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CONTENTS.

CONSTITUTION

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

PREAMBLE.

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

CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I.—NAME.

This Association shall be styled the National Educational Association.

ARTICLE II.—DEPARTMENTS.

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

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

ARTICLE III.—MEMBERSHIP.

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

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

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

ARTICLE IV.—OFFICERS.

SECTION 1. The officers of this Association shall be a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, one Director for each State, District or Territory represented in the Association, and the presiding officers of the several departments

and a Board of Trustees to be constituted as hereinafter provided. Any friend of education may become a life-director by the donation of one hundred dollars to the Association at one time, either by himself or on his behalf; and any educational association may secure a perpetual directorship by a like donation of one hundred dollars, the director to be appointed annually or for life. Whenever a life-member desires to become a life-director, he shall be credited with the amount he has paid for his life-membership.

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

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

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

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

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

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

SEC. 8. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the Association, excepting those herein intrusted to the Board of Trustees; shall make all necessary arrangements for its meetings, and shall do all in its power to make it a useful and honorable institution. Upon the written application of twenty members of the Association for permission to establish a new department, they may grant such permission. Such new department shall in all respects be entitled to the same rights and privileges as the others. The formation of such department shall in effect be a sufficient amendment to this Constitution for the insertion of its name in Article II., and the Secretary shall make the necessary alterations.

SEC. 9. The Board of Trustees shall consist of four members, elected by the

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

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

ARTICLE V.—MEETINGS.

SECTION 1. The Annual Meeting of the Association shall be held at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors.

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

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

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

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

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

ARTICLE VI.—BY-LAWS.

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

ARTICLE VII.—AMENDMENTS.

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

BY-LAWS.

1. At each regular meeting of the Association there shall be appointed a Committee on Nominations, one on Honorary Members, and one on Resolutions.

2. The President and Secretary shall certify to the Board of Trustees all bills approved by the Board of Directors.

3. Each paying member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of its Proceedings.

4. No paper, lecture, or address shall be read before the Association or any of its departments in the absence of its author, nor shall any such paper, lecture, or address be published in the volume of Proceedings without the consent of the Association, upon approval of the Executive Committee.

5. It shall be the duty of the President, Secretary, and Treasurer of the Association, to appoint annually some competent person to examine the securities of the permanent fund held by the Board of Trustees, and his certificate showing the condition of the said fund shall be attached to the report of the Board of Trustees.

6. Classification of Membership. (See page 33.)

ACT OF INCORPORATION.

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

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

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

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

CERTIFICATE OF INCORPORATION.

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

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

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

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

CALENDAR OF MEETINGS.

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

1857.—PHILADELPHIA, PA. (Organized.)
James L. Enos, Chairman.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.

1858.—CINCINNATI, OHIO.
Z. Richards, President.
J. W. Bulkley, Secretary.
A. J. Rickoff, Treasurer.

1859.—WASHINGTON, D. C.
A. J. Rickoff, President.
J. W. Bulkley, Secretary.
C. S. Pennell, Treasurer.

1860.—BUFFALO, N. Y.
J. W. Bulkley, President.
Z. Richards, Secretary.
O. C. Wight, Treasurer,

1861, 1862.—No session.

1863.—CHICAGO, ILL.
John D. Philbrick, President.
James Cruikshank, Secretary.
O. C. Wight, Treasurer.

1864.—OGDENSBURG, N. Y.
W. H. Wells, President.
David N. Camp, Secretary.
Z. Richards, Treasurer.

1865.—HARRISBURG, PA.
S. S. Greene, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
Z. Richards, Treasurer.

1866.—INDIANAPOLIS, IND.
J. P. Wickersham, President.
S. H. White, Secretary.
S. P. Bates, Treasurer.

1867.—No session.

1868.—NASHVILLE, TENN.
J. M. Gregory, President.
L. Van Bokkelen, Secretary.
James Cruikshank, Treasurer.

1869.—TRENTON, N. J.
L. Van Bokkelen, President.
W. E. Crosby, Secretary.
A. L. Barber, Treasurer.

1870.—CLEVELAND, OHIO.
Daniel B. Hagar, President.
A. P. Marble, Secretary.
W. E. Crosby, Treasurer.

NAME CHANGED TO

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

1871.—ST. LOUIS, MO.
J. L. Pickard, President.
W. E. Crosby, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.

1872.—BOSTON, MASS.
E. E. White, President.
S. H. White, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.

1873.—ELMIRA, N. Y.
B. G. Northrop, President.
S. H. White, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.

1874.—DETROIT, MICH.
S. H. White, President.
A. P. Marble, Secretary.
John Hancock, Treasurer.

1875.—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
W. T. Harris, President.
W. R. Abbott, Secretary.
A. P. Marble, Treasurer.

1876.—BALTIMORE, MD.
W. F. Phelps, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
A. P. Marble, Treasurer.

1877.—LOUISVILLE, KY.
M. A. Newell, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
J. Ormond Wilson, Treasurer.

1878.—No session.

1879.—PHILADELPHIA, PA.
John Hancock, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
J. Ormond Wilson, Treasurer.

1880.—CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.
J. Ormond Wilson, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
E. T. Tappan, Treasurer.

1881.—ATLANTA, GA.
James H. Smart, President.
W. D. Henkle, Secretary.
E. T. Tappan, Treasurer.

1882.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
G. J. Orr, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
H. S. Tarbell, Treasurer.

1883.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
E. T. Tappan, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
N. A. Calkins, Treasurer.

1884.—MADISON, WIS.
Thomas W. Bicknell, President.
H. S. Tarbell, Secretary.
N. A. Calkins, Treasurer.

1885.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
F. Louis Soldan, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
N. A. Calkins, Treasurer.

1886.—TOPEKA, KAS.
N. A. Calkins, President.
W. E. Sheldon, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.

1887.—CHICAGO, ILL.
W. E. Sheldon, President.
J. H. Canfield, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.

1888.—SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.
Aaron Gove, President.
J. H. Canfield, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.

1889.—NASHVILLE, TENN.
Albert P. Marble, President.
J. H. Canfield, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.

1890.—ST. PAUL, MINN.
James H. Canfield, President.
W. R. Garrett, Secretary.
E. C. Hewett, Treasurer.

1891.—TORONTO, ONTARIO.
W. R. Garrett, President.
E. H. Cook, Secretary.
J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer.

1892.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
E. H. Cook, President. R. W. Stevenson, Secretary. J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

OF THE UNITED STATES.

OFFICERS FOR 1891-92.

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

E. H. COOK ..... Flushing, New York. ..... *President.*
R. W. STEVENSON ..... Wichita, Kansas ..... *Secretary.*
J. M. GREENWOOD ..... Kansas City, Missouri ..... *Treasurer.*

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WM. M. BEARDSHEAR, Iowa.
IRWIN SHEPARD. Minnesota.
A. P. MARBLE, Massachusetts.

Board of Trustees.

N. A. CALKINS ..... *Chairman* ..... 124 East Eightieth street, New York.
ZALMON RICHARDS ..... *Secretary* ..... 1301 Corcoran street, Washington, D. C.

E. C. HEWETT	Normal, Illinois	Term expires July, 1895.
N. A. CALKINS	New York City	" " " 1894.
H. S. TARBELL	Providence, Rhode Island	" " " 1893.
ZALMON RICHARDS	Washington, District of Columbia	" " " 1892.
E. H. COOK	Flushing, New York	*Ex officio.*

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

Board of Directors.*

ADAMS, E. H., Ashville, North Carolina.
ANDERSON, W. H., Wheeling, West Virginia.
ATKINSON, W. R., Columbia, South Carolina.
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HARRIS, T. G., Dallas, Texas.
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Normal.

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MARGARET E. CONKLIN	*Secretary*	State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

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J. H. PHILLIPS	*Secretary*	Supt. of Schools, Birmingham, Ala.

Industrial Education and Manual Training.

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HENRY W. POOR	*Secretary*	Boston, Mass.

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CLARENCE C. BIRCHARD	*Secretary*	Chicago, Ill.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

OF THE UNITED STATES.

OFFICERS FOR 1892-94.

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

A. G. LANE	Chicago, Illinois	*President.*
R. W. STEVENSON	Columbus, Ohio	*Secretary.*
J. M. GREENWOOD	Kansas City, Missouri	*Treasurer.*

Vice-Presidents.

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W. H. BARTHOLOMEW, Kentucky.	E. E. WHITE, Ohio.	EDWARD SEARING, Minnesota.
L. E. WOLFE, Missouri.	J. W. DICKINSON, Massachusetts.	C. P. ROGERS, Iowa.
M. C. FERNALD, Maine.	T. A. FUTRALL, Arkansas.	N. C. SCHAEFFER, Pennsylvania.

Board of Trustees.

N. A. CALKINS	*Chairman*	124 East Eightieth street, New York.
ZALMON RICHARDS	*Secretary*	1301 Corcoran street, Washington, D. C.

ZALMON RICHARDS	Washington, District of Columbia	Term expires July, 1896.
E. C. HEWETT	Normal, Illinois	" " " 1895.
N. A. CALKINS	New York City	" " " 1894.
H. S. TARBELL	Providence, Rhode Island	" " " 1893.
A. G. LANE	Chicago, Illinois	*Ex officio.*

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

Board of Directors.

ANDERSON, W. H., Wheeling, West Virginia.
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HUNT, MARY H., Hyde Park, Massachusetts.
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LANE, A. G., Chicago, Illinois.
LANIER, W. B., Brunson, South Carolina.
LAYLANDER, O. J., Cedar Falls, Iowa.
LIPSCOMB, DABNEY, Starkville, Mississippi.
LOW, SETH, Columbia College, New York City.
MARQUARDT, WILLIAM, Laramie, Wyoming.
MARSHALL, T. MARCELLUS, Chamita, New Mexico.
MCCAHN, JOHN E., Baltimore, Maryland.
MCELROY, E. B., Salem, Oregon.
MCNAUGHTON, JAMES, Mayville, North Dakota.
MILLSPAUGH, J. F., Salt Lake City, Utah.
MILNE, J. M., Oneonta, New York.
PALMER, SOLOMON, East Lake, Alabama.
PARKER, CHARLES I., South Chicago, Illinois.
PASCO, FREDERIC, Jacksonville, Florida.
PRITCHETT, H. C., Huntsville, Texas.
RAMSEY, G. J., New Orleans, Louisiana.
RAUB, A. N., Newark, Delaware.
RHODES, MCHENRY, Frankfort, Kentucky.
RICHARDS, ZALMON, Washington, D. C.
RICKOFF, ANDREW J., New York City.
RICKOFF, MRS. REBECCA D., New York City.
ROGERS, C. P., Marshalltown, Iowa.
ROUNDS, C. C., Plymouth, New Hampshire.
SCHAEFFER, N. C., Kutztown, Pa.
SEARING, EDWARD, Mankato, Minnesota.
SHAWAN, J. A., Columbus, Ohio.
SHELDON, WILLIAM E., Boston, Massachusetts.
SHEPARD, IRWIN, Winona, Minnesota.
SMITH, EULER B., La Grange, Georgia.
STANFORD, LELAND, San Francisco, California.
STAY, J. D., Yankton, South Dakota.
STEELE, W. L., Galesburg, Illinois.
STEVENSON, R. W., Columbus, Ohio.
STOCKWELL, T. B., Providence, Rhode Island.
STRATTON, C. C., Portland, Oregon.
STRONG, E. A., Ypsilanti, Michigan.
SULLIVAN, MISS CHRISTINE, Cincinnati, Ohio.
TARBELL, H. S., Providence, Rhode Island.
TAYLOR, A. R., Emporia, Kansas.
WALLER, D. J., Jr., Harrisburg, Pa.
WHITE, E. E., Cincinnati, Ohio.
WILKINSON, J. N., Emporia, Kansas.
WOLFE, L. E., Jefferson City, Missouri.
YOUNG, R. G., Helena, Montana.

