to urge the zealous but inexperienced departmental councils into expensive and perhaps uncalled-for measures, is, Sir, to expose yourself to serious disappointments; it is to oppress the present, for the sake of a very doubtful future. The plan which I propose does not commit you to any future measures, yet it at once covers France with normal schools which will supply our first wants. It is for time, zeal, intelligence and perseverance to do the rest. There must always necessarily be a great difference among the normal schools of our eighty-four departments; but the best way is, to go on gradually improving, in proportion as experience shows you what is required. Even with this wise tardiness, three or four years will suffice to improve all these small normal schools, and to raise a great number to the rank of complete great normal schools.

What, we must here ask, is a great normal school?

The difference between a great and a small normal school consists in this: a small normal school is only an appendage to a primary school, whilst a great normal school is an esta-

blishment subsisting by and for itself, to which a primary school (and if possible that should comprise both an elementary and a middle school,) is annexed.

This difference gives the measure of all other differences. In the small normal school there are only day-pupils, or at most a few boarders. In the great, the majority may be boarders. In the one, the course may be terminated in a year ; in the other, it should extend through two years, as at Brühl; and even, in time, according to the resources of the departments and the progress of public education, it might embrace three years, as in most of the great normal schools of Prussia,—Potsdam, for example. The departments must be the judges of their resources and of their wants. A department which wants twenty schoolmasters a-year, and which has a certain number of middle or burgher schools, as well as many elementary schools, can very well receive twenty pupils a-year; which, supposing the course to occupy two or three years, amounts to forty or sixty pupils at a time in the school. Then there must be accommodation for boarding them, a large building, a greater number of masters, more exhibitions (*bourses*), more expense of every sort.

With the funds at your command, Sir, you will meet a part of these expenses ; but first you will judge of the utility of them, and will see that the scientific and moral improvement of the normal schools keeps pace with their outward growth ; for the latter is useless, except as conducing to the former. But I cannot too

often repeat,—improvements, to be real and lasting, must be founded on experience. We must incessantly tend towards great results, but we must never forget that they can be effectually secured by perseverance alone, and that nothing truly great can be forced in a hot-bed.

In the hope that the few great primary normal schools we already possess will soon be succeeded by others, I beg your attention to the following maxims, deduced from general experience, and from all the data I have accumulated here.

I. To begin by giving instructions rather than rules; to confine yourself in these instructions to the establishing of a few essential points, and to leave the rest to the departmental committee. To discuss and decide this small number of points in the royal council; not to multiply them, but inflexibly to enforce their execution. The fewer they are, the more easy will this execution be, and the more susceptible will they be of application to all the normal schools of France; so that there would be a common groundwork for all; a unity, which, passing from the normal schools into the whole body of popular education, would have a beneficial influence in strengthening the national unity. At the same time, this unity would not be prejudicial to local diversities; for the departmental committee would be desired to apply your general instructions according to the peculiar manners or usages of the department. From the combination of the uniformity

of these instructions, with the diversity of arrangements which the prudence and intelligence of the committee, and the experience of each year, will recommend, a set of regulations for each normal school will gradually arise, more or less definitive, and therefore fit to be made public. The plan of study of the great normal school at Paris, for the supply of the royal and communal *colléges*, is the fruit of fifteen years' experience. This school, which was founded in 1810, had no written laws till 1815. We made important modifications in those laws at the revolution of 1830, and it was not till then that we ventured to print them, as the result, nearly definitive, or at least likely to endure for some time, of all the experiments successively tried. Let us imitate this caution, and begin with a simple set of instructions from the minister. Rules for the studies and the discipline will gradually arise. Every year will modify them. The important thing is, to exact an accurate account of the proceedings and results of the year, drawn up by the director, and transmitted to you, together with all the necessary documents, by the departmental committee and the prefect, who will subjoin their own opinion. Then, and then only, you, Sir, will interpose your authority, with that of the royal council, which will revise this report every year at the vacation, and pronounce on the improvements to be introduced.

II. To attach the greatest possible importance to the choice of a director. It is a principle generally established in Prussia, that the good-

ness of a normal school is in exact proportion to the goodness of the director ; just as the primary school is what its master is. What constitutes a normal school is not a fine building ; on the contrary, it is not amiss that it should not be over commodious or splendid. It is not even the excellence of the regulations, which, without a faithful and intelligent execution of them, are only a useless bit of paper. A normal school is what its director is. He is the life and soul of it. If he is a man of ability, he will turn the poorest and humblest elements to account ; if he is incapable, the best and most prolific will remain sterile in his hands. Let us by no means make our directors mere house-stewards. A director ought to be at the head of the most important branches of instruction, and to set an example to all the other masters. He must have long fulfilled the duties of a master ; first, in different classes of a normal course of education, so that he may have a general knowledge of the whole system ; secondly, in *several* normal schools, so that he may have experience of difficulties of various kinds ; lastly, he must not be placed at the head of a normal school of the highest class, till he has been director of several of an inferior class, so as to graduate promotion according to merit, and thus keep up an honourable emulation. It is a principle which I have insisted on a hundred times to the council, that the director ought to look to you alone for his salary, and that you ought also to pay for all the literary furniture of the school ; since by these means you will go-

vern more firmly, and keep the reins of popular education in your own hand.

III. An excellent practice in Germany is, to place the candidates, immediately on their leaving the normal school, as assistant masters in schools which admit of two. The young men thus go through at least a year of apprenticeship,—a very useful noviciate : they gain age and experience, and their final appointment depends on — their conduct as assistant masters. In Holland there are no normal schools, and the masters are formed almost exclusively by converting the most promising pupils into masters' assistants. I am far from regarding this mode of recruiting as sufficient, or as securing the needful regularity to a most important branch of the public service ; but I regard every gradation as extremely useful, and I think a little graduated scale of powers and duties might be advantageously introduced into primary instruction.

1st. Pupil of a normal school admitted after competition, holding a more or less high rank in the examination list at the end of each year, and quitting the school with such or such a number. 2nd. Same pupil promoted to the situation of assistant master. 3rd. School-master successively in different schools rising in salary and in importance. 4th. After distinguished services, master in a primary normal school. 5th. Lastly, director of a school of that class, with the prospect of gradually rising to be director of a numerous and wealthy normal school, which would be a post equal to that of professor of a royal *collège*. The human soul

lives in the future. It is ambitious, because it is infinite. Let us then, Sir, open to it a progressive career, even in the humblest occupations.

IV. We cannot be too deeply impressed with this truth ;—that paid instruction is better than gratuitous instruction. The entire sum paid for board at a normal school must be extremely moderate, for the young men of the poorest classes to be able to pay it. We must give only quarter or half exhibitions (*bourses*), reserving two or three whole ones for the two or three young men, out of the fifteen admitted annually, who stand first on the list ; and even this should not be continued to them the second year, unless their conduct had been irreproachable and their application unremitting. The school would thus cost less, and more work would be done. It would perhaps be advisable that the exhibition for the first student should always come from you, as well as the literary furniture and the director's salary.

On the same principle as that laid down above, the elementary school annexed to the normal school ought not to be entirely gratuitous ; it ought to have no other masters than the forwardest pupils of the normal school, acting under the direction of their masters. The profits of the elementary school for practice would go to diminish the total cost of the normal school. As for the middle school for practice, it would be contrary to the principle of all middle schools to have it gratuitous. Here, then, is a fresh source of profit, which, if well managed and economized, ought to indemnify the department for a part of its expenditure.

V. Divide the studies of all normal schools into two parts: during the first, the pupils should be considered simply as students, whose acquirements are to be confirmed, extended, and methodised: during the second, as masters, who are to be theoretically and practically taught the art of teaching. If the normal course only lasts a year, this part of it ought to occupy at least six months; if it lasts two years, it ought to occupy a year; if three years, it would still occupy only a year. The students in this last year would give lessons in the elementary and middle schools annexed to the normal school.

VI. The examination at quitting ought to be more rigid than that at entering the school. The important thing is to have young men of good capacity, even if they know little; for they will learn rapidly; while some, who might not be deficient in a certain quantity of acquired knowledge, but were dull or wrong-headed, could never be made good schoolmasters. No latitude whatever must be left to the commission of examination at departure. Here, intelligence must show itself in positive attainments, since opportunity to acquire them has been given. Nothing but negligence can have stood in their way, and that negligence would be the greatest of all faults. This latter examination, therefore, must be directed to ascertain the acquired, and not the natural, fitness. But in the examination on entering, I wish that the commission should more particularly inquire into the talents and natural bent, and, above all, into the moral character and disposition. A little discretionary power ought to be confided

to it. This applies more especially to those normal schools, the course of which lasts two or three years. Three years of study will not give intelligence; but they will give all the necessary attainments in abundance.