"The President, Vice-Presidents, Secretary, Treasurer, Directors, Life Directors, President of the Council, and presiding officers of their respective departments shall constitute the Board of Directors."—*Art. IV., Sec.* 2, *of the Constitution.*

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

E. W. COY	*President*	Cincinnati, Ohio.
F. A. FITZPATRICK	*Vice-President*	Omaha, Neb.
CHAS. DEGARMO	*Secretary and Treasurer*	Swarthmore, Pa.

DEPARTMENT OFFICERS.

Kindergarten.

MISS SUSAN E. BLOW	*President*	St. Louis, Missouri.
MISS CONSTANCE MACKENZIE	*Vice-President*	Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
MISS ANNA STOVALL	*Secretary*	San Francisco, California.

Elementary.

MRS. REBECCA D. RICKOFF	*President*	New York City.
AARON GOVE	*Vice-President*	Denver, Colorado.
F. TRENDLEY	*Secretary*	Ohio.

Secondary.

J. S. CROMBIE	*President*	Brooklyn, New York.
AMELIA E. TRENT	*Vice-President*	Buffalo, New York.
W. H. BARTHOLOMEW	*Secretary*	Louisville, Kentucky.

Higher.

SETH LOW	*President*	New York City.
RT. REV. JOHN J. KEANE	*Vice-President*	Washington, D. C.
WM. DEWITT HYDE	" "	Brunswick, Maine.
W. G. BALLANTINE	" "	Oberlin, Ohio.
J. H. CANFIELD	" "	Lincoln, Nebraska.
WM. PRESTON JOHNSTON	" "	New Orleans, Louisiana.
MELVIL DEWEY	*Secretary*	Albany, New York.

Normal.

J. M. MILNE	*President*	Oneonta, New York.
J. W. COOK	*Vice-President*	Normal, Illinois.
J. N. WILKINSON	*Secretary*	Emporia, Kansas.

Superintendence.

EDWARD BROOKS	*President*	Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
JOHN E. BRADLEY	*Vice-President*	Minneapolis, Minnesota.
J. H. PHILLIPS	*Secretary*	Birmingham, Alabama.

Manual Training and Industrial Education.

W. M. BEARDSHEAR	*President*	Ames, Iowa.
A. C. GORDON	*Vice-President*	Minnesota.
W. B. FRIEDBERG	*Secretary*	New York, N. Y.

Art.

MISS CHRISTINE SULLIVAN	*President*	Cincinnati, Ohio.
E. C. COLBY	*Vice-President*	Rochester, New York.
MISS ELIZABETH H. PERRY	*Secretary*	Bridgewater, Massachusetts.

Music.

N. L. GLOVER	*President*	Akron, Ohio.
BENJAMIN JEPSON	*Vice-President*	New Haven, Connecticut.
GEORGE C. YOUNG	*Secretary*	Wichita, Kansas.

MEMBERSHIP

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

THE dates in the margin indicate the year when the several memberships began. The addresses given in this list were received in reply to letters sent to the latest known residence of each Life Director and Life Member, in October, 1892, enclosing a postal card addressed for return, with the following request:

☞ *Please fill blanks on this postal card with your name, residence, etc., and mail it at once.*

In cases where neither the letter nor the postal card has been returned, the residence is indicated as doubtful by (?).

PERPETUAL DIRECTORSHIP.

1879. Philadelphia Teachers' Institute, Sargent Street, below 9th, Philadelphia, Pa.
1889. Board of Education of Nashville, Tenn.
1890. Illinois State Teachers' Association, Springfield, Ill.

LIFE DIRECTORS.

CALIFORNIA.

1888. Brown, LeRoy D., Box 138, Santa Monica, Los Angeles Co.
1888. Stanford, Leland, San Francisco (?).

COLORADO.

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

ILLINOIS.

1887. Dougherty, Newton C., 906 E. Bluff St., Peoria.
1887. Parker, Chas. I., 9136 Exchange Ave., South Chicago.
1891. Pike, J., Jerseyville.

KANSAS.

1886. Fairchild, Geo. T., State Agricultural College, Manhattan.
1886. Jewett, A. V., Abilene, Dickinson Co.
1886. Taylor, A. R., 1127 Congress St., Emporia.

MASSACHUSETTS.

1887. Hunt, Mary H., 55 Central Ave., Hyde Park, Norfolk Co.

MISSOURI.

1886. Greenwood, J. M., 1312 Oak St., Kansas City.

NEW YORK.

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

OHIO.

1888. Day, L. W., 422 Superior St., Cleveland.

OREGON.

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

WEST VIRGINIA.

1877. Marshall, T. Marcellus, Glenville, Gilmer Co.

LIFE MEMBERS.

CALIFORNIA.

1884. Eden, Philip, Pasadena, Los Angeles Co.
1889. Hobe, Augusta W., 1633 Hyde St., San Francisco.
1879. Hoose, James H., 255 S. Euclid Ave., Pasadena.
1877. De Jarnette, Anna Kalfus, care of J. L. Kalfus, San José.
1882. Morris, Harriette N., State Normal School, Chico.

CONNECTICUT.

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

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

1884. Bell, Alex. Graham, Washington (?).
1876. Harris, Wm. T., Bureau of Education, Washington.
1880. Hitz, John, 917 R St., N. W., Washington.
1889. Keane, Rt. Rev. John, Catholic University, Washington.
1864. Richards, Zalmon, 1301 Corcoran St., Washington.
1884. Rusk, J. M., Washington.
1880. Wilson, J. Ormond, 1439 Massachusetts Ave., Washington.

GEORGIA.

1890. Baker, W. H., 150 Drayton St., Savannah.
1881. Mallon, Mrs Frances C., The Leland, Houston St., Atlanta.
1870. Manley, R. M., Dalton, Whitfield Co.

ILLINOIS.

1870. Allen, Ira W., 612 Maple St., Englewood, Chicago.
1884. Allyn, Robert, Carbondale, Jackson Co.
1880. Brown, Geo. P., Bloomington, McLean Co.
1884. Cheney, Augustus J., Oak Park (?), Chicago.
1864. Eberhardt, John F., 161 La Salle St., Chicago.

ILLINOIS—*Continued.*

1876. Forbes, Alexander, 24 Aldine Square, Chicago.
1884. Hayward, Emily A., University of Chicago, Chicago.
1884. Hewett, Edwin C., 200 Ash St., Normal, McLean Co.
1891. Hull, John, Normal University, Carbondale.
1884. Raab, Henry, State House, Springfield.

INDIANA.

1876. Bell, W. A., 66½ North Penn St., Indianapolis.
1880. Irwin, John S., 241 West Main St., Fort Wayne.
1866. McRae, N. S., Marion (?).
1877. Smart, James H., Perdue University, La Fayette.
1876. Stevens, M. C., Littleton St., W. Side, La Fayette.

IOWA.

1880. Gilchrist, J. C., Laurens, Pocahontas Co.
1886. Pickard, Josiah L., 419 N. Clinton St., Iowa City.
1884. Taylor, Henry J., 1635 Douglas St., Sioux City.
1884. Willis, Wm. A., 612 Market St., Iowa City.

KANSAS.

1886. Campbell, A. G., Lock Box 37, Council Grove.
1886. Clark, Frank H., Minneapolis, Ottawa Co.
1886. Coover, N. Wilson, Ellsworth Co.
1886. Fairchild, Edward S., Ellsworth, Ellsworth Co.
1886. Jay, Walter M., St. John's School, Salina.
1886. Klock, J. E., Leavenworth.
1886. Larimer, Henry G., 216 Clay St., Topeka.
1886. Limerick, A. H., 902 E. 9th St., Winfield.
1886. MacDonald, John, Topeka.
1886. Meade, Richard C., Atchison (?).

KANSAS—*Continued.*

1886. Roop, C. Y., 336 S. 7th St., Salina.
1886. Rose, Geo. E., Rosedale, Wyandotte Co.
1886. Sawhill, Thos. A., 309 N. 7th St., Concordia, Cloud Co.
1886. Schuyler, Aaron, 1316 S. Santa Fé St., Salina.
1886. Stanley, Edmund, 900 Kentucky St., Lawrence.
1886. Tillotson, D. C., 621 Fillmore St., Topeka.
1886. Williams, Philo J., Massachusetts St., Lawrence.
1886. President Board of Education, Abilene, Dickinson Co.
1886. Dodge City Schools, care E. D. Webb, Dodge City, Ford Co.
1886. Board of Education, City of Ottawa, Franklin Co.
1886. Sedgwick City Schools, Sedgwick, Harvey Co.
1886. Cowley County Teachers' Association, Winfield (?).
1886. Riley County Teachers' Association, Manhattan (?).

KENTUCKY.

1877. Bartholomew, W. H., 426 East Gray St., Louisville.
1877. Monsarrat, Mrs. L. L., 1250 First St., Louisville.

MARYLAND.

1876. Newell, M. A., The High School, Havre de Grace.
1876. Richmond, Sarah E. S., 1402 Penna. Ave., Baltimore.

MASSACHUSETTS.

1884. Bascom, John, Park St., Williamstown.
1882. Bicknell, Thos., W., 175 Harvard St., Dorchester.
1864. Hagar, Daniel B., 12 Summer St., Salem.
1870. Jones, Daniel W., 4 Hawthorn St., Roxbury, Boston.
1880. Marble, Albert P., 492 Main St., Worcester.
1886. Mowry, Wm. A., 97 Federal St., Salem.
1865. Sheldon, Wm. E., 3 Somerset St., Boston.

MICHIGAN.

1866. Mayhew, Ira, 119 Griswold St., Detroit.

MINNESOTA.

1864. Pennell, Calvin S., 2245 St. Anthony Park.
1870. Phelps, Wm. F., 105 Germania Life Building, St. Paul.
1890. Ind. School Dist. No. 3, care Wm. J. Pringle, Northfield, Rice Co.

MISSISSIPPI.

1889. Wright, Edmund W., P. O. Box 353, Vicksburg.

MISSOURI.

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

NEBRASKA.

1876. Beals, Samuel De Witt, 2118 Davenport St., Omaha.
1880. Bibb-Sudborough, Mrs. Grace, 549 S. 26th Ave., Omaha.
1884. Curry, Robert, cor. D and 4th Sts., Palmyra.
1884. James, Henry M., 2219 Capitol Ave., Omaha.
1886. Miller, J. H., Room 5, Ledwith Block, Lincoln.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

1876. Rounds, Charles C., Plymouth.

NEW JERSEY.