VII. It is my earnest desire, that conferences, similar to those whose rules I have laid before you*, should be formed among the schoolmasters of each canton. I wish it, but I have but little hope of it, at least at first. Such conferences suppose both too great a love for their profession, and too great a familiarity with the spirit of association. A thing much more easy to accomplish is, that, during the vacations of the primary schools, a certain number of masters should repair to the normal school of the department to perfect themselves in this or that particular branch, and to receive lessons appropriate to their wants, as is the case in Prussia†. This time would be very usefully, and even very agreeably, employed; for the young masters would be brought into contact with their old instructors and companions, and would have an opportunity of renewing and cementing old friendships. Here would be an interesting prospect for them every year. For such an object, we must not grudge a little expense for their journey and their residence. I should therefore wish that the vacations of the primary schools, which must be regulated by certain agricultural labours, should always precede those of the primary normal schools, in order that the masters of the former might be able to

* Pp. 201—203.

† Pp. 198—200.

take advantage of the lessons in the latter, and might be present at the parting examinations of the students of the third year, which would be an excellent exercise for the young acting masters.

I am convinced of the utility of having an inspector of primary schools for each department, who would spend the greater part of the year in going from school to school, in stirring up the zeal of the masters, in giving a right direction to that of the communal committees, and in keeping up a general and very beneficial harmony among the *maires* and the *curés*. It is unnecessary for me to say, that this inspector ought always to be some old master of a normal school, selected for his talents, and still more for his tried character. But if this institution, which is universal in Germany, were not popular among us, nearly the same results might be obtained by authorizing the director, or, in default of him, some masters of the normal school, to visit a certain number of the schools of the department every year, during the vacation of their own school, and to do what would be done by the inspector above named. They would find great facilities from their old habits of intercourse and friendship with most of the masters, over whom they would exercise almost a paternal influence. On the other hand, they would gain by these visits, and would acquire a continually increasing experience, which would turn to the advantage of the normal schools. You have seen that in Prussia, besides the visits of the circle-inspectors, the

directors of normal schools make visitations of this kind, for which they receive some very slender remuneration; for these little journeys are sources of pleasure to them, as well as of utility to the public.

VIII. Let solidity, rather than extent, be aimed at, in the course of instruction. The young masters must know a few things fundamentally, rather than many things superficially. Vague and superficial attainments must be avoided at any rate. The steady continuous labour which must be gone through to know anything whatsoever thoroughly, is an admirable discipline for the mind. Besides, nothing is so prolific as one thing well known; it is an excellent starting point for a thousand others. The final examinations must be mainly directed to the elements,—they must probe to the bottom, they must keep solidity always in view.

IX. Avoid ambitious methods and exclusive systems: attend, above all, to results, that is to say, to solid acquirements; and, with a view to them, consult experience. Clear explanations on every subject, connectedness and continuity in the lessons, with an ardent love for the business of teaching, are worth all the general rules and methods in the world.

X. A branch of study common to all schools ought to be the French tongue; the just pronunciation of words, and the purity and correctness of language. By this means the national language would insensibly supersede the rude unintelligible dialects and provincialisms. In

the normal schools where German is still the language of the people*, German and French must both be taught, in order not to offend against local attachments, and at the same time to implant the spirit of nationality.

XI. Without neglecting physical science, and the knowledge applicable to the arts of life, we must make moral science, which is of far higher importance, our main object. The mind and the character are what a true master ought, above all, to fashion. We must lay the foundations of moral life in the souls of our young masters, and therefore we must place religious instruction,—that is, to speak distinctly, Christian instruction,—in the first rank in the education of our normal schools. Leaving to the *curé*, or to the pastor of the place, the care of instilling the doctrines peculiar to each communion, we must constitute religion a special object of instruction, which must have its place in each year of the normal course; so that at the end of the entire course, the young masters, without being theologians, may have a clear and precise knowledge of the history, doctrines, and, above all, the moral precepts of Christianity. Without this, the pupils, when they become masters, would be incapable of giving any other religious instruction than the mechanical repetition of the catechism, which would be quite insufficient. I would particularly urge this point, Sir, which is the most important and the most delicate of all. Before we can decide on what

* Alsace, Franche Comté, &c.—TRANSL.

should constitute a true primary normal school, we must determine what ought to be the character of a simple elementary school, that is, a humble village school. The popular schools of a nation ought to be imbued with the religious spirit of that nation. Now without going into the question of diversities of doctrine, is Christianity, or is it not, the religion of the people of France? It cannot be denied that it is. I ask, then, is it our object to respect the religion of the people, or to destroy it? If we mean to set about destroying it, then, I allow, we ought by no means to have it taught in the people's schools. But if the object we propose to ourselves is totally different, we must teach our children that religion which civilized our fathers; that religion whose liberal spirit prepared, and can alone sustain, all the great institutions of modern times. We must also permit the clergy to fulfill their first duty,—the superintendence of religious instruction. But in order to stand the test of this superintendence with honour, the schoolmaster must be enabled to give adequate religious instruction; otherwise parents, in order to be sure that their children receive a good religious education, will require us to appoint ecclesiastics as schoolmasters, which, though assuredly better than having irreligious schoolmasters, would be liable to very serious objections of various kinds. The less we desire our schools to be ecclesiastical, the more ought they to be Christian. It necessarily follows, that there must be a course of special religious instruction

in our normal schools. Religion is, in my eyes, the best—perhaps the only—basis of popular education. I know something of Europe, and never have I seen good schools where the spirit of Christian charity was wanting. Primary instruction flourishes in three countries, Holland, Scotland, and Germany; in all it is profoundly religious. It is said to be so in America. The little popular instruction I ever found in Italy came from the priests. In France, with few exceptions, our best schools for the poor are those of the *Frères de la doctrine Chrétienne* (Brothers of the Christian doctrine). These are facts which it is necessary to be incessantly repeating to certain persons. Let them go into the schools of the poor,—let them learn what patience, what resignation, are required to induce a man to persevere in so toilsome an employment. Have better nurses ever been found than those benevolent nuns who bestow on poverty all those attentions we pay to wealth? There are things in human society, Sir, which can neither be conceived nor accomplished without virtue,—that is to say, when speaking of the mass, without religion. The schools for the middle classes may be an object of speculation; but the country schools, the miserable little schools in the south, in the west, in Brittany, in the mountains of Auvergne, and, without going so far, the lowest schools of our great cities, of Paris itself, will never hold out any adequate inducement to persons seeking a remunerating occupation. There will doubtless be some philosophers inspired with the ardent

philanthropy of Saint-Vincent de Paule, without his religious enthusiasm, who would devote themselves to this austere vocation; but the question is not to have here and there a master. We have more than forty thousand schools to serve, and it were wise to call religion to the aid of our insufficient means, were it but for the alleviation of the pecuniary burthens of the nation. Either you must lavish the treasures of the state, and the revenues of the *communes*, in order to give high salaries, and even pensions, to that new order of tradesmen called schoolmasters; or you must not imagine you can do without Christian charity, and that spirit of poverty, humility, courageous resignation, and modest dignity, which Christianity, rightly understood and wisely taught, can alone give to the teachers of the people. The more I think of all this, Sir, the more I look at the schools in this country, the more I talk with the directors of normal schools and councillors of the ministry, the more I am strengthened in the conviction that we must make any efforts or any sacrifices to come to a good understanding with the clergy on the subject of popular education, and to constitute religion a special and very carefully-taught branch of instruction in our primary normal schools.

I am not ignorant, Sir, that this advice will grate on the ears of many persons, and that I shall be thought extremely *dévo*t at Paris. Yet it is not from Rome, but from Berlin, that I address you. The man who holds this language to you is a philosopher, formerly disliked, and

even persecuted, by the priesthood; but this philosopher has a mind too little affected by the recollection of his own insults, and is too well acquainted with human nature and with history, not to regard religion as an indestructible power; genuine Christianity, as a means of civilization for the people, and a necessary support for those on whom society imposes irksome and humble duties, without the slightest prospect of fortune, without the least gratification of self-love.

I am now, Sir, arrived at the termination of this long Report. May it be of use to you in the important work which now engages your attention! My illustrious colleague M. Cuvier has already exhibited to France the organization of primary instruction in Holland. The experience of Germany, and particularly of Prussia, ought not to be lost upon us. National rivalries or antipathies would here be completely out of place. The true greatness of a people does not consist in borrowing nothing from others, but in borrowing from all whatever is good, and in perfecting whatever it appropriates.

I am as great an enemy as any one to artificial imitations; but it is mere pusillanimity to reject a thing for no other reason than that it has been thought good by others. With the promptitude and justness of the French understanding, and the indestructible unity of our national character, we may assimilate all that is good in other countries without fear of ceasing to be ourselves. Placed in the centre

of Europe, possessing every variety of climate, bordering on all civilized nations, and holding up perpetual intercourse with them, France is — essentially cosmopolitan; and indeed this is the main source of her great influence. Besides, civilized Europe now forms but one great family. We constantly imitate England in all * that concerns outward life, the mechanical arts, and physical refinements; why, then, should we blush to borrow something from kind, honest, pious, learned Germany, in what regards inward life and the nurture of the soul?

For my own part, Sir, I avow my high esteem and peculiar affection for the German people; and I am happy that my mission proved to them that the revolution of July,—that revolution, as necessary and as just as the legitimate right of self-defence; that revolution, sprung from the unanimous resistance of a great people to a capricious aggression, an open violation, not of hypothetical rights, but of liberties secured by law,—is not, as its enemies pretend, a return to the impiety, the licentiousness and the corruption of a fatal period; but, on the contrary, the signal for a general improvement in opinion and in morals; since one of the first acts of the new government has been the holy enterprize of the amelioration of public education, of which the instruction of the people is the basis.