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

NEW YORK.

1871. Anderson, John J., 343 Adelphi St., Brooklyn.
1879. Calkins, N. A., 124 E. 80th St., New York.
1880. Coe, Emily M., 50 W. 22d St., New York.
1864. Cruikshank, James, 206 So. Oxford St., Brooklyn.
1883. Day, Mrs. Albert, ———, New York.
1882. Hodgdon, Josephine E., 80 Willoughby St., Brooklyn.
1885. Hunter, Thomas, Normal College, New York.
1879. Kraus, John, San Remo, Central Park West, New York.
1880. Rickoff, Mrs. Rebecca D., 444 Central Park West, New York.
1882. Stern, S. M., 29 E. 44th St., New York.
1884. Van Aken, Mrs. Georgiana, 63 Park St., New York.

NORTH CAROLINA.

1884. Bingham, Robert, Asheville.

OHIO.

1884. Bennett, C. W., 218 W. Ash St., Piqua.
1880. Bennett, Hampton, Franklin, Warren Co.
1880. Burns, J. J., Canton.
1870. Cole, William H., Marysville, Union Co.
1883. Coy, E. W., Hughes High School, Cincinnati.
1866. Curran, Ulysses T., 622 Columbus Ave., Sandusky.
1880. Davidson, Chas. C., 59 W. Ely St., Alliance.
1880. Dutton, Bettie A., 94 State St., Cleveland.
1865. Hartshorn, O. N., Alliance.
1870. Holden, L. E., Cleveland (?).
1879. McMillan, Reuben, Canfield, Mahoning Co.
1880. McMillan, Mrs. S., Canfield, Mahoning Co.
1880. Miller, Lewis, Oak Place, Akron.
1880. Peaslee, John B., McGregor Park, Cincinnati.
1882. Robert, James A., 230 N. Summit Ave., Dayton.
1880. Stevenson, R. W., 651 Franklin Ave., Columbus.
1870. White, Emerson E., 387 E. Broad St., Columbus.
1880. Widner, Esther, 201 S. Perry St., Dayton.
1870. Williams, Mrs. Delia Lathrop, 62 S. Liberty St., Delaware.

PENNSYLVANIA.

1870. Arey, Oliver, 303 Springfield Ave., Philadelphia.
1879. Avery, Rachel Foster, Somerton, Philadelphia.
1876. Brooks, Edward, 240 S. 39th St., Philadelphia.
1879. Gratz, Simon, 1309 Locust St., Philadelphia.
1865. Ingram, Samuel D., 113 Market St., Harrisburg.
1891. Schofield, Martha, 1717 Vine St., Philadelphia.
1879. Shippen, Edward, 532 Walnut St., Philadelphia.
1880. Singer, Edgar A., 4662 Penn St., Philadelphia.
1884. Stewart, Sarah A., 1520 Chestnut St., Philadelphia.

TENNESSEE.

1887. Conway, Clara, Memphis.

WISCONSIN.

1884. Albel, Geo. S., State Normal School, Oshkosh.
1884. Aylward, John Arthur, Pioneer Block, Madison.
1884. Beck, Geo., 125 Elm St., Platteville.

WISCONSIN—*Continued.*

1884. Carpenter, J. H., 315 Wisconsin Ave., Madison.
1884. Chandler, W. H., Sun Prairie, Dane Co.
1884. Charlton, Edwin A., Broadhead, Green Co.
1884. Emery, J. Q., River Falls, Pierce Co.
1884. Flavin, John T., Watertown, Jefferson Co.
1884. Harvey, Lorenzo Dow, 225 23d St., Milwaukee.
1884. Hutton, A. J., Platteville, Grant Co.
1884. Nye, Chas. H., Box 201, Platteville, Grant Co.
1884. Parker, Warren D., 212 Gilman St., Madison.
1884. Parkinson, John B., 803 State St., Madison.
1884. Shaw, Samuel, Crandon, Forest Co.
1884. Stack, Joshua, Martin Flats, Wisconsin St., Milwaukee.
1884. Stewart, I. N., Appleton, Outagamie Co.
1884. Stearns, J. W., 512 Wisconsin Ave., Madison.
1884. Spencer, Robert C., Business College, Milwaukee.
1884. State Normal School, Platteville, Grant Co.
1884. Thayer, J. B., Madison (?).
1884. Twining, N. C., Monroe (?).
1884. Whitford, William C., Milton, Rock Co.
1884. Board Regents State N. Schools, Wis. State Historical Society, Madison.
1884. County Supts.' Association, Wis. State Hist. Soc., Madison.
1884. Board of Education, Beloit.
1884. Board of Education, Jamesville.
1884. Board of Education, A. N. Hardy, Clerk, La Crosse.
1884. Board of Education, Watertown.
1884. Supt. Public Schools (Board of Education), Milwaukee.
1884. Board of Education (R. H. Halsey, Supt. Schools), Oshkosh.
1884. Alumni Assoc., City Normal School, Milwaukee.
1884. County Teachers' Association, Milwaukee.
1884. Intermediate and Upper Section, Teachers' Corps, Milwaukee.
1884. Principals' Association, Milwaukee.
1884. Primary Section, Teachers' Corps, Milwaukee.
1884. Athenæum Lit. Soc., State Normal School, Platteville.
1884. Philadelphian Society, State Normal School, Platteville.
1884. Public School Teachers, Jamesville.
1884. Wisconsin Principals' Assoc'n (?).
1884. Wisconsin Teachers' Assoc'n (?).

ADDRESSES UNKNOWN.

Letters sent to the last known address of the following were returned by postmasters, marked "Not called for," "Left for parts unknown," "Unknown," "Name not in Directory," etc.:

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

NAMES OF LIFE MEMBERS DECEASED.

Danforth, Edward, New York.
Hancock, John, Ohio.
Harvey, Thomas W., Ohio.
Hobbs, B. C., Indiana.
Howland, H. C., Wisconsin.
McVicar, Peter, Kansas.
Stone, E. M., Rhode Island.
Stone, Mrs. M. A., Connecticut.
Tourgee, Eben, Massachusetts.
Wickersham, James P., Pennsylvania.

FINANCIAL REPORTS.

SIXTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

To the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association:

The Board of Trustees present, as their sixth annual report of the financial condition of the permanent fund of the National Educational Association, for the year ending June 30, 1892, the following:

At the close of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1891, the amount of the permanent fund was thirty-six thousand four hundred dollars ($36,400). During the past year there has been added to this fund, by one life directorship, the sum of one hundred dollars ($100), and by transfers from the receipts of the meeting at Toronto, 1891, as per Art. IV., Sect. 10, of the Constitution, the sum of three thousand five hundred dollars ($3,500), making the present total amount of said fund forty thousand dollars ($40,000).

Investments.—At the date of our fifth annual report, the amount of the permanent fund invested was thirty-four thousand one hundred and thirty-eight dollars ($34,138). During the past year the sum of three thousand nine hundred dollars ($3,900) of these investments matured and was paid. Additional investments have already been made to the amount of eleven hundred dollars ($1,100).

The total amount of investments, July 1, 1892, is thirty-one thousand three hundred and thirty-eight dollars ($31,338). The sum on hand uninvested is eight thousand six hundred and sixty-two dollars ($8,662), which will be duly invested at an early favorable opportunity.

Income from Interest, etc.—During the past year the amount of interest received from the permanent fund was two thousand and forty-nine dollars and thirteen cents ($2,049.13), and the sum received from sale of the proceedings was one hundred and ninety-seven dollars and eleven cents ($197.11), all of which is included in the report of receipts by the treasurer for this period.

Respectfully submitted.

N. A. CALKINS,
Z. RICHARDS,
HORACE S. TARBELL,
} *Trustees.*

CERTIFICATE.

THIS is to certify that I have examined the several bonds and securities of the "permanent fund" belonging to the National Educational Association, now held by the Board of Trustees, and that I found said securities to consist of a first mortgage for three thousand dollars ($3,000) on real estate in the city of Providence, Rhode Island, with a policy of fire insurance for $3,000; of bonds of several school districts in the State of Kansas to the amount of twenty-two thousand three hundred and thirty-eight dollars, with proper coupons attached; of funding bonds of the counties of Grant, Lane, and Seward, and of the city of Marion, Marion County, Kansas, to the amount of six thousand dollars ($6,000); total amount of securities, thirty-one thousand three hundred and thirty-eight dollars ($31,338), all of which are kept in the safe deposit vault of the Nassau Bank of the city of New York.

ROBERT H. TILLSON.

NEW YORK, July 6, 1892.

SUMMARY OF TREASURER'S REPORT FOR 1892.

J. M. GREENWOOD, TREASURER, IN ACCOUNT WITH THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

DR. July 1, 1891.			CR. July 1, 1891, to July 1, 1892.		
To balance of account from 1890-91, as per Treasurer's report	$69 58		By publishing Proceedings of Department of Superintendence, 1891	$221 50	
Additional receipts from meeting of 1890 (St. Paul), per E. C. Hewett	192 80	$262 38	Preparing Proceedings of Toronto meeting for publication, etc., E. H. Cook	500 00	
Annual membership fees at Toronto, paid to Treasurer N. E. A.	1,198 00		Preparing alphabetical list of members for volume 1891	24 00	
Annual membership fees in Canada, per H. J. Hill	140 00		Stenographic report of discussion, Toronto meeting	112 45	
Additional memberships	30 00		Printing and binding 4,000 copies Proceedings, 1891, Toronto meeting	3,777 25	
Membership fees at meeting of Department of Superintendence at Philadelphia, 1891	180 00		Distributing volumes 1891, by express and mail, to members	876 06	
Membership fees collected by railroad officials	11,605 10		Special expenses distributing volumes to members in Canada	30 00	$5,541 26
One Life Director, J. Pike, Ill.	100 00	13,253 10	Expenses of the President in making arrangements for meeting at Toronto	207 65	
Bureau of Education, D. C., for Proceedings Department Superintendence, 1891	57 86		Expenses of the Secretary for meeting at Toronto	304 94	
Sale of volumes Proceedings N. E. A.	139 25	197 11	Expenses of Treasurer for assistants, clerks, etc., at Toronto meeting	381 00	
Received from interest on permanent fund from July 1, 1891, to July 1, 1892		2,049 13	For assistant treasurer at meeting of Department of Superintendence, Philadelphia, 1891	15 00	
		$15,761 72	Expenses of Executive Committee on account of Toronto meeting	77 67	
			For badges, rubber stamps, printing, etc., at Toronto	65 25	
			For custom-duties and telegrams at Toronto	46 55	1,098 06
			General expenses of the Association from July, 1891, to July, 1892: Printing membership certificates, $37.50; circulars, $79.35; rent of depository, $30; services of custodian, $50; rent to safe deposit company, $21; freight on volumes Proceedings to the depository, $33.01; postage on volumes mailed at depository, $8.12; putting up shelves in new depository, $20.50; moving to new depository, $15; porter and packing books, $12.25; messengers and express, $9.89; postage and telegrams, $32.98; stationery, $5.55		355 15
			Expenses of the several departments: Superintendence, $52.50; Higher Education, $49.53; Art, $23; Secondary Education, $24; Kindergarten, $9.25; Elementary Instruction, $1.50; Music, $12	171 78	
			Expenses of State Managers: Rhode Island, $4.75; New York City, Brooklyn, and New Jersey, $30; New York, $14.25; Ohio, $20; Nebraska, $19.50; Iowa, $19; Missouri, $20; New Mexico, $8.	135 50	307 28
			Expended for stock of the Henry Barnard Publishing Company, as per vote of Board of Directors, July, 1891		1,000 00
			Railroad coupons of membership redeemed for life members		48 00
			Total disbursements		$8,349 75
			Transfer to permanent fund per Section 10, Article IV. of Constitution: One Life Directorship	100 00	
			Surplus funds of Toronto meeting	3,500 00	3,600 00
			Balance for transfer to account of 1892-93		3,811 97
					$15,761 72

SUMMARY OF YEAR'S FINANCES.