I shall have the honour, at a future time, to * address to you two special Reports, as circumstantial as the foregoing, on the state of secon-

dary instruction and of higher instruction in Prussia. They will complete the general Report which it is my duty to lay before you.

Accept, Sir, the assurance, &c. &c.

VICTOR COUSIN.

APPENDIX.

NOTWITHSTANDING the length of this Report, many interesting papers on the subject of primary instruction have been necessarily omitted. I cannot, however, persuade myself to leave out the following, since it treats of a point of the greatest importance and difficulty,—the organization of the instruction of the mass of the population of very large cities. Every child, however poor, should receive some instruction; to effect which a great number of charity schools are required, whose character must be adapted peculiarly to this class of persons. 'This is a problem which claims the most serious consideration of every great town, and which Berlin has, as it appears to me, successfully resolved. In 1827, the subjoined plan was proposed by the excellent Mr. Reichhelm and carried into execution by him to the satisfaction of the government and of the inhabitants of the city.

Plan for the Organization of the Parish Poors' Schools of the city of Berlin, proposed by Mr. Reichhelm, Member of the Council of Regency charged with the special care of Schools, adopted by the high authorities, in January 1827.

BERLIN contains two hundred thousand inhabitants. The children of an age to go to school amount to thirty thousand, including six thousand pauper children, of whom five hundred are supported by Jewish religious communities, by the French colony, by various societies,

&c. There remain, then, at the charge of the city, about four thousand five hundred; three thousand five hundred of whom receive gratuitous instruction. But there are about a thousand children that do not go to school at all, notwithstanding the law, the execution of which is difficult nowhere but in great cities, where it is easy to elude even the most watchful superintendence.

These three thousand five hundred children that receive gratuitous instruction, are distributed, 1st, into seven charity schools (*Armen-Schulen*), which contain nine hundred and ninety children; 2ndly, into thirty-seven private schools, which receive, without charge to their parents, two thousand five hundred, for each of whom the town pays about eight groschen (ten pence) a-month, without counting a supply of wood, paper, &c.

The funds appropriated to the charity-schools in 1826 amounted to 17,049 thaler (2560*l.*): deducting all other accessory and inevitable expenses, there remains an actual expenditure of 15,723 thaler, for three thousand five hundred children; or four thaler and a half for each child (13*s.* 6*d.* a-year). To obtain perfectly satisfactory results it would be necessary,—

1st, To reconstruct the charity-schools, in the manner best suited to the poorest classes.

2ndly, To provide for the wants of the poor population by establishing a sufficient number of schools.

Let us consider the first point.

With the money paid to private schools for poor children, there might be raised, for the same number of children, special schools, where the education would be of a character more suited to their station and wants.

Although, in the middle class, the co-operation of the parents and the influence of families may be depended on, the contrary holds with children of the lowest, whom it is often necessary to withdraw as much as possible from the baleful influence of the bad example of their parents. In the case of these children, the exertions of the school are wholly unassisted.

In the new organization, the two sexes should be separated; which will not increase the expense, provided the schools be so proportioned, as that one complete school shall contain two divisions having seventy-five each, one

for boys and one for girls; these two divisions forming but one parish school for three hundred children, in one building.

INSTRUCTION.

The special character of the instruction proper for poor children, is defined in these two words, *prayer* and *work*.

The subjects of instruction for the first class should be:

1. For Religion: the Bible, catechism, the positive truths of Christianity.

2. For the German language: language considered as the expression of thought; the most general rules of grammar, clear and intelligible pronunciation, reading and orthography.

3. Writing.

4. Arithmetic, to fractions and the rule-of-three, inclusive.

5. Singing, and particularly exercises in sacred choral music.

For the second class of boys, the most general elements of the natural sciences, of geography and national history, as well as the elements of geometry and linear drawing, should be added.

For the second class of girls, instruction in needle-work, knitting, &c.

DIVISION OF WORK.

For boys of from six to ten years of age, first class, twenty-six lessons of one hour each per week, from eight to eleven, and from two to four, every day; thus,—

3 hours for religious instruction, (principally narratives from the Bible);

12 hours for the German language, pronunciation, reading, orthography, &c.;

5 hours for arithmetic,—3 for the slate as far as division, and 2 for mental arithmetic;

4 hours for writing;

2 hours for singing (without counting the verses sung at the beginning and end of each day.)

26 hours.

For the second class of boys, from ten to fourteen years old, thirty-two hours of lessons per week, from eight to twelve, and from two to four, every day; thus,—

- 6 hours for religion, instruction in the Bible, and catechism;
- 10 hours for the German language, reading, grammar, intellectual exercises;
- 5 hours for arithmetic, on the slate and in the head;
- 4 hours for writing;
- 2 hours for geometry and linear drawing;
- 3 hours for natural philosophy, geography and history, &c.;
- 2 hours for singing (not including the verses sung morning and evening).

32 hours.

Girls' school, first class, from six to ten years old, twenty-six hours' lessons a-week; thus,—

- 3 hours for religion (narratives from the Bible);
- 7 hours for the German language;
- 3 hours for arithmetic, on the slate and mentally;
- 3 hours for writing;
- 2 hours for singing;
- 8 hours for needle-work, &c.

26 hours, from eight to eleven, and from two to four.

The second class of girls, from ten to fourteen, thirty-two hours' lessons; thus,—

- 6 hours for religion;
- 8 hours for the German language;
- 4 hours for arithmetic;
- 3 hours for writing;
- 3 hours for singing;
- 8 hours for needle-work &c. (in the afternoon).

32 hours, from eight to twelve, and from two to four.

A child shall be in a condition to pass from the first class to the second as soon as it can read well.

It may perhaps seem strange, that in this plan of study no mention should be made of the time devoted to exercises of the memory and the mental powers. But the

committee has considered that these exercises are included in the course of study, which keeps the memory and intellect constantly in action. The lessons in the German language will always furnish exercises of this kind; and in charity-schools, above all others, it is necessary to avoid whatever is superfluous.

DISCIPLINE.

This question is one of the most difficult to solve. The children of the lowest class have generally received an ill bent from the example of their parents; the strictest discipline is therefore required. Order, neatness, activity, prompt obedience, are by no means the least important things a child has to learn. The kind of instruction, the gravity of the master, his devotedness to his pupils, are of themselves a solid groundwork for discipline. But rigour is sometimes necessary; and in a school for the poor, especially, discipline should be inflexible in cases of disorder or indolence. But let the masters never forget, that the severest measures of discipline should be pervaded by a sentiment of tenderness and love, which chastises only to improve.

The point at present to be determined is, the number of schools necessary to meet the wants of the poor.

Each school having two divisions, one for boys, the other for girls, of two classes each, and seventy-five in a class, in all three hundred children, the sum at present set apart for the education of the poor would suffice to establish eleven schools for three thousand three hundred children.

It would remain to provide for the establishment of new schools for the twelve hundred children which make up the number of four thousand five hundred,—a near estimate of the poor population of the town.

The committee is of opinion that three new schools for nine hundred children would be sufficient; and thus the total number of poors' schools in the town, complete and for both sexes, would be fourteen, capable of receiving four thousand two hundred children.

The remaining three hundred may not be in a condition

to be sent to charity-schools. In this number are included the children of parents belonging to a higher class, who may have been ruined by misfortunes, and whose children it would be cruel to send to the parish charity-school because they are not able to pay the school fees. The municipal council will not refuse to furnish such children with the means of one day regaining the station in which they were born. They may be placed in the principal parish or private schools, where it will be easy to make terms for them at the rate of twelve groschen (1s. 3d.) per month. The city has also the right of placing children, free of expense, in the higher schools which are under its patronage. But to avoid all abuse, a scrupulous examination must be made into the real state of the parents who petition for such favours, and an annual sum must be fixed for this purpose and not exceeded.

There are seven evening-schools in Berlin. It will be sufficient to institute three more of fifty scholars each, two for boys and one for girls. The three ablest and most zealous parish schoolmasters shall be engaged to give from eight to twelve hours' lessons a-week in the evening, for which they shall be paid a hundred thaler (15*l.*). Reading and writing will be constantly taught there, and two hours a-week devoted to religious instruction.

A greater number of evening-schools will be opened, if they are found to be wanted.

Before entering upon a detail of the expenses which the city must bear for the support of fourteen parish charity-schools, we will mention the very slight revenue which these schools can draw from other sources.

1. A government order, dated Jan. 30, 1827, directs that in every parish charity-school each pupil shall pay a fee of one silber-groschen [about five farthings] a-month, in order not to violate the principle, that every father of a family is bound to contribute something to the school, even though he should claim for his children the favour of a gratuitous education; for the exaction of this trifling payment does not take from the instruction its gratuitous character, and this imperceptible charge produces nevertheless, in a school of three hundred children, the sum of 120 thaler (18*l.*).

2. Amongst the poor, many who are unable to pay the terms of private schools, can nevertheless very well give,

besides the groschen per month fixed by the minister of public instruction, a further sum, varying from five groschen as a minimum, to ten as a maximum. Out of three hundred children, this would apply to at least a fifth; and the minimum five groschen for sixty children, will give a revenue of 120 thaler, or 1680 for the fourteen schools (136*l.*). This extraordinary fund (*Aushülfe-Fond*) may be appropriated to the maintenance of the evening-schools, to the instruction of children of a higher class who have fallen into poverty, and to rewards or pensions for schoolmasters in their old age, or to methodological courses for their improvement; so that the town would have no other expense to support than that of the fourteen parish charity-schools.

3. Finally, the donations which the generosity of the citizens may give to the schools, but which cannot be calculated on here, will form another resource for improvement in the education of the poorer classes.

We will now examine into the expense of the establishment and maintenance of the fourteen schools, composed each of four classes and two divisions (boys and girls).

BOYS' SCHOOL.

Fixed salary of the head master 300 th. [45*l.*]

Perquisites:—

1. Lodging gratis.
2. Two fifths of the produce of the fee of one groschen per month.
3. For firing for the two boys' schools 50 th. [7*l.* 10*s.*]
4. For cleaning the house, and especially the school-rooms 50 th. [7*l.* 10*s.*]

Fixed salary of the assistant master of the boys' school, revocable at will 120 th. [18*l.*]

Perquisites:—

A fifth of the produce of the fee of one groschen per month.

GIRLS' SCHOOL.

Fixed salary of the head-master 300 th. [45*l.*]

Lodging gratis.

The two remaining fifths of the fee
of one groschen per month.

Firing 50 th. [7*l.* 10*s.*]

For lessons in needle-work given generally by the wife of the head master, who will superintend the class conjointly with her 50 th. [7*l.* 10*s.*]

Salary of the assistant master of the girls' school, (also revocable at will,) who gives only 18 lessons a-week (3 hours every morning) 100 th. [15*l.*]

Salaries, firing and cleaning, (not including the perquisites) . . . 1020 th. [153*l.*]

The children shall be required as far as possible to supply themselves with the necessary books, paper and pens. Since, however, the school will be obliged to find these for most of them, there will be allowed for each school 100 th. [15*l.*]

The hire of the building, or the interest of the capital laid out on its erection, may be reckoned at . . 500 th. [75*l.*]

Repairs and other extraordinary expenses 80 th. [12*l.*]

In all, for each parish school, (not including the accidental revenues of the school) 1700 th. [255*l.*]
that is to say, about 17*s.* 6*d.* a-head for 300 children.

Until the town shall have cancelled the debt by the acquisition of school-houses, there will be, for the fourteen schools, an outlay of 23,800 thaler [about 3570*l.*] per annum, of which we may reckon 7000 thaler [about 1050*l.*] solely for the building.

We have seen above that in 1827 the town expended 15,723 thaler

It is, then, only a difference of about 8,100 thaler,

which is wanted to effect a complete and special organization of the charity-schools, and to secure to a thousand more children the benefits of a good elementary education.

We have already seen that the expense of the evening-schools (300 thaler), and the amount of the sum paid by the city to the private schools for impoverished children of a higher class (about 700 thaler), would be covered by the extraordinary fund (*Aushülfe-Fond*).

CHOICE OF THE MASTERS OF SCHOOLS FOR THE POOR.

The excellence of a school depends entirely upon the master; the choice of the master is therefore a matter of the first importance. In a school for the poorest class especially, where everything is to be done, and where the master has constantly to struggle against the pernicious influence of the family and companions of the child, he should possess devotedness to his calling, patience, knowledge, an aptitude and taste for teaching; and, with all these qualities, that rare disinterestedness which induces perseverance in a career at once humble and unaltering, and that enduring serenity of soul, that pious zeal which alone can secure prosperity to a school. Until a normal school for the schoolmasters of the city be established in Berlin itself, it would not be difficult to select suitable persons from among the private schoolmasters or the submasters of other schools, or even from among the pupils of the primary normal schools of the province, from Potsdam or Neuzelle.

If the new plan withdraws from the private schoolmasters the sums paid them by the town for the reception of pauper children, many of them will no longer have a sufficient number of pupils to live by; and the managers of the affairs of the poor will feel it just to choose from among them the masters of the new schools, provided they produce the necessary guarantees; for in such cases, to be influenced by favour or compassion, would be a crime against the children of our poor.

The masters who are examined and declared capable, shall be appointed for life; nevertheless, in case of negligence or misconduct, they shall be dismissed without appeal, by an order from the town-authorities, approved by the school-board.

Care shall be taken, that whenever it is possible, the

wives of the schoolmasters shall instruct the little girls in needle-work.

The immediate superintendence of each poor's school shall be specially confided to a committee consisting of one of the clergymen of the parish, named by the town-school committee, and a member of the administration of the poor's fund, charged specially with the inspection of the external business of the school.

The supreme superintendence resides with the poor's administration and the town-school committee, of which the *Stadt-Schulrath*, or school-councillor for the town, shall always be a member.

The under-masters shall be subject to the head-masters: they may be dismissed at will either for incapacity or misconduct.

The purchase and maintenance of buildings for the schools in the various quarters, the choice and superintendence of the masters, the administration of the school-funds, belong to the administration of the poor.

The charity-board of each quarter, the clergyman, and the officer charged with the special superintendence, shall attend to,—

1. The admission of pupils;
2. The control of the attendance at the schools;
3. The departure of the pupils;
4. The annual reports.

1. As there will be fourteen parish charity-schools required, the town will be divided into fourteen school-wards or -districts, each having a complete school (boys and girls). All parents living in each district, shall apply to the charity-board, and particularly to the special officer, to obtain admission for their children to the school.

This admission shall take place generally at two periods of the year, Easter and Michaelmas, at the commencement of the course.

The officer shall determine whether the child shall be admitted gratuitously (always paying one groschen per month), or be made to pay from five to ten silber-groschen, which will form the extraordinary fund.

This sum shall be paid in advance, from month to month, to an officer of the charity-board chosen for this purpose, and shall be added each month to the extraordinary fund.

When the number of pupils fixed for each class of boys or girls (seventy-five) shall be complete, no more shall be admitted, and applicants shall be sent to the neighbouring schools.

2. The regular attendance at the school shall be an object of special control and the most active vigilance; for this is the source from which flow all the advantages the school can produce. It would be very fortunate if parents and children were always willing of themselves to facilitate the measures adopted to secure regular attendance at the schools. Unhappily this is not the case, particularly in great cities. Although it is lamentable to be forced to use constraint, it is almost always necessary to commence with it; though in a town so populous as Berlin, its enforcement is attended with much difficulty.

In order to draw to the school all the children of an age to attend, the schoolmasters shall keep a register of attendance, and shall send, at the end of each month, an extract from this register, pointing out those who are most frequently absent.

The poor's commission, or one of its members, shall send for the parents, and if the excuses are insufficient, shall warn and threaten them. Every three months a list shall be made of the parents who will pay no regard to the repeated remonstrances of the commission, and the poor's administration shall then have recourse to means of constraint, conformably to § 48. of Title XII.*, in the second part of the general Code, which adjudges the penalties for this offence. As an example to others, it would be well to publish, from time to time, a list of the parents who shall have been fined for not sending their children regularly to school.

But it is not enough to ensure, as far as possible, this regularity in the children who come to school; other measures are needed to secure that no poor child whatever be deprived of elementary instruction. In great cities there are always a considerable number of unfortunate persons who have no fixed residence, who are shifting about every quarter, every month, and often every day. We see only one way of coming at these, which is this; to communicate

* See pp. 25—29.

with all the private establishments of elementary instruction, that are not under the direction of the town, and to arrange that, at a certain time, all the primary schoolmasters in the town, without exception, shall deliver to their pupils a certificate of attendance, the form of which shall be printed and sent to all the schools. The parents shall be obliged to show these certificates. At the same period, the municipal police, or commissions chosen from among the citizens, shall, by the aid of the census tables, effect a general and simultaneous inspection of the whole town. The list of the parents who shall not have shown the certificates of attendance at school, shall be made up in each district, and they shall be summoned before the correctional police and fined according to law, and compelled to enter their children in the schools.

The execution of such a measure would doubtless depend much on the zeal of the authorities entrusted with it; but difficulties should not deter us from the performance of the sacred duty of remedying so deplorable an evil.

3. The law requires that the instruction of the school should be continued, until the clergyman charged with the examination of the children shall deem them sufficiently enlightened on the subjects most important to a rational being of their class. No fixed age will therefore be named at which they shall quit the school. This will be determined by an order from the master of the school, and the clergyman charged with the special inspection; and since nothing superfluous will be taught in any parish poor's school, this decision will depend upon the child's having profitably gone through the course of instruction of the school, and acquired those moral qualities which its influence ought to have produced.

It will in general require at least six years fully to accomplish the end of an intellectual and moral education. Thus, the greater part of the children who enter at six or seven, will be sufficiently instructed at thirteen to quit.