Total receipts for 1891	$15,499 34
Disbursements for the year	8,349 75
Net proceeds	$7,149 59

SARATOGA SPRINGS, July 11, 1892.

This report of the Treasurer for the year ending July 1, 1892, has been examined and approved by the Board of Trustees.

N. A. CALKINS, *Chairman.*
Z. RICHARDS, *Secretary.*

OFFICIAL MINUTES.

THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

MORNING SESSION.

A SPECIAL meeting of the Association was held in Congress Spring Park, on the morning of Tuesday, July 12, 1892. The meeting was called to order by President E. H. Cook, at 9:40 A. M. The session was opened with prayer by the Rev. Dr. L. H. Angier, of Boston, Mass.

President Cook made a few opening remarks and then introduced the Hon. A. S. Draper, of New York, who delivered an address of welcome to President Harrison. At the close of Mr. Draper's remarks, President Cook introduced the Hon. Benjamin Harrison, President of the United States, who made a brief address to the Association.

President Cook then thanked President Harrison in behalf of the Association, and declared the meeting adjourned until 2:30 P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The meeting was called to order in Congress Spring Park, at 2:30 P. M., by Mr. E. N. Jones, Chairman of the local Executive Committee. Invocation by the Rev. Dr. J. L. Withrow, of Chicago. The Hon. J. W. Houghton was introduced by the Chairman, Mr. Jones, and delivered an address of welcome in behalf of the people of Saratoga. The Hon. J. F. Crooker, State Superintendent of Public Instruction of New York, was introduced, and welcomed the Association in behalf of the teachers of the State.

The Hon. Melvil Dewey, Secretary of the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York, delivered an address of welcome.

The Chairman, Mr. Jones, then introduced President E. H. Cook, of New York, who delivered a brief response to the addresses of welcome, and then introduced Hon. W. R. Garrett, First Vice-President of the Association, who made a brief response.

Responses were also made by Supt. J. M. Greenwood, of Kansas City, Mo., the Treasurer of the Association ;

R. W. Stevenson, of Wichita, Kan., Secretary of the Association ;

Dr. N. A. Calkins, of New York, Chairman of the Board of Trustees;

Hon. W. T. Harris, U. S. Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C., in behalf of the United States.

An address was then delivered by Dr. Harris on: *The Outlook of Education in the World.* This was followed by an address on: *Americanism and the Public Schools,* by Francis Bellamy, of the *Youth's Companion,* Boston, Mass.

After announcements by the Secretary, the Association adjourned to meet at 8:15 P. M. in the Casino.

EVENING SESSION.

The meeting was called to order at 8:15 P. M., by President E. H. Cook, in the Casino.

After the usual announcements by the Secretary, Dr. William Pepper, Provost of the University of Pennsylvania, delivered an address upon: *The Relation of Undergraduate to Professional Curricula.* At the close of Mr. Pepper's address, the Adelphian Male Quartette, of Doane College, Nebraska, appeared and favored the audience with a song. After a three-minutes recess, President Charles W. Eliot, of Harvard College, delivered an address upon: *Undesirable and Desirable Uniformity in Schools.* The session closed with a song by the Adelphian Male Quartette.

SECOND DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

MORNING SESSION.—JULY 13.

The meeting was called to order at 9 A. M., in the Methodist Church, by President Cook.

The President announced the following Committees:

On Nominations—Aaron Gove, of Colorado, Chairman; J. H. Phillips, of Alabama; Junius Jordan, of Arkansas; Earl Barnes, of California; Aaron Gove, of Colorado; L. L. Camp, of Connecticut; Edwine B. Kruse, of Delaware; Supt. W. B. Powell, of District of Columbia; Frederick Pasco, of Florida; Euler B. Smith, of Georgia; P. R. Walker, of Illinois; L. H. Jones, of Indiana; C. M. Grumbling, of Iowa; A. R. Taylor, of Kansas; C. H. Dietrich, of Kentucky; Warren Easton, of Louisiana; M. C. Fernald, of Maine; W. E. Sheldon, of Massachusetts; M. A. Newell, of Maryland; Walter S. Perry, of Michigan; D. L. Kiehle, of Minnesota; J. R. Preston, of Mississippi; John P. Buchanan, of Missouri; C. W. Danks, of Montana; C. G. Pearse, of Nebraska; C. C. Rounds, of New Hampshire; E. O. Hovey, of New Jersey; Daniel D. Harkness, of New Mexico; James M. Milne, of New York; T. J. Mitchell, of North

Carolina ; F. W. Cathro, of North Dakota ; E. W. Coy, of Ohio ; E. B. McElroy, of Oregon ; N. C. Schaeffer, of Pennsylvania ; T. B. Stockwell, of Rhode Island ; W. B. Lanier, of South Carolina ; A. T. Free, of South Dakota ; Frank Goodman, of Tennessee ; A. J. Baldwin, of Texas ; C. S. Davis, of Vermont ; F. J. Barnard, of Washington ; W. H. Anderson, of West Virginia ; A. J. Rogers, of Wisconsin ; William Maynard, of Wyoming ; D. R. Boyd, of Oklahoma ; D. R. Augsburg, of Utah.

On Resolutions—John E. Bradley, of Minnesota, Chairman ; B. G. Northrup, of Connecticut ; John S. Crombie, of New York ; N. C. Dougherty, of Illinois ; W. H. Bartholomew, of Kentucky.

On Necrology—C. W. Bardeen, of New York, Chairman ; Geo. P. Brown, of Illinois ; Henry Sabin, of Iowa ; W. E. Sheldon, of Massachusetts ; Mr. Lampson, editor *Southwestern Journal of Education.*

On Honorary Memberships—M. C. Fernald, of Maine ; N. A. Calkins, of New York ; J. H. Baker, of Colorado ; J. M. Greenwood, of Missouri ; N. C. Dougherty, of Illinois.

It was moved and seconded that all resolutions be referred to the Committee on Resolutions, without discussion.

Carried.

General H. B. Carrington (Mass.), U. S. Army, offered the following resolution, which, on motion of Mr. Canfield, of Nebraska, was referred to the Committee on Resolutions for consideration and report :

A RESOLUTION

To Promote Americanism in the Public Schools.

It is evident that there is a revival of an earnest spirit of patriotic Americanism throughout the land. It is the result of various causes. Foremost among these is the work so wisely carried out by patriotic schoolmasters. Nowhere is this new spirit of Americanism more active than in our public schools. To day thirteen millions of our public school pupils are being trained by the State for the duties of citizenship. The State requires for her own protection that these pupils shall be so trained that they may be able to render back to the State loyal, wise, and patriotic service. Concentration and uniform action on the part of educators, with a definite purpose clearly in view, will do much in the future to stimulate our entire public school system with a greater zeal in patriotic education.

In view of the foregoing be it

Resolved, That the National Educational Association appoint a committee of seven, whose duty shall be

(1) To make a careful study of the various methods and plans adopted by educators, both in America and abroad, which have been successful in developing the patriotic spirit ; and

(2) To report a recommendation as to the best methods which educators may employ to bring about a progressive and uniform system of patriotic education in our public schools.

After announcements by the Secretary, Irwin Shepard, President of the State Normal School at Winona, Minn., read a paper on : *Ethical Culture in the Kindergarten.*

This was followed by a paper on : *Ethical Culture in Elementary and Secondary Schools,* by Mrs. Delia Lathrop Williams, of Delaware, O.

James H. Canfield, Chancellor of the University of Nebraska, read a paper on : *Ethical Culture in the College and University.* The discussion of these three papers was opened by Dr. E. E. White, of Cincinnati, O.

A general discussion followed, participated in by Mrs. Louise Pollock, of Washington, D. C.; Prof. Fischer, of Wheaton College, Ill.; Supt. E. E. Ashley, of Troy, and Prof. Zalmon Richards, of Washington.

Commissioner W. T. Harris, Chairman of the Committee on the World's Educational Congresses, read the report of the Committee, which was adopted.

The Convention then adjourned to meet in the Casino at 8:15 P. M.

EVENING SESSION.—JULY 13.

The meeting was called to order in the Casino at 8:15 P.M. by President Cook.

Music by the Adelphian Quartette, of Doane College.

After the usual announcements by the Secretary, President Richard H. Jesse, of the University of Missouri, delivered an address on : *University Education.*

Mrs. Frances W. Leiter, of Ohio, gave an address upon : *Educational Equipoise.*

Music by Adelphian Quartette, of Doane College.

Adjourned.

THIRD DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

MORNING SESSION.—JULY 14.

The meeting was called to order in the Methodist Church at 9:30 A. M., July 14, 1892, by President Cook.

The Committee on Nominations submitted its report as follows :

Your Nominating Committee beg leave to submit the following report :

President—Albert G. Lane, of Illinois.

Secretary—R. W. Stevenson, of Kansas.

Treasurer—J. M. Greenwood, of Missouri.

Vice-Presidents—First Vice-President, E. H. Cook, of New York ; L. E. Wolfe, of Missouri ; G. J. Ramsey, of Louisiana ; J. W. Dickinson, of Massachusetts ; F. A. Fitzpatrick, of Nebraska ; C. P. Rogers, of Iowa ; W. H. Bartholomew, of Kentucky ;

M. C. Fernald, of Maine; E. E. White, of Ohio; T. A. Futrall, of Arkansas; Edward Searing, of Minnesota; N. C. Schaeffer, of Pennsylvania.

Directors—Solomon Palmer, Alabama; Junius Jordan, Arkansas; Earl Barnes, California; David N. Camp, Connecticut; R. H. Beggs, Colorado; A. N. Raub, Delaware; William T. Harris, District of Columbia; Frederic Pasco, Florida; Euler B. Smith, Georgia; Jesse H. Brown, Indiana; W. L. Steele, Illinois; O. J. Laylander, Iowa; J. N. Wilkinson, Kansas; Henry Rhoades, Kentucky; A. A. Trenby, Louisiana; W. J. Corthell, Maine; John E. McCahn, Maryland; W. E. Sheldon, Massachusetts; E. A. Strong, Michigan; Dabney Lipscomb, Mississippi; J. T. Buchanan, Missouri; Irwin Shepard, Minnesota; R. G. Young, Montana; C. P. Carey, Nebraska; C. C. Rounds, New Hampshire; T. M. Marshall, New Mexico; C. W. Bardeen, New York State; Robert Bingham, North Carolina; James McNaughton, North Dakota; N. M. Butler, New Jersey; J. A. Shawhan, Ohio; E. B. McElroy, Oregon; D. J. Waller, Jr., Pennsylvania; T. B. Stockwell, Rhode Island; W. B. Lanier, South Carolina; J. D. Stay, South Dakota; Frank Goodman, Tennessee; H. C. Prichett, Texas; G. P. Beard, Vermont; F. J. Barnard, Washington; Albert Hardy, Wisconsin; W. H. Anderson, West Virginia; William Marquerat, Wyoming; D. R. Boyd, Oklohoma; J. F. Millspaugh, Utah.