The leaving of the school shall take place only at two periods of the year, Easter and Michaelmas, after a public examination. At the end of this examination, the ecclesiastical inspector and the master of the school shall make a list of the pupils who may quit. There shall be delivered to each a certificate of departure, the form of which shall

be printed ; and the most distinguished shall receive, by way of encouragement, books suited to their capacity ; the expense will be defrayed by the extraordinary fund.

It would also be very useful that the citizens should be bound under a penalty not to take into their service or apprenticeship any child who had not a certificate either of departure or of attendance.

4. The annual reports of the ecclesiastical inspector and the officer of the charity-board will serve to measure the progress of the schools. They shall treat of the internal state of the school ; of the instruction and discipline, as well as the household expenses ; and shall point out imperfections, to the remedy of which the poor's administration and the school-board shall direct their efforts.

This general plan for the establishment of schools for the city poor must, it is evident, be gradual in its execution, according as the difficulties presented in various places shall be surmounted ; but it is hoped, that the municipal council will not hesitate to grant the funds necessary to effect, as promptly as possible, the complete organization of public elementary instruction.

We have seen that the fourteen parish charity-schools would cost annually	24,800 th.	[3720 $\frac{1}{2}$]
from which deduct (supplied from the extraordinary fund) . .	1,000 th.	[150 $\frac{1}{2}$]
Remainder. . . .	23,800 th.	[3570 $\frac{1}{2}$]
At present the education of the poor costs	15,723 th.	[2358 $\frac{1}{2}$]

which gives an increase of	8,077 th.	[1211 $\frac{1}{2}$]
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From this sum 7000 thaler (1050 $\frac{1}{2}$ l.) are taken to pay the hire, or the interest of the capital employed in the construction, of new schools ; and the remaining 1100 thaler (165 $\frac{1}{2}$ l.) will have provided for the education of a thousand more children.

The greatest difficulty will be to find buildings fit for parish schools, for two classes of boys and two of girls, of seventy-five in a class. Each school will require, allowing five square feet for each child, four rooms of about twenty feet by nineteen, besides apartments for the two principal masters.

The plan allows 500 thaler (75*l.*) for the rent of each school-house. But in some parts it will be almost impossible to find, on these terms, a building containing a sufficient number of large rooms for the classes. It will be necessary to hire separate places for the boys and girls, which would cause serious inconveniences; besides, there is no guarantee for the continuance of a school established in a private hired house. It is therefore much better that the town should build school-houses, or purchase buildings suited to the purpose.

The 7000 thaler appropriated to the rent of the fourteen schools, or to the payment of the interest of the cost of their erection, represent a capital of 140,000 thaler (2100*l.*); but as the town could not afford all this expenditure at one time, it is proposed to create shares of 100 thaler (15*l.*), bearing interest five per cent, and with the capital thus raised to erect the necessary buildings. The town would guarantee the payment of the interest, and, by means of a sinking fund, would by degrees obtain the freehold of these fourteen charity school-houses.

STATE
OF
PRIMARY INSTRUCTION
IN THE
KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA
AT THE END OF THE YEAR 1831.

BY M. VICTOR COUSIN,
Member of the Royal Council of Public Instruction.

Supplement to the Report on Public Instruction in Prussia,
published in 1833.

PRIMARY instruction is too far advanced in Prussia to render it necessary to make very frequent reports on the subject. There was an interval of six years between the publication of the two last by the government. The first was in 1819, the second in 1825. I have stated elsewhere the results of these two important works*. A similar one has just been accomplished at Berlin, giving the state of primary instruction in Prussia at the end of the year 1831, the number of schools, that of the children who attend those schools, and of the masters employed in them. This document has not yet been made public ; I am indebted for it to the kindness of

* See Report, &c. p. 134. to p. 167.

Baron von Altenstein, minister of public instruction and ecclesiastical affairs *.

Figures are only general expressions of facts. Before we use them, therefore, we must begin by scrupulously asking ourselves what are the facts which those figures represent, and what the evidence on which they rest. We shall find, that in this case, guarantees for the accuracy of the data exist in superabundance.

As the Prussian law renders it legally obligatory on parents to send their children to school, unless they can prove that they give them a sufficient education at home, the committee of management (*Schulvorstand*), which in every parish is appointed to watch over the execution of the laws concerning primary instruction, makes an annual return of the children who are of an age, and consequently come under the obligation, to go to school. The master authenticates their presence or absence, and also returns a list of attendance, which must agree with the legal list furnished by the committee. He is bound to send in this attendance-list once a fortnight to the committee, which takes all the measures necessary to ensure the execution of the law, and which is,

* In the *Anzeigeblätter* of the *Berliner Jahrbücher für Wissenschaftliche Kritik*, three very curious and interesting tables have appeared successively in the Nos. for October, November and December 1833; the first showing the state of the Universities of Prussia, the second that of the Gymnasias, the third that of the Popular Schools. These were drawn up by persons in the service of government, and are highly worthy of the attention of all who are interested in the statistics of education.—
TRANSL.

in its turn, obliged to present this list, certified as exact, to the inspector of the circle for primary schools (*Kreisschulinspector*). This officer, after carefully verifying the facts which prove that the law is carried into effect throughout his circle of inspection, sends in this same list, countersigned by himself, to the councillor of the department or regency, who is charged with all that relates to primary instruction in the departmental administration. The departmental administration is equally obliged to authenticate all these returns, and to forward them to the provincial authority in which resides the supreme superintendence of schools throughout the whole province (*Schul-Collegium*). Lastly, the provincial authority must render an account of all these proceedings to the central ministerial authority. . One branch of this ministry consists of a special board or office for statistics, whose sole business is the verification and generalization of all the documents furnished by the public authorities in every step of this ascending scale of power and responsibility. Mr. Hoffmann, a distinguished member of the Academy of Sciences of Berlin, is at the head of this office, where the work assumes its last and most perfect form, and is sent up with all the documentary proofs to the minister, who lays it before the public. We may therefore place implicit confidence in figures obtained by such a process, and ultimately resting on the legal lists of children of age to go to school, and on the lists of actual attendance, checked by the several authorities.

I subjoin models of ~~these~~ two kinds of lists, which are the same for all the schools throughout the monarchy*. It must be observed, that the attendance-lists being verified twice every month, prove not only the presence of the children at the commencement of the year, but the punctuality of their attendance throughout the year. Thus there are no false appearances, no fictitious lists. The number of days a child has missed school during the whole year is known with perfect accuracy. The sum total of the children of a school, sent by the master to the parochial committee of that school, is subject on the spot to the immediate and constant check of that committee, and to the frequent control of the primary inspector of the circle. The accuracy of the whole series of subsequent figures rests on the accuracy of this first total, and this is guaranteed by the reciprocal check of the several authorities, all acting on the spot, or in the district. We may therefore proceed with perfect confidence, and may deduce from the figures all the consequences they comprise; because these figures represent facts, the truth and accuracy of which are incontestible.

The most general result given by the statistical tables now under my eye is as follows :

According to the latest census, the population of Prussia is 12,726,823. Out of this population, it was estimated in 1831, that

* As these lists are precisely the same as those already given in the body of the Report, pp. 31, 32, I have not thought it necessary to repeat them.—TRANSL.

4,767,072 were children of from one day to fourteen years old.

This total sum is founded on the several sums returned by each province and each regency of Prussia in Table III. hereto annexed.

We must observe, that from punctilious exactness, the children of the garrisons maintained by Prussia at Mainz and Luxemburg are not included in this calculation, because these children do not attend the schools of Prussia. The number of them is 660, of whom 327 are boys and 333 girls.

In Prussia the age fixed by the law for going to school is from 7 to 14 inclusive; and I must here take occasion to remark the extreme utility of having a legal age for education. People are thus accustomed to regard a portion of their lives as necessarily set apart for learning. In France, there is a fixed age for entering the *collège*, and for leaving it. It is much to be desired that, in like manner, an age should be appointed for going to the primary school, and for quitting it. It is obvious that children of this class cannot be kept at school beyond fourteen; for any longer sacrifice of their time and labour would become burthensome to poor families; and besides the children ought then to enter on the special business by which they are to gain a livelihood. If they are to quit school at fourteen, it is reasonable they should enter it at seven; for seven years afford time sufficient for the solid acquisition of the small number of branches of knowledge of which primary instruction consists;

and, on the other hand, they do not afford too much, considering the necessary interruptions occasioned by rural labours at certain seasons of the year. The General Law of Prussia (*Preussisches Landrecht*) fixed five as the age for going to school. The special law on public education, however, puts it at seven, and it is not till then that legal compulsion begins.

It is a rule of statistics that, calculating the relative mortality of the several ages, out of a hundred children of from one day to fourteen years, those between seven and fourteen form three sevenths, which gives, out of every hundred, about forty-three of age to go to school, (or, to give the minutest fractions, 42,857 in 100,000,) and, consequently, in Prussia, 2,043,030 children of the 4,767,072 composing the total population of children from a day to fourteen years old. Hence it follows, that if we find that there are in fact 2,043,030 children in the schools of Prussia, we may be certain that there does not exist a single human being throughout that monarchy who does not receive an education sufficient for the moral and intellectual wants of the laborious classes. This were indeed an admirable result, and one which would raise to a high pitch of distinction the system of primary instruction which had produced it. Now this result, glorious and admirable as it is, is an incontestible fact. I have under my eyes, and the Table No. III. already cited exhibits, regency by regency, and province by province, the actual number of children who, according to

the accurate calculation of the attendance-lists, frequented the public primary schools in the year 1831; and this number is 2,021,421 children.