AARON GOVE, *Chairman Nominating Committee.*

The report as submitted was unanimously approved.

Mr. Canfield, of Nebraska, moved that the Secretary of the Association be authorized to cast the ballot of the Association for the election of the officers and directors as named in the report of the Committee, which motion was unanimously carried.

In pursuance of the motion of Mr. Canfield, Secretary Stevenson announced that he had cast the unanimous ballot of the Association for the officers and directors as named in the report of the Nominating Committee.

PRESIDENT COOK: The unanimous ballot of the Association having been cast for the officers and directors named in the report of the Committee, I declare that the same have been duly and unanimously elected as the officers and directors of the Association for the ensuing year.

It will be the duty of the incoming Board of Directors to fill any vacancies that may exist, and I again call for the names of any delegates from any of the States and Territories not already represented in the Board of Directors.

MR. CANFIELD, of Nebraska: There has been distributed through the audience this morning a prospectus of the Gleason Home of Rest for Teachers, which has been established near Pasadena, Cal. The trustees of the home very courteously and very kindly, indeed, ask me to present this matter to the Association, and to present it in their name, representing the donor, as a gift to the teachers of the nation. Mrs. Adell Gleason, a physician of the city of Elmira, N. Y., selected for her own home during a portion of the year the tract of land to which reference is made in this little circular, and she built upon it a very attractive home. Afterward finding that she could not occupy it as she desired, it occurred

to her that there could be no better or wiser use made of it than to place it at the disposal of the teachers of the nation as a resting-place for those who were weary. The outline of this plan is given in this prospectus, and I need not enlarge upon it, except to say that since I have reached here I have received a letter from the trustees, stating they had made this slight change in the plans: that any teacher paying the initiation fee of five dollars, and the monthly dues of fifty cents per month for nine months of the teaching year, and remaining a member for five years—which, you will see, places their total contribution at about twenty-five or twenty-seven dollars—will be entitled to sixty days' free entertainment at the home. So that they are able already, by reason of the donation of the original gift, and by reason of some donations that have been made to it since, to maintain this home in this way. They hope to do still more. What they may do hereafter will depend very largely upon the action of the teachers of the country, and the way they indorse this whole movement.

The Secretary of the Trustees hoped to be here to present this matter in person, but that was impossible, as the deeds of transfer came quite late, and the organization was perfected but a little while before the date of this meeting.

I beg leave, therefore, to make this brief presentation, and ask a reference of the whole matter to the Committee on Resolutions, in order that a proper resolution may be drawn covering the subject.

The matter was referred to the Committee on Resolutions for their consideration and report.

Mr. Richards: I desire to say that those members of the Association who went to California three years ago do not need any argument to convince them that it is a good place to go to. I am sure every one who can do so will enjoy the great privileges which are set out in the prospectus of this Gleason Home of Rest at Pasadena.

After announcements by the Secretary, E. O. Vaile, of Chicago, editor of *Intelligence*, read a paper upon: *Teaching Current Events in School.* The discussion was opened by O. F. Presbrey, of Washington, D. C., editor of *Public Opinion.* The discussion was continued by Principal R. H. Beggs, of Denver, Col., and Miss Morris, of New York, and was closed by the author of the paper, Mr. Vaile.

Announcements by the Secretary.

After a short recess, Mr. George E. Hardy, of New York City, presented a paper on: *Literature for Children.* The next paper was read by Mr. Hamilton W. Mabie, editor of the *Christian Union,* on: *Literature for Teachers.* After a rising vote of thanks had been tendered Mr. Mabie by the Association, Supt. Albert G. Lane, of Chicago, read a paper upon: *The Representation of Educational Systems at the World's Exposition.*

President Cook read a letter from Josiah L. Pickard, President of the Association in 1871. On motion of Mr. Marble, the President of the Asso-

ciation was instructed to send the cordial good will and wishes of the Association to Mr. Pickard.

Usual announcements by the Secretary.

Adjourned.

EVENING SESSION.—JULY 14

The meeting was called to order in the Casino at 8:30 P. M., July 14, President Cook in the chair.

The addresses of the evening were by Hon. A. S. Draper, of Albany, N. Y., on: *The Duty of the State in Relation to the Kindergarten*, and by Inspector James L. Hughes, of Toronto, Ont., on: *The Harmony between Control and Spontaneity.*

Adjourned.

FOURTH DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

MORNING SESSION.—JULY 15.

The meeting was called to order by President Cook, in the Methodist Church, Saratoga, at 9:30 A. M., July 15, 1892.

M. C. Fernald, of Maine, Chairman Committee on Honorary Membership, reported as follows:

"MR. PRESIDENT: Your committee desires to present the name of but one man to be the recipient of this honor. The selection, it is believed, will commend itself as appropriate, and as a grateful recognition of the special consideration which he has shown the National Association at the present meeting.

"It is with great pleasure that, in behalf of the committee, I name for honorary membership his Excellency Benjamin Harrison, President of the United States."

The report of the committee was unanimously adopted by a rising vote.

Mr. Bradley, of Minnesota, submitted the report of the Committee on Resolutions.

Mrs. Leiter, of Ohio, moved that the resolution in regard to Physical Culture be amended to read as follows:

"The importance of physical education is fully recognized, and provision for such training heartily recommended."

The amendment was adopted.

The report of the Committee on Resolutions was then unanimously adopted.

On motion, the recommendation of the committee that a rising vote of thanks be tendered President Harrison was unanimously adopted.

Hon. L. E. Wolfe, of Missouri, read a paper upon the subject: *To what Extent can a School System be Improved by Legislation?*

President Cook introduced Supt. D. J. Waller, Jr., of Harrisburg, Pa., who opened the discussion of Mr. Wolfe's paper.

The subject was further discussed by Supt. W. H. Anderson, of Wheeling, W. Va., and Supt. J. R. Preston, of Mississippi.

Supt. L. H. Jones, of Indianapolis, Ind., was to have spoken on the subject: *The School and the Criminal.* Mr. Jones having been unexpectedly called away by a telegram, his paper was read by Mr. Jesse A. Brown, of Indianapolis.

The paper was discussed by Principal H. G. Larimer, of Topeka, Kan., and Supt. A. P. Marble, of Worcester, Mass.

After announcements by the Secretary, President James MacAlister, of the Drexel Institute of Philadelphia, Pa., delivered an address upon: *The Relation of Education to the Economic and Industrial Conditions of the Time.*

President Cook appointed as a committee on Americanism and Patriotism the following: J. B. Upham, of Massachusetts; A. S. Draper, of Ohio; W. E. Sheldon, of Massachusetts; J. R. Preston, of Mississippi; W. R. Garrett, of Tennessee; Supt. Brooks, of Philadelphia, Pa.; and (by request) the President, E. H. Cook, of New York.

Mr. Zalmon Richards, of Washington, submitted the following report of the Committee on Necrology:

The Committee on Necrology would respectfully report that they have received no notice of the death of any other members of this Association than that of Thomas W. Harvey, of Ohio, whose memorial has already been received and printed in the Proceedings of the National Superintendents' Association at Brooklyn.

Adjourned to 8:15 P. M.

EVENING SESSION.—JULY 15.

The meeting was called to order by President Cook at 8:35 P. M., July 15, 1892, in the Methodist Church, Saratoga.

President William De Witt Hyde, of Bowdoin College, Maine, addressed the Association upon: *The Organization of American Education.* The closing address of the convention was given by State Supt. A. B. Poland, of New Jersey, upon: *Scientific Physical Culture.*

The following resolution was read and unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the National Educational Association learns with pleasure that the second volume of the Report on Art and Industry—"American Education in Fine and Industrial Art"—prepared by Col. I. Edwards Clarke, and issued by the United States Bureau of Education, has just been published. This encyclopædic volume relating to industrial and manual training in public schools is a storehouse of valuable informa-

tion concerning those topics, and is a most timely contribution to the movement of the new education.

The completion of this report is awaited with great interest, and it is the judgment of this Association that when complete another edition from the stereotype plates should be ordered by Congress for the use of the educators and libraries of the country.

CLOSING EXERCISES.

President Cook asked Dr. Calkins, of New York, to conduct President-elect Lane, of Chicago, to the platform.

MR. CALKINS: Mr. President-elect—It becomes my pleasant duty to conduct you to the platform where seven years ago to-night I was conducted to receive the honor that is about to be bestowed upon you.

President Cook received President-elect Lane with a few words, to which Mr. Lane briefly responded.

President Lane then called upon Miss Howe, of Flushing, N. Y., to lead the audience in singing the Doxology, after which he declared the Thirty-Second Annual Convention of the National Educational Association adjourned *sine die*.

MINUTES OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y., July 12, 1892.

The Board of Directors of the National Educational Association was called to order in the Grand Army Hall, Saratoga, at 5:40 P. M., July 12, 1892, by President Cook.

Twenty-nine directors responded to the roll call.

The minutes of the last meeting of the directors were read and approved.

C. C. Rounds, Chairman of the Committee on Membership, submitted a partial report.

On motion of Mr. Dougherty, the partial report was referred back to the committee, with instructions to embody the recommendations of the committee in a resolution, in conformity with the by-laws of the Association, and report back to the Board of Directors.

The annual report of J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer of the Association, was received, read, and ordered printed in the proceedings (p. 16).

N. A. Calkins, of New York, Chairman of Board of Trustees, read the trustees' report for the past year, and the same was ordered printed in the proceedings (pp. 17, 18).

On motion of Mr. Leipziger, of New York, the President, Secretary, Treasurer, and the Board of Trustees of the Association were appointed as an auditing committee for the Association.

On motion, the suggestion of the Board of Trustees to establish an Emergency Fund was approved by the Board of Directors.

The following resolution was offered and adopted:

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

Resolved, That the Board of Trustees be hereby authorized to transfer from the surplus funds of 1891–92, to the Emergency Fund, a sum not exceeding $2,500; and that additional transfers may be made to said fund from the surplus receipts of 1892–93; and it is further

Resolved, That the Trustees be and hereby are authorized to appropriate from the Emergency Fund sums duly authorized, not to exceed $2,500, the same to be expended by the Board of Trustees as recommended by the Board of Directors; the said expenditures to be made upon duly approved vouchers, satisfactory to the Board of Trustees.

Mr. Butler, Chairman of a Committee from the National Council, submitted the following extract from the minutes of the National Council, which, on motion, was received and placed on file :

To the National Council of Education :

In the opinion of the conference of Representatives of Colleges and Secondary Schools, called by authority of the Council, certain conferences by departments of instruction of teachers in colleges and secondary schools are desirable. We therefore recommend to the Council that the following ten persons, namely, President Charles W. Eliot, of Harvard University ; Dr. W. T. Harris, Commissioner of Education ; President James B. Angell, of the University of Michigan ; Mr. John Tetlow, Master of the Girls' High School, Boston ; President James M. Taylor, of Vassar College ; Mr. O. D. Robinson, Principal of the Albany, N. Y., High School ; President James H. Baker, of the University of Colorado ; President R. H. Jesse, of the University of Missouri ; James C. MacKenzie, Head Master of the Lawrenceville, N. J., School ; and Prof. Henry C. King, of Oberlin College, be designated an Executive Committee, with full power to call and arrange for such conferences during the academic year 1892-93 ; that the results of the conferences be reported to said Executive Committee for such action as they may deem appropriate ; and that the Executive Committee be requested to report fully concerning their action to the Council.

We recommend further that the Council ask the directors of the National Educational Association to authorize the payment of the necessary expenses of the conference, and that they set apart out of the income and current funds of the present year the sum of $2,500, which sum shall be available so far as may be necessary to carry on the work of the committee, and shall be disbursed by the Trustees of the National Educational Association, on vouchers signed by the Chairman of the Executive Committee herein recommended.

Mr. Butler offered the following resolution, which was adopted :

Resolved, That the directors assent to the recommendation of the Council that a series of investigations into the courses of study in secondary schools be undertaken by specialists under the direction of the committee named for the purpose by the Council and hereby confirmed by this Board, and that the Trustees be authorized to appropriate therefor from the Emergency Fund $2,500, or so much thereof as may be necessary.

Mr. Garrett, of Tennessee, moved that the resolution offered by Dr. Butler be amended to the effect that $1,000 be fixed as the limit of expenditure under the resolution, which motion was lost.

The resolution of Dr. Butler was adopted by a vote of 21 for and 9 against.

A petition signed by the officers and members of the Business Educators' Association for admission as a department in the National Educational Association was read, and the petition granted, and the department designated as the Department of Business Education.

Adjourned to meet in the vestry of the Methodist Church, at 12:30 P. M., July 13, 1892.

R. W. STEVENSON,
Secretary.

ADJOURNED MEETING.

The Board of Directors of the National Educational Association was called to order in the Methodist Church, Saratoga, 12:30 P. M., July 13, 1892, by President Cook.

The roll-call showed 33 directors present.

Mr. C. C. Rounds, Chairman of the Committee on Membership, reported to the Board of Directors as follows:

To the Board of Directors, National Educational Association:

The committee appointed at the meeting of the Association in 1891 to consider the question of such changes as may be deemed necessary to secure the establishment of a permanent membership, and the collection of annual dues from such members, would submit the following report:

They would recommend that two classes of membership be at once established, to be styled active and associate members, of whom only active members shall be entitled to participate in the business of the Association and to hold office.

The active membership of the Association shall consist only of those who are constitutionally eligible to membership. A classification shall, so far as possible, be made of the present membership of the Association, comprising in one class those who are connected with the work of education or with any educational association, and who shall be considered as constituting the present active membership, and the remaining class shall be considered as constituting the present associate membership.

The directors are requested to communicate to the Secretary of the Association the names of those worthy of active membership, and the Secretary shall forward to such persons a statement of the conditions and advantages of such membership, with a request that they become members of the Association, and, on receipt of the annual fee, shall enroll them among the active members.

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

During the month of January (or any other), the Secretary of the Association shall send to each active member a request for payment of the annual fee; and any member who shall neglect for one year the payment of the annual fee shall by such neglect forfeit his membership.

The committee would recommend that the By-Laws of the Association be so amended as to accord with these conditions.

C. C Rounds, *Chairman.*
E. E. White.
Geo. F. Osborne.

Saratoga, N. Y., *July* 12, 1892.

On motion of Mr. Dougherty, seconded by Mr. Butler, the report was referred back to the committee, with instructions to draft a by-law in accordance with its recommendation, and report back to the Board of Directors.

The committee subsequently submitted the following draft of a by-law to the Board of Directors :

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

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

Third, The directors shall communicate to the Secretary of the Association the names of persons worthy of active membership, and the Secretary shall forward to such persons the statement of the conditions and advantages of such membership, with a request that they become members, and, on receipt of the annual fees, shall be enrolled among the active members.

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

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

The report of the committee was received and approved.

Mr. Harris announced the following changes in the Committee on International Congress of Education :

Music—N. Coe Stewart in place of Walter Damrosch, declined.
Normal Department—E. O. Lyte in place of J. W. Cook, declined.
Elementary Department—James L. Hughes in place of L. F. Soldan, declined.
Business Education—Robert C. Spencer.
Experimental Psychology—G. Stanley Hall.
Rational Psychology—J. G. Schurman.
Technical Education—Francis A. Walker.

On motion, the nominations of Dr. Harris were confirmed.

On motion of Mr. Greenwood, the following resolution was adopted:

Resolved, That the retiring President, under the direction of the Board of Trustees, be authorized to edit, curtail, and revise the volume of proceedings of the Association for 1892, and that the sum of five hundred dollars ($500) be appropriated for the incidental expenses connected with the editing and issuing of the same.

On motion, it was unanimously agreed that all reference in the proceedings of the Board of Directors, of July 12, 1892, as to what shall constitute a quorum should be expunged.

Mr. Stockwell, of Rhode Island, moved that not less than twenty members of the Board of Directors shall be necessary to constitute a quorum of the Board for business, which motion was lost.

The motion of Mr. Greenwood, that a committee of five be appointed

to report at the next regular meeting on the method of obtaining membership in the Board of Directors, was lost.

The motion of Mr. Garrett, that a quorum of this body shall consist of those present at a regularly called meeting was unanimously adopted.

Adjourned, subject to call of the Chairman.

R. W. STEVENSON,
Secretary.

NEW BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

The Board of Directors for 1892–93 were called to order in the Grand Army Hall, Saratoga, N. Y., at 4:30 P. M., July 14, 1892, by President Lane.

Thirty-six directors responded to the roll-call.

On motion of Mr. Cook, the President of the Association was authorized to fill vacancies in the Board from the States and Territories not represented by suitable persons at any time hereafter.

On motion of Mr. Butler, the President, 1st Vice-President, Secretary, Treasurer, and Chairman of the Board of Trustees were constituted the Executive Committee of the Association for the ensuing year.

Mr. Cook read the following from Milwaukee, Wis., inviting the Association to hold its next convention in that city:

MILWAUKEE, WIS., July 12, 1892.

Chairman Executive Committee, N. E. A. Convention:

Milwaukee School Board passed unanimous resolutions inviting National Educational Association Convention here for ninety-three.

HENRY E. LEGLER, *Secretary School Board.*

MILWAUKEE, WIS., July, 1892.

Chairman Executive Committee, N. E. A. Convention:

Mayor and Common Council, by unanimous resolution passed this afternoon, extend cordial invitation to National Educational Convention for ninety-three. Reception will be hearty.

GEO. R. MAHONEY,
City Clerk.

MILWAUKEE, July 11, 1892.

President Cook, Board of Directors, N. E. A., Saratoga, N. Y.

DEAR SIR: At the last meeting of the Milwaukee School Board the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the Milwaukee School Board extends a cordial invitation to the National Educational Association to hold its annual convention in 1893 in this city.

Yours truly,

HENRY E. LEGLER,
Secretary School Board.

The same were received and ordered inserted in the minutes for consideration of the Executive Committee.

Mr. Malone presented an invitation from Salt Lake City, Utah, inviting the Association to meet in that city, as follows :

SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH.

Governor, mayor, presidents Board of Education, Chamber of Commerce, Stock Exchange, and Real Estate Exchange authorize me to extend invitation to National Educational Association to meet here next year ; if no meeting '93, then come in '94. Tabernacle and other halls tendered ; ample hotel and other accommodations guaranteed ; usual railroad rates promised ; cheap excursions to National Park, coast, etc. ; assured side trips through Utah, and other entertainments, concerts, etc., promised.

J. F. MILLSPAUGH.

The same was received and ordered inserted in the minutes, for consideration by the Executive Committee.

Mr. Barnard presented an earnest invitation from Seattle to hold the next meeting of the Association at that place.

On motion of Mr. Sheldon, the renewed invitation from Seattle, as well as all other invitations (except Saratoga) presented to the Association at Toronto, be reconsidered by the Board and the Executive Committee in fixing the place of meeting in 1893 and 1894.

The Chair appointed a committee to fill certain existing vacancies in the National Council. The committee reported back the following recommendation :

Mr. Baldwin, of Texas ; Mr. Soldan, of Missouri ; Mr. Calkins, of New York ; Mr. Canfield, of Nebraska ; and Mr. R. G. Boone, of Indiana.

The recommendation of the committee was unanimously approved, and the persons named duly elected as members of the National Council.

On motion of Mr. Butler, the Commissioner of Education of the United States, Dr. Harris, was appointed a committee, with power to associate with himself two other members of the Association, for the purpose of proposing a plan by which the round-table conferences may be organized and made a part of the work of the National Educational Association.

On motion of Mr. Sheldon, Zalmon Richards, of Washington, D. C., was reëlected one of the Board of Trustees of the National Educational Association, by acclamation.

Mr. Gove offered the following resolution :

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed by the Chair, with instructions to report to this Board recommendations for reorganizing the administration of the business affairs of the National Educational Association, in order to permit more careful and deliberate action, and render the decisions to such questions as require prompt consideration during the year legally operative.

The resolution was adopted.

In pursuance of the last resolution, the Chair appointed as such com-

mittee Mr. Gove, Mr. Shepard, Mr. Canfield, Mr. Greenwood, and Mr. Calkins.

Mr. Greenwood: I move that the Board of Trustees be authorized to appoint a person, at a salary of fifteen hundred dollars a year, to edit the proceedings and transact other Association business under the direction of the Executive Committee.

Mr. Wolfe moved to amend by striking out the words fifteen hundred and inserting in place thereof three thousand.

After a long discussion, on motion of Mr. Coy, the motion was laid upon the table by a vote of twenty-five to fifteen.

On motion of Mr. Butler, the Board of Trustees were authorized to expend a sum not to exceed fifteen hundred dollars for the purpose of editing and publishing the annual minutes, and such other purposes as the Executive Committee may determine; the work to be performed under the direction of the President of the Association.

On motion of Mr. Gove, all matters pertaining to the administration of the affairs of the Association, not already provided for by specific resolutions, were referred to the Executive Committee with full power to act.

Adjourned.

R. W. Stevenson,
Secretary.

ADDRESSES,

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

OF THE

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

GENERAL SESSIONS OF THE ASSOCIATION.

ADDRESSES OF WELCOME TO PRESIDENT HARRISON.

DR. E. H. COOK, PRESIDENT OF THE ASSOCIATION.

President Harrison: In the sea of upturned faces before you, you behold the representatives of more than three hundred thousand men and women whose hearts and minds are earnestly and thoroughly engaged in carrying on a great warfare against ignorance.