The difference is therefore only 21,609 between the real and the normal number.

This difference is very slight, and even this will vanish if we take into account the following considerations.

1. These calculations are founded only on the public primary schools, and do not include the private ones, which, though not very numerous, still contain a good number of children, especially in the large towns, and in the more backward provinces, in which the whole dignity of public education is not yet felt.

2. No account is likewise taken of the children educated at home, which would include the greater part of the children of the higher classes. *

3. Neither are the boys belonging to the lower classes of the gymnasia reckoned, almost all of whom are under fourteen years of age; and whose number, in the hundred and ten gymnasia of the monarchy, amounted, in the course of the summer of 1832, to 17,935, while the two higher classes amounted to only 5,848.

Taking into account these three new elements, it is clear that not only the number of children under fourteen who receive, in one way or another, the benefits of education, is equal to the normal number of the three sevenths of the population, but that it must actually exceed that number. This remarkable circumstance can be

explained only by a supposition which we shall presently see borne out by indisputable fact, namely, that in the most civilized provinces of Prussia, in those of Saxony and Brandenburg for instance, the taste for instruction is so generally diffused that parents anticipate the age fixed by law for sending their children to school. We have here, I repeat, arrived at a result truly admirable ; and with the guarantees for its accuracy which I have pointed out, a result above all suspicion or uncertainty. We must regard it under its most important aspects.

The first thing to consider is, the relative proportion of each province in that total sum of 2,021,421 children attending public schools. The knowledge of this proportion is of the greatest value, as a test of the relative civilization of the different parts of Prussia. But this is a question which does not directly concern us, and I shall therefore content myself with referring to Table III. It will there be seen that, of the eight provinces of which the kingdom is now composed, five greatly exceed the normal number of three-sevenths ; that one of them, the province of Saxony, including the regencies of Magdeburg, Merseburg and Erfurt, exhibits a proportion of 54,515 children going to the public schools, in every 100,000 between the ages of one day and fourteen years ; and that the single department of Magdeburg actually exhibits a proportion of 55,733 in every 100,000. As may be expected, the province of Posen is the least advanced. Berlin shares the fate of all great cities, where a thoroughly exact control

is peculiarly difficult, and where the law cannot be so rigorously enforced. There are also at Berlin, as in all large cities, a great many private schools. Besides, the organization of primary public instruction is recent in that city. On the other hand, Berlin contains six gymnasias, which in the summer of 1832 had 2,061 scholars; of whom 396 are in the higher, and 1,665 in the lower classes, which comprise a great number of boys under fourteen.

A more important point for our consideration is, the relative proportions of the sexes in the sum total of children receiving primary instruction. This proportion is, in every country, the measure of the true strength of primary instruction; for education has no firm root, no stable and certain existence, when that sex which exercises so varied and so powerful an influence over the other is deprived of a just share of its advantages.

God be praised, every human being in Prussia falls under the beneficent protection of the law; the legal obligation to go to school is equally binding on both sexes. Accordingly, the difference in the proportion of girls and of boys in the sum total is inconsiderable. Out of 2,021,421 children attending school, there were, in 1831, 1,044,364 boys; that is to say, 43,694 in 100,000,—*i. e.* more than three-sevenths of the total population of children under fourteen years of age; and 977,057 girls, that is, 41,106 in 100,000. The difference *plus* for the boys is explained by their going to school before the age of seven; the difference *minus* for the girls is easily

accounted for, if you recollect that, the education of girls being in its nature more domestic, the number of children of the female sex brought up wholly under their mothers' roof, especially in the more affluent classes, is of necessity much more considerable than that of boys.

I ought now to describe the nature of the public schools to which these 2,021,421 children, boys and girls, resort. In Prussia (as henceforward in France, if the project of a law on primary instruction is adopted by the Chambers*,) primary instruction is divided into two degrees; the one including those elementary kinds or branches of knowledge of which no human being can be devoid without extreme danger to himself and to society; the other, more elevated, yet not very much so, adapted to that portion of the people who, though not rich, are not pressed down by poverty, and who stand in need of an education a little more liberal and enlarged.

The first degree—lower primary instruction—comprehends the schools called *elementary*, from the nature of their objects; the second—higher primary instruction—comprehends the schools called *burgher*, because they are intended for that part of the population which in Germany is still called *Bürgerschaft* (*bourgeoisie*, citizens). These schools are likewise called *middle* or *intermediate* schools, because they stand in the midway between the elementary

* This *Projet de Loi* passed the Chambers in June 1833.—
TRANSL.

schools and the learned schools, or *gymnasia* *. This latter name—middle schools—taken from the nature of the thing, is perfectly suitable; and necessity and the public instinct have already begun to naturalize it in France. I have given an account of the course of tuition in an *elementary* and in a *middle* school in another place†. Here I have only to give the total amount of both sorts of schools in Prussia, at the end of the year 1831.

In the annexed table, No. IV., it will be seen that there are 22,612 primary public schools for the 2,021,421 children who frequent them.

Of these 22,612 schools, 21,789 are elementary, and 23 middle, schools; of which 481 are for boys, and 342 for girls. Now, there are 1,021 towns in Prussia, only 26 of which contain more than 10,000 souls. Thus, not only all the towns containing 10,000 souls, but three fourths of all towns whatever, have, besides the elementary schools indispensable for the lowest class of citizens, middle schools calculated for the tradespeople of those towns.

Out of the number of children who go to the schools, the elementary schools are attended by 987,475 boys, and by 930,459 girls; and the middle schools by 56,889 boys, and by 46,598 girls; which gives the total amount stated above, of 1,044,364 boys and 977,057 girls, in actual attendance on school. It must be re-

* They are also called *Realschulen*, real schools, or schools in which knowledge of the most practical kind, the most applicable to *things* (*res*), is taught.—TRANSL.

† Report, &c. pp. 51, 55, 57.

marked that, generally speaking, the elementary schools, especially in the country, are common to both sexes, and are only divided, at least in the lower classes, by occupying a distinct part of the same room; whilst, in the middle schools, all the classes of boys and girls are separated, and sit in different rooms which have no communication.

It is reckoned that there are, on an average,
88 children for an elementary school of boys
and girls;

118 children for a middle school of boys;

136 children for a middle school of girls.

Thus it must be observed, that in elementary schools there is usually but one master, whereas in middle schools there are two, three and often more, masters and mistresses.

This leads us to the last point for consideration,—the number of masters and mistresses employed in the different primary schools.

Table IV. shows that for the 22,612 public schools, elementary and intermediate, of the monarchy, there are in all 27,749 masters and mistresses, who are distributed as follows:—

21,789 elementary schools.	{	22,211 regular masters.
		694 regular mistresses.
		2,014 assistant masters and mistresses.
481 middle or burgher schools for boys.	{	1,172 regular masters.
		360 assistant masters.
342 middle or burgher schools for girls.	{	538 regular masters.
		289 regular mistresses.
		471 assistant masters and mistresses.

These numbers give an important result ; *i. e.* the smallness of the number of mistresses compared to that of masters. In the elementary schools, the number of 694 mistresses, compared to that of 22,211 masters for 21,789 schools, shows that there is not a single school which has not its regular master ; while I can assert, that I never found a single public school in Prussia under the management of a woman. It is the opinion there, that, generally speaking, the government of a school requires the hand of a man ; the director is indeed allowed to have a female assistant when needed, but he must retain the head management. In villages, this assistant is usually the schoolmaster's wife or daughter. She is never entrusted with any but the accessory lessons, those manual works peculiar to her sex, and, in towns, with the singing lessons. When the school is rich, and on an extensive scale, this woman has the rank of regular mistress ; and of such there are, as we see, but 694 for the 21,789 elementary schools : ordinarily, she is a mere assistant to the head master. It is a prejudice, and a most pernicious prejudice, that in day-schools,—as all public schools (that is, schools for the public,) are or ought to be,—only a woman is fit to direct the education of girls ; in that case education on a grand scale were impossible, for it would be impossible to find capable mistresses sufficient for all the classes of all the 21,789 schools of the monarchy. Normal schools must then be created for the training of school-mistresses

in equal number with those for the training of masters. This would be to create enormous difficulties, only to come at an undesirable result; for education would be far from gaining in solidity and weight; and, in a girls' school, the sight of a woman, chief and manager, and a man her subordinate and assistant, is of itself a bad sort of lesson. In a school, as in a family, the government belongs to the man,—the woman is the helper. It is clear that in the burgher schools, where the course of education is much fuller, the woman's share must be considerably larger; thus we see in this class of schools, 289 mistresses for 342 girls' schools. But, associated with these 289 mistresses, are 589 masters. It is therefore still a man who is always at the head of the entire school, and who has the charge of the most important lessons. I regard this practice as the sole means of having girls' schools. But I must remark that in Prussia, and throughout Germany, most of the schoolmasters marry early and are fathers of families.

I have only to add some details on the condition of the establishments for training able masters for the elementary and burgher or middle schools; I mean the primary normal schools, called in Prussia, seminaries for schoolmasters (*Schullehrer-Seminarien**).

There are two sorts of establishments of this

* This is a much more accurate and significant name than the French *normal*, i. e. pattern, schools, which these are not.—
TRANSL.

kind ; 1. the small normal schools, which are in great number and very useful, and which are nearly what our model schools are, or ought to be ; 2. the great primary normal schools, where the course of study extends over two or three years, and each of which contains from 40 to 100 pupils. I shall confine myself here to the latter. In 1831, there were 33 in full activity, that is to say, more than there are regencies in Prussia,—and a Prussian regency is not so large as a French department. Table V. exhibits the sum total of the cost of each of these great establishments, with the share of that cost borne by the regency, and that borne by the state. This latter share alone is about 331,500 francs (13,260*l.*),—a fact to which I particularly wish to call attention, as giving an idea of the importance of these establishments. They now furnish almost all the masters of the public schools, elementary and intermediate, in the kingdom. I must add that the share of the expense of the elementary and middle schools borne by the government, is, according to a Table annexed to Table V. (Vide Table VI.), about 863,000 francs (34,520*l.*), which gives in all 1,194,200 francs (47,780*l.*) ; a considerable sum for a country containing less than thirteen millions of people, and under a system of national education in which the parishes, regencies and provinces are compelled by law to bear all the expenses relative to primary instruction, to which the state contributes only as matter of bounty and favour. It should be remarked, too, that here are no establishments to

found, but only to keep up and improve those already founded and organized*.

Lastly, if we wish to compare the leading results of these statistical documents with those of the documents of 1819 and 1825, we shall find that,

1st, In 1819 the number of schools

was, in all, 20,085

In 1825 21,623

In 1831 22,612

2nd, In 1819 the number of school-

masters and -mistresses was . . . 21,895

In 1825 22,965

In 1831 27,749

In 1825 the number of children un-

der fourteen years of age was . 4,487,461

That of children from seven to four-

teen 1,923,200

That of children attending school . 1,664,218

In 1831 the total number of chil-

dren under fourteen was . . . 4,767,072

Out of which, the number between

seven and fourteen was . . . 2,043,030

Out of which, the number of chil-

dren attending school was . . 2,021,421

This comparative statement abundantly proves that primary instruction is in a most satisfactory state in Prussia. The organization

* See a very interesting paper on Prussian Normal Schools in the *Journal of Education* (No. XI.), containing a statistical account of the number and extent of the seminaries for teachers of the lower schools in the Prussian dominions.

to which this remarkable success is to be attributed may be seen in detail elsewhere*. I shall here confine myself to recapitulating and noticing the following points.

1. A law which constrains parents, guardians, and master-manufacturers or artizans, to show, under penalties more or less severe, that the children under their care receive the benefit of instruction, either public or private ;—on the principle that the giving of the degree of instruction necessary to the knowledge and the practice of our duties is itself the highest duty, and an obligation to society quite as strict as that of military service for the common defence. In my judgement, such a law is not only justifiable, but absolutely indispensable ; and I know not a single example of a country in which such a law is wanting and in which the education of the people is in a flourishing or satisfactory state. Until the time when the progress of public morality, the sincere love of the people, and a true understanding of what liberty means, shall dictate to our Chambers such a law (which I confess would now be premature and at variance with our prejudices of all kinds), the government ought to neglect none of the means, direct or indirect, at its disposal for stirring up or encouraging the desire for instruction, and for attaining those ends by administrative, which it may be as yet inexpedient to attempt by legislative, measures. Among the safest means, I should suggest, 1st, the fixing of a determinate age for going to

* Report &c., p. 22. to p. 133.

school, and for leaving it ; 2nd, the institution of lists of attendance, effectually checked by the competent authorities.

2. The imposing of an obligation on the clergy to admit to the communion table no young persons who could not prove that they had passed, or were passing, the requisite time at school ;—an obligation at once civil and ecclesiastical, which interests the church in the school, and binds the school to the church by those strict ties which every statesman and every true philosopher ought to labour to strengthen. Hence instruction comes to be regarded, both by parents and by children, as the foundation of true piety ; while the authority of religion ministers to the service of knowledge.

3. The institution of public schools, as the fulfilment of a public duty. From the time that the state makes the attendance of children at school a legal, and the church makes it a religious, duty, the state would be in contradiction with itself if it did not provide for the execution of the law it has itself enacted, by requiring the establishment of a public school in every parish. There is no stability, no permanent future, for the instruction of the people but in schools maintained at the public charge, and under the care of the public authorities. Private speculation, which ought never to be thwarted, ought, on the other hand, never to be regarded as anything more than an accident, and consequently a supernumerary aid. The state ought no more to rely on individuals for

the execution of its own duties in the matter of education, than in any other matter of public and general interest.

4. The division of the charge of the schools among, 1st, the parents, who, if they can, are obliged to pay something; 2nd, the parish, which is bound to assess itself to a school-rate; 3rd, the department, or the province, which have funds for the succour of necessitous parishes; and 4th, the government, which assists in the last resort; so that the charge, thus divided, lights on everybody and oppresses nobody.

5. The proportional participation of the householders and the parish, of the department and the province, of the church and the state, in the superintendence and management of the schools,—a participation which interests every individual who has any influence in society in the education of the people.

Such are the most general causes of the prosperity of primary instruction in Prussia,—a prosperity incontestibly proved by the official documents I have just communicated.

May causes so simple and so prolific be speedily naturalized in our beloved country, and bring forth the same fruits!

VICTOR COUSIN.

April 25th, 1833.

***Note.*—As Tables I. and II. are exactly the same as those which occur in the body of the Report (pp. 31, 32), they are omitted here.—TRANSL.**

TABLE III. General census of the children attending the primary public schools, at the end of the year 1831.

Names of the Regencies of Prussia.	Number of children from 1 day to 14 years old.		Number of children attending the public elementary schools and middle or burgher schools.		In every 100,000 children, number who enter these public schools :
	Number in each regency.	Total in the province.	Number in each regency.	Total in the province.	
Province of Saxony.					
Reg. of Magdeburg	193,071	506,133	107,605	275,920	55,733
Merseburg	213,677		116,801		54,662
Erfurt	99,385		51,514		51,833
					54,515
Province of Westphalia.					
Reg. of Münster	125,360	443,580	60,179	210,193	48,005
Arnsberg	166,085		79,696		47,985
Minden	152,135		70,318		46,221
					47,386
Province of Brandenburg.					
Reg. of Potsdam (excl. Berlin)	246,833	560,712	122,019	256,887	49,434
Frankfurt on the Oder	246,170		114,527		46,524
Berlin (the city of) ...	67,709		20,341		30,042
					45,814
Province of Silesia.					
Reg. of Liegnitz	259,597	889,262	129,301	400,543	49,809
Breslau	335,726		155,165		46,219
Oppeln	293,939		116,077		39,490
					45,042
Province of the Rhine.					
Reg. of Coblenz	153,975	798,994	75,425	327,607	48,985
Trier	138,724		62,761		45,242
Cöln	137,310		53,844		39,242
Aachen	120,590		44,993		37,311
Düsseldorf	248,495		90,584		36,453
					41,002
Province of Pomerania.					
Reg. of Stettin	160,204	342,420	73,603	139,620	45,943
Cöslin	129,896		50,535		38,904
Stralsund	52,320		15,482		29,591
					40,775
Province of Prussia.					
Reg. of Königsberg	275,717	791,504	115,561	313,839	41,913
Dantzic	124,859		51,315		41,098
Gumbinnen	207,595		82,849		39,909
Marlenwerder	183,333		64,114		34,972
					39,651
Province of Posen.					
Reg. of Bromberg	142,555	434,467	32,714	96,812	22,948
Posen	291,912		64,098		21,958
					22,283
Total number of children for the whole kingdom		4,767,072		2,021,421	42,404'000

Note. The number of children of age to go to school, *i. e.* from 7 to 14, is generally calculated at three sevenths of the total population of children of from one day to 14 years inclusive. This calculation gives in every 100,000 42,857.