They are the men and the women who are to mold the character and prepare the citizens of our future Republic. What shall be the character and citizenship of that Republic a quarter of a century hence will depend chiefly upon the work they are doing to-day in the country, the hamlet, the village, the town, and the city.

It will be an inspiration to those men and women for me to repeat the words which were so deeply impressed upon my own mind a few days since in Washington, when you said that the hope of the nation, and, in fact, the hope of everything in the future of our great country, depended upon the proper education of its youth.

It gives me pleasure, sir, to welcome you in behalf of the National Educational Association, and to present to you and to this audience the Hon. A. S. Draper, ex-State Superintendent of Public Instruction of New York, whom I have invited to speak more fully of our high appreciation of this recognition of the work of education by the Chief Magistrate of the nation.

HON. A. S. DRAPER, ALBANY, N. Y.

President Harrison: The most unmistakable proof, the highest evidence, of sincere and cordial welcome to the meeting of the National Educational Association will not be found in any poor words which I may utter, but rather in the radiance of this scene, in this charming place, upon this glorious July morning. The happy faces, the cheery words of this great throng, announce their welcome, and assure you of their respect more earnestly and eloquently than can be expressed in words.

We are here from every part of our great country. New England and the Middle States, the fair and sunny South, the old Northwest, the newer States beyond the Mississippi, even those beyond the Rockies, are

all represented here. We have some friends also from the Queen's dominions beyond the St. Lawrence, who adjure me that I shall not exclude them from the word of cheer and respect to the Chief Magistrate of the United States.

There is no limit upon the membership of this Association, save one. The only condition of eligibility is that members shall be connected with the work of education. The colleges and universities, the secondary schools, the normal schools, the great public elementary school system of the country, the private schools, the publishers of educational books and periodicals, are all largely represented here.

We differ about politics and religion and all other matters of preference and opinion. Indeed, we never fail to embrace the slightest opportunity for differing in opinion. But upon two points we are thoroughly and entirely united. We believe that the safety of American citizenship, the security of the great Republic, lies in putting a sound elementary education within easy reach of every home in the land, and in making more liberal learning accessible to all who may acquire the taste and have the ambition to lay hold upon it. And we are loyal and patriotic citizens. We know the history, we recall the cost, and therefore we appreciate the value, of our distinguishing American institutions. And so we uncover in the presence of the flag, and so we look upon the Chief Magistracy of the Republic with respectful veneration.

This is not quite all we would say. I am not fully and faithfully representing the sentiments of the National Educational Association if I say no more. Our greeting is not purely perfunctory, and it is not alone official. We are likely to separate on the tariff, but not in our esteem for the head of an American home who always governs his children but is always governed by his grandchildren, for the lawyer at Indianapolis, for the gallant soldier of the Union army, for the senator from Indiana, for the man who has exemplified the best qualities of American citizenship in the most exalted political and official station in the world.

We know the occasion of your journey to the mountains. Consider us not obtrusive if we say that the prayer of this great Association, as of all good citizens, is that your mission of love may be abundantly successful, and that the woods and waters and the bracing air of the Adirondacks may give health to your home and bring joy to your heart.

We count ourselves fortunate that this journey has by chance given us the benefit of your presence. Your sentiments, and your felicitous powers of expression, have frequently commanded the approval of all citizens, and promoted the honor of the American name around the world. You have frequently taken occasion to show your interest in the good cause of education, and to utter expressions which have carried counsel and cheer to all enlisted in its advancement. We will wait upon your words, and then we shall all be glad to pass along and shake your hand and say a

word of cheer. This over, we will thank you for the courtesy which prompted you to stop at our meeting, and then say God speed on your journey, in the hope that we have cast no additional burden upon you, but that new courage, added wisdom, and greater strength for wisely meeting the responsibilities of your great station may flow from your call upon the National Educational Association.

ADDRESS BY PRESIDENT HARRISON.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: If it is "more blessed to give than to receive," this is a blessed audience; for I do not know any class of our people who give so largely in excess of their receipts as the instructors of the young, and especially the female teachers.

It gives me great pleasure to stand for a few moments in your presence, and to receive this cordial expression of your respect and interest. It is quite as appropriate, I think, that the President of the United States should review the teachers of the land as that he should review its army or its militia. For, after all, the strength and defense of our institutions, not only in peace but in war, is to be found in the young of the land, who have received from the lips of patriotic teachers the story of sacrifice which our fathers recorded to establish our civil institutions, and which their sons have repeated on hundreds of battle-fields. The organized army of the United States, if we include the militia of the States, is insignificant when put in contrast with the armies of the other great powers of the world. Our strength is not in these: it is in that great reserve to be found in the instructed young of our land, who come to its defense in a time of peril. It was not of the brawlers, it was not of the frequenters of the tavern, of which our army in the civil war was made, or of which our army must be made if any great emergency of war again confronts us. I recall a battle scene. The line was advancing against an intrenched enemy; from behind strong parapets eight double-shotted guns belched their missiles of death into the advancing line; there was a pause that threatened instant retreat, when a stripling soldier, a mother's boy, stepped to the front with cap in air, cheered the line on to victory. The instinct of patriotism, of moral courage, was triumphant over mere physical daring in that hour, and it always will be. It is not simply to give that power that comes from education, but to give it safe direction, that schools are established. He is not a benefactor of his race who develops un- or misdirected power. Therefore it is we must insist that in all our schools the morality of the Ten Commandments shall be instilled; that lessons of due subordination to authority shall be taught. In the family and in the school are the beginnings of this fundamental element of good citizenship—obedience to the law; a respectful deference to

public authority; a self-sacrificing purpose to stand by established and orderly administration in government. I rejoice in nothing more than in this movement, recently so prominently developed, of placing the starry banner above every schoolhouse. I have been charged with too sentimental an appreciation of the flag. I will not enter upon any defense. God pity the American citizen who does not love it; who does not see in it something more than bunting and color; who does not see in it the story of our great free institutions, and the hope of the home as well as of the nation. And I think, notwithstanding perhaps a little too much tendency to rote in our public schools, that it is still true that our teachers, and especially the women, are not without sentiment.

I am not here to instruct this convention of instructors. As I have just intimated, it has seemed to me that we are taking on in education some of the developments which characterized the mechanic arts. No workman produces a finished product. He gives it a little touch and passes it on to somebody else. I sometimes regretfully recall the days when the teacher left his strong impress upon the pupil by reason of long years of personal intercourse and instruction—universities where the professor knew the members of his class, and could detect the fraud when a dummy was substituted. Now we have the little one for a few months in the kindergarten, then pass him on to the primary; and the graded system catches him, much as a moving belt in a machine-shop, and carries him on, until he is dumped from one of these great universities—a "finished product." Perhaps the work is so large, and the demand for economy so great, that this system is inevitable. Perhaps it throws the pupil somewhat more upon himself, and out of this there may come some advantage. But without discussing the relative merits of the old way and the new, let us thank God that this great army of instructors, reinforced by the great body of our citizens, is marching on to reach that great result, when there shall not be found an adult citizen of the United States who is not possessed of an elementary education. There is a just mean, I think, between a system of intellectual competition which destroys the body and a system of physical training that eliminates the mind. Perhaps the stress is applied too early upon our little ones. I throw out this word of caution to our good lady friends here who have them in charge. Some years ago I was passing down a street in Indianapolis from my residence to my office, and on the way there was situated one of our public schools. The children were just gathering in the morning. As I came near the corner, two sweet little girls, evidently chums, approached from different directions, and meeting at the crossing soon had their heads close together, but not so close but that I caught the conversation. One said to the other: "Oh, I had such an awful dream last night!" Her sympathizing little fellow put her head still closer and said: "What was it?" "Oh," said the trembling little one, "I dreamed I did not

pass!" It is safer to allow such little ones to dream, as in my careless country boyhood I was wont to, about bears.

But I have already, in this desultory way, talked too long. [Cries of "Go on, go on."]

That is very kind. I see that motto everywhere about me. It is inscribed over every door in that public institution where I live. There are some proverbs or sayings that we use without any adequate appreciation of what they mean. I never knew what the old story of the "last straw" and the "camel's back" meant until I was called to exercise the office of President, and you will never know until you have that experience.

It gives me great pleasure to express a sincere personal interest, and to commend with whatever official sanction I can give to it, the great work in which you are engaged. I sympathize with it not only because I see in it the safety of our country, but what is more, or perhaps what is the same thing, the safety of society. I sympathize with it and appreciate it because I love children. If you did not understand me to present a plea of guilty to the suggestion of Colonel Draper, I desire to do so now.

I hope all of you may return to your homes and work with a new sense of, and interest in, and consecration to it. There is none other like it. It has the power of multiplication; it has an element of life in it that no other work has; it is eternal. It has that communicating touch of intelligence, morality, and patriotism which runs from one to another, and which goes, in the elements of character which come to it, to the skies. If not crowns of wealth, if not the luxury and ease of great fortunes are yours, yours will be a more enduring crown, if it can be said of you that in every touch upon the life of the young you have lifted up. That your meeting here in this delightful place may be accompanied by every incident of pleasure and profit, and that you may find in it a fresh inspiration and dedication to your work, is the wish I leave with you.

NOTE.—At a subsequent meeting of the Association, President Harrison was unanimously elected an honorary member of the Association, and in reply to an official notification by the President and Secretary, the following was received.

EXECUTIVE MANSION, WASHINGTON, *July* 18, 1892.

E. H. Cook, Esq.

MY DEAR SIR: The President directs me to acknowledge the receipt of your favor of the 15th instant, informing him of his election as an honorary member of the National Educational Association. Will you please accept for yourself, and convey to your associates, his sincere appreciation of this expression of respect and goodwill?

Very truly yours,

E. W. HALFORD,
Private Secretary.

ADDRESSES OF WELCOME.

JUDGE J. W. HOUGHTON, OF SARATOGA SPRINGS.

Mr. President, and Ladies and Gentlemen of the National Educational Association: It is no ordinary welcome which Saratoga desires to extend to you. And yet it is not unusual for Saratoga to welcome conventions. In her midst have been discussed, year after year, problems of science, philosophy, law, jurisprudence, religion, church, state, economics, mechanics, finance, manufacture, trade.

But to you at this time the greatest welcome is given, not alone on account of your vast numbers, but because of the great and grand profession which you represent. With you, the educators of our land, rest the future destinies of our lives, our property, our government. The law can but punish crime; you can instill abhorrence of crime, and thereby prevent it. The problems of immigration and socialism, of capital and labor, of race, threaten our institutions. It is with you to so educate the children of the land, that all shall become Americans, that capital and labor shall be just and intelligent to one another, and that with equal intelligence race shall be forgotten. It is only by you, and through you, that our children shall enjoy the heritage our forefathers bequeathed to us. It is said of justice that it is cheap at any price. How much more, then, is education cheap at any price? And it is one of the evidences of our appreciation of this truth, that, by law, the poor man may say to the rich man, "Give me of your substance to educate my child, not meagrely, but in the languages, the arts, the sciences, that he, too, may become learned and powerful and rich." Your task is an infinite one.

To you is delegated the duty of so training our children, that they shall have exactness and quickness of mind, trained to receive impressions and draw correct conclusions in after life, vigor of body, honesty of heart, correctness of conduct, beauty of thought, beauty of expression, beauty of action, and beauty of manners.

The necessities of the system are such, that you have to contend with the bright and the dull, the active and the sluggish, the quick and the slow, the careful and the careless, side by side.

Your manner, your speech, your conduct, may be a child's inspiration. It is expected of you that you draw from the universe of nature, of letters, of science, of art. And yet some say it is easy to teach!

You will permit me to compliment and congratulate you upon being engaged in the noblest of professions. Without your training and influence, stupidity and perjury would ruin the lawyer's cause, ignorance would render the doctor's remedies useless, the editorial would be mean-

ingless, and the preacher's words would fall upon stony and barren ground. It is because of your noble profession, your great work, that Saratoga feels herself honored by your presence. You are met together to discuss how your profession can be improved, and how your work can be better done.

I want to congratulate you upon remedying one feature of our public school system by the establishment of manual and industrial departments. It is one of the first principles of education, that nothing is to be obtained without labor ; and one of the chief truths of social economy, that manual labor is honorable.

A *little* learning is a dangerous thing ; and just enough learning to make a boy think he is better than his father, who is an honest carpenter or blacksmith or mason or farmer, is a *fatal* thing. It were better to have stopped short with him, before he arrived to that high degree.

When it is appreciated that honest toil is just as honorable as any profession, and that success in one is just as hard as success in the other, both the toilers and the professions will be improved.

Upon learning that your association had decided to honor us with this meeting, the citizens of Saratoga, with unparalleled enterprise, put their hands in their pockets and raised eighty thousand dollars to build, for your occupancy, the largest and most substantial permanent convention hall in the Empire State. Much to our regret, the vastness of the undertaking and the unfavorableness of the weather have made it impossible to complete it. The massive walls stand, however, as an evidence of our good faith, and other arrangements have been made which we trust you will find comfortable. If, however, you will honor us with another visit, we will have for you a safe, comfortable, and complete convention hall, which will seat you five thousand strong, and every person shall have a seat as good as his neighbor. Again let me welcome you to our beautiful village, to its delightful drives, to its beautiful parks, to its magnificent hotels, to its unparalleled springs ; and let me express the hope, that, when you depart, it will be with as much satisfaction as we feel at being honored with your presence.

HON. J. F. CROOKER, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, NEW YORK.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen, Members of the National Educational Association : In the name of the Empire State, so largely represented in your distinguished body, and in behalf of the citizens of Saratoga, I bid you a hearty welcome. This, I believe, is the fourth time that Saratoga has been honored by your presence, and its welcome is as earnest and profound as when it was first tendered you some ten years ago. This beautiful village has long been the chosen spot for conventions of all

kinds. National associations, differing widely in character and purpose, have selected it above all other summer resorts for their annual meetings. Honored as the citizens of Saratoga deem themselves to be by such preference, the honor is vastly greater when conferred by an association whose grand purpose is "to elevate the character and to advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States." It is an honor, indeed, beside which all others pale.

The citizens of Saratoga invite you to try again the efficacy of their health-giving waters, and the great body of professional brotherhood of New York State personally invite you to drink freely from both the mental and mineral springs that flow here so copiously for the benefit of mankind. Unlike the Pierian spring, it is unnecessary for you to drink deep at the bubbling fountains, which gush from Nature's bosom in almost every part of this beautiful village, to convince you of their efficacy and exhilarating properties. Indeed, these celebrated water fountains are eloquent teachers of moderation. The waters of these springs have long been celebrated for their peculiar properties even before the adventurous white man had tasted them. The Indians were well acquainted with their medicinal properties long before they had formed the acquaintance of the "fire water" of the early settlers.

The original patrons of these springs were very numerous and happy in this vicinity at one time, but in late years the "war whoop" is only heard here at political conventions, where instead of tying a prisoner to a stake, they make him a candidate for office or a reluctant orator of the day, which is nearly as bad.

The pristine dwellers in Saratoga could not offer their stray visitors such superb hotel accommodations as we have to-day. They were entirely unacquainted with the Saratoga of the present time, with the most magnificent hotels in the world. It is very doubtful whether they ever knew the meaning of such common and enigmatical expressions as "the favorite and the field." They certainly never heard of Worth toilettes, Mrs. Grundy, or a four-in-hand, and would have stared in wonderment had you mentioned polo, lawn tennis, or a garden party to them. The present good citizens of Saratoga, then, know a thing or two that their aboriginal predecessors never dreamed of in their primeval homes. The Saratogians of to-day have cultivated above all else the art of generous, graceful hospitality, and cheery welcome to friends and guests. The evidence of their hospitality is never more bountifully shown than when educational assemblies are held here.

The citizens of Saratoga invite you to visit the many beautiful spots that Nature and art have together provided them, and which have received fresh adornment and attraction since your last visit seven years ago. They ask you to renew the pleasant associations of former visits, and

they cheerfully pledge themselves to do all in their power to make this meeting equally enjoyable to you and themselves.

The Empire State is proud of its high position in the sisterhood of States, of its vast industries, extensive commerce, large manufacturing interests, great cities, numerous thriving villages and hamlets, admirable system of canals and railroads, its rapidly increasing population and constant prosperity. It is still prouder of the grand and successful efforts it has made in the past and is still making in the cause of popular education. In that cause it has been liberal to a lavish degree, and its liberality in that direction is an act it has never had any reason to regret. In education, as in commerce and business enterprises of all kinds, New York has been true to its State motto and excelled by few if any of its sisterhood.

It is, therefore, with unstinted cordiality that I, in behalf of the New York State members of this Association, welcome the other members within our borders. And in the name of the public I congratulate this Association for having performed such valuable services for education during the thirty-five years of its existence. It has labored earnestly and effectively to advance the standards of American schools, and as one of the prominent factors in the educational machinery of our country it has been potent in placing them in the front ranks of the educational progress of the world.

I consider it an honor, higher than words can express, to welcome such a distinguished body, so thoroughly representative of our great country. Here the East greets the West, the North the South, in the name and under the broad banner of education.

The Pacific slope sends representatives to tell us of the advancement of school interests on the golden shores of the Far West. The great prairie States, bustling, progressive commonwealths, extending from the mighty Ohio to our northern frontier, are well represented here to-day by earnest, active workers in the field of education. Up from the sunny South come zealous laborers in the same cause, bringing good tidings of educational progress in the land of fruits and flowers. We have visitors also from the vast Dominion beyond the St. Lawrence and the great lakes, all deeply interested in the proceedings of this convention.

We were their guests last year at Toronto, and cherish grateful remembrances of their hospitality and kindness, striking evidences of international brotherhood, and of the bonds of friendship which unite educational workers the world over.

In looking over the list of members I am astonished by the wide extent of territory, even outside of our own country, that is represented in this body. Every part of the Dominion of Canada where a schoolhouse stands, from Nova Scotia to the Northwest Territory, is represented on your list of members. Even far-off Brazil has a name enrolled, and England and

France have the same honor. I trust that at no distant day your membership list will become of thoroughly cosmopolitan character, in consonance with the spirit of your Association.

Thus the sacred cause to which you are devoted will grow and prosper until it embraces the entire world in its good work, bringing all mankind within its healthful, refining influences, and leading us to a nearer approach of the real millennium. The wider the sphere of activity of such an association, the larger the beautiful results ought to be, and the more rapid the progress of education in any direction. The educational field is limitless in its possibilities, and a convention of this kind may be likened to a band of explorers, exchanging ideas and experiences, and seeking out new routes and new realms to conquer. Such gatherings and interchange of ideas cannot fail to bring forth rich results. Such conventions are schools of incalculable value to us all, as they furnish opportunities to learn new truths, new methods, acquire new ideas, and to broaden and deepen our views of our noble profession and work. They serve as powerful incentives to still greater zeal and more earnest exertion in our chosen field, and they lead to the solution of many perplexing problems of educational moment, over which some of us may have labored long without gaining the desired end. In the arena of discussion, where each question before the meeting is fully and exhaustively treated, the beneficial character of such gatherings is demonstrated to the best advantage.

Again I bid you welcome in the name of the State and its great teaching staff, and in behalf of the inhabitants of this hospitable village, and I trust that your stay will be replete with enjoyment, and that you may bear home with you pleasurable remembrance and great profit from your fourth visit to Saratoga.

MELVIL DEWEY, SECRETARY BOARD OF REGENTS, UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK, ALBANY.

Ladies and Gentlemen: I have the pleasure of giving you a welcome that you can have in no other State. It is a welcome from a State university without a student, without a professor, without a campus, without alumni; and yet we believe in New York that this peculiar university has a great work to do, and that other States will hereafter find that the work can be done better in this way than in any other. This is not a new thing; as most of you know, it is one of the oldest institutions in the State, and dates back to the time of the creative genius of Alexander Hamilton, when his mind was full of the Federal Constitution, and the idea that a great nation could be made by a union of the sovereign States. So we have in New York a university made of a confederation of our colleges, universities, and secondary schools. We have now in the university 440 institutions—252 high schools, 103 endowed academies, while the universities, colleges, law, medical, and theological schools,

through the professional technical degrees conferred, amount to 85. We are proud of what New York has done in the past, and many of us feel more than the pride of the past the responsibilities of the present. Nature seems to have designed New Yorkers for a serious stewardship. For, if you think a moment, no other State has had done so much for it by nature. With the greatest seaport of the Western world at the one end; Ontario and Erie, the inland seas, on the other; with Champlain, Lake George, and twenty lakes (any one of which would be famous except for its fellows), Niagara, and the Thousand Islands; with the great St. Lawrence, the Hudson, and her agricultural and mineral resources, New York has been singularly favored. Then, by its location, it stands at the cross-roads of the nation; the great lines of travel between the North and South, the East and West, all intersect at our capital. And then our great railroads, running side by side with the Erie Canal, represent the highest attainments in railroad and canal engineering. All the signs of material prosperity—wealth, population—are ours. "But to whom much has been given, much will be required." And if in the past the teachers of New York can look back with pride to what has been done, all the more, many of us feel, is our responsibility greater to-day; and all the more we feel that the generation of New Yorkers who cannot hold their place very near the front ought to be ashamed of themselves in their failure of duty to the land that has given them birth, and has given them all these facilities for their work. It is not strange that, long before Hendrick Hudson pushed his way along the Palisades in the wonderfully beautiful valley of the Hudson, this magnificent land was known to the dusky warriors of the Six Nations, from Buffalo to New Orleans. And so it is that we are trying to work out the problem cast upon us in our department. Our latest contribution was only the other day in the three new laws. We are glad to assure others with our experience. We are glad to teach if we have anything to give; and we are more eager, more glad to learn, and more anxious to have from you the results of your experiment, that we may build up our schools.

I will mention as our latest contribution that which is now one of the established laws, and which rids the law of and protects the public against legal technicalities such as cost the city of New York the most magnificent library ever planned. That law proposes to give, and does give, full authority to any man or woman to leave his property in any way he may choose for the benefit of the public, and so it cannot be taken away from the public by a technicality. Secondly, Under the library law, established fifty-three years ago, there is given $55,000 for the establishment of a system of school libraries, under such restrictions as experience has shown to be wise. Third