TABLE IV. Census of the primary public schools, element-
employed

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Number.	Names of the Regencies.	Number of the -					
		Schools.	Head Masters.	Head Mistresses.	Assistant Masters and Mistresses.	Boys.	Girls.
1	Königsberg	1,427	1,466	24	125	57,735	53,214
2	Gumbinnen	1,010	1,049	8	72	41,462	39,000
3	Dantzic	583	607	27	22	26,219	22,996
4	Marienwerder	942	966	23	41	33,387	28,627
5	Posen	775	768	10	20	32,185	28,703
6	Bromberg	509	535	2	13	17,892	14,692
7	Berlin (the city of)...	117	120	45	233	7,490	5,641
8	Potsdam	1,475	1,619	67	19	56,501	54,713
9	Frankfurt on the Oder	1,305	1,396	19	21	54,553	52,620
10	Stettin	1,063	1,120	11	23	34,979	32,811
11	Cöslin	937	956	5	12	22,862	21,001
12	Stralsund	389	345	53	9	7,472	6,014
13	Breslau	1,399	1,367	23	213	72,829	71,363
14	Oppeln	830	911	4	183	59,082	56,486
15	Liegnitz	1,311	1,171	7	192	62,262	62,727
16	Magdeburg	1,097	1,281	39	67	50,248	49,071
17	Merseburg	1,129	1,213	4	75	50,712	51,049
18	Erfurt	484	517	7	40	23,865	22,796
19	Münster	476	378	98	63	30,177	29,588
20	Minden	538	525	31	50	35,217	34,201
21	Arnsberg	792	804	37	52	40,756	38,339
22	Cöln	468	426	46	118	28,241	25,381
23	Düsseldorff	710	713	10	165	47,199	41,677
24	Coblentz	891	887	29	37	38,515	36,570
25	Trier	688	636	48	92	31,709	30,596
26	Aachen	445	435	14	57	23,926	20,586
Total in 1831		21,789	22,211	694	2,014	987,475	930,459

tary and middle, for boys and girls, and of the masters in them.

MIDDLE OR BURGHER SCHOOLS.

BOYS.				GIRLS.					
Number of the				Number of the					
Schools.	Head Masters.	Assistant Masters.	Pupils.	Schools.	Head Masters.	Head Mistresses.	Assistant Masters and Mistresses.	Pupils.	
35	86	23	2,980	11	15	12	13	1,632	
18	40	4	1,384	15	13	2	...	1,003	
13	35	6	1,425	3	6	2	8	675	
13	36	8	1,353	3	11	3	5	847	
13	31	6	2,183	7	5	4	11	1,077	
1	5	...	130	...	...	...	...	...	
26	44	161	3,077	54	40	48	315	4,133	
49	118	3	6,236	35	51	23	13	4,569	
32	82	6	4,029	25	38	18	11	3,325	
31	65	10	3,139	23	31	16	6	2,674	
19	80	11	3,592	18	85	6	...	3,080	
21	36	...	1,232	16	5	21	1	764	
36	95	27	5,835	12	16	15	8	5,188	
3	6	7	319	3	...	7	4	190	
23	63	6	2,475	19	44	12	1	1,837	
22	74	16	4,244	19	58	44	9	4,042	
40	93	19	7,636	35	62	9	9	7,406	
11	36	6	2,309	11	32	7	9	2,544	
8	9	...	397	1	1	3	2	20	
5	10	3	424	5	7	5	...	476	
18	32	6	550	2	4	2	...	51	
4	13	6	209	1	2	...	...	13	
15	30	9	774	16	7	13	36	934	
13	27	8	311	1	3	4	3	29	
8	15	8	285	3	...	4	1	171	
4	11	1	213	4	2	10	6	268	
481	1,172	360	56,889	312	538	289	471	46,598	

TABLE V. Census of the great primary normal schools in Prussia during the year 1831, with a statement of their expenditure.

No.	PROVINCES.	Sum total of expenditure.			Grants from the State.		
		Thlr.	Gr.	Pf.	Thlr.	Gr.	Pf.
	Eastern and Western Prussia.						
1	Normal School of Braunsberg ...	4,440	11	9	4,149	10	9
2	===== Dexe n	2,846	23	6	2,250	...	...
3	===== Mühlhausen ...	700	...	...	700	...	...
4	===== Angerburg	1,590	...	...	1,300	...	...
5	===== Karalene.....	6,656	...	...	5,980	...	...
6	===== Marienburg ...	2,147	10	...	2,147	10	...
7	===== Graudenz	2,050	16	3	2,050	16	3
8	===== Jenkau	5,311	18	1	...	...	...
	Brandenburg.						
9	===== Berlin	2,000	...	...	2,000	...	...
10	===== Potsdam	5,430	...	...	5,430	...	...
11	===== Neuze lle	11,554	2	6	6,945	2	6
	Pomerania.						
12	===== Stettin	3,410	...	...	3,069	...	...
13	===== Cöslin	2,608	...	...	2,556	...	...
14	===== Bartzwitz	250	...	...	250	...	...
	Silesia.						
15	} Breslau { prot.	4,543	6	...	3,909	6	...
16		3,287	...	...	3,287	...	...
17	===== Bunzlau	3,800	...	...	400	...	...
18	===== Ober-Glogau ...	2,700	...	...	2,700	...	...
	Posen.						
19	===== Posen	4,675	...	...	4,675	...	...
20	===== Bromberg	2,683	10	...	2,633	10	...
	Saxony.						
21	===== Halberstadt ...	2,750	...	...	2,150	...	...
22	===== Magdeburg ...	4,782	...	...	2,650	...	...
23	===== Gardeleben	685	...	...	685	...	...
24	===== Weissenfels ...	3,419	10	10	2,404	7	2
25	===== Erfurt	3,706	...	...	3,255	...	...
	Westphalia.						
26	===== Büren	4,494	2	...	4,127	2	...
27	===== Soest	3,270	...	...	3,120	...	...
28	===== Petershagen ...	522	15	...	300	...	...
	Rhine.						
29	===== Meurs	3,000	12	6	3,000	12	6
30	===== Düsseldorf.....	787	23	9	100	20	10
31	===== Brühl	6,809	5	...	6,599	10	...
32	===== Neuwied.....	2,999	17	6	2,999	17	6
33	===== St. Matthew, a village nr. Trier.	2,135	...	...	500	...	...
	Total	110,553	3	8	88,323	5	6
	or L.16,583				L.13,260		

TABLE VI. Statement of the sums paid annually by the public treasury for the elementary and the burgher schools throughout Prussia.

No.	PROVINCES.	Sums total for the year 1831.		
		Thlr.	Gr.	Pf.
1	East and West Prussia	52,012	6	7
2	Brandenburg	71,739	17	11
3	Pomerania	8,957	18	1
4	Silesia	17,796	23	...
5	Posen	9,186	6	1
6	Saxony	24,689	26	6
7	Westphalia	19,889	17	1
8	Rhine	16,655	29	9
9	General Expenses	9,390	...	...
	Total	230,317	22	...
	or	L.34,520		

THE END.

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APARTMENTS.

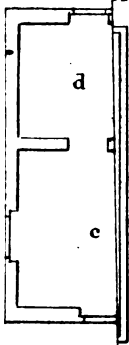


Fig 1 & 4. G.
C. Masters sits
underneath.

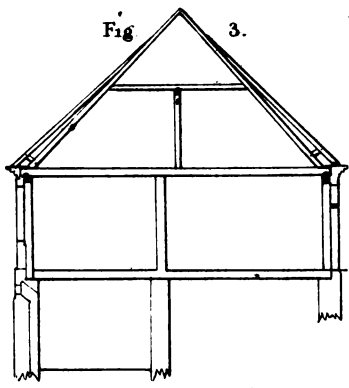
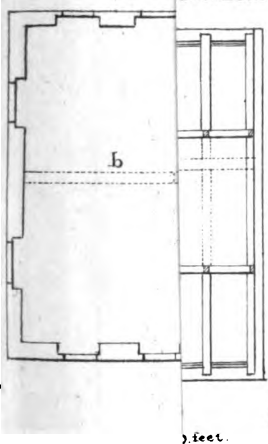
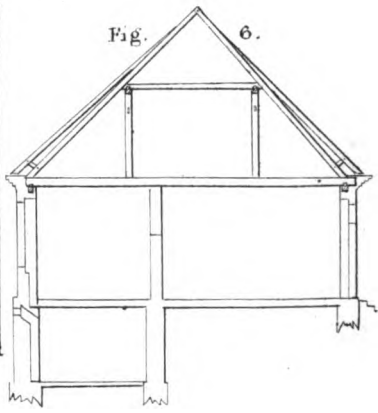


Fig. 3 & 6. Section on the line A. B.

TEACHERS' APARTMENTS.



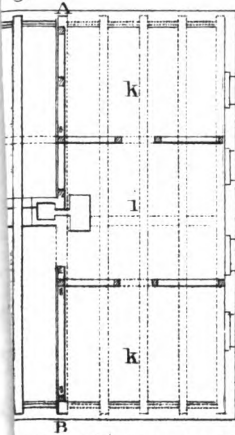
), feet.



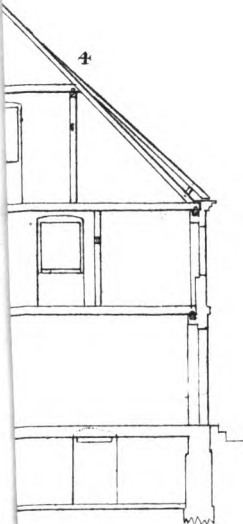


ENTS FOR 2 TEACHERS.

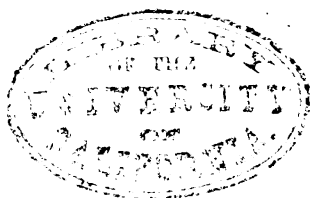
3.



for joists, loft, assistant's sitting



the line A B.



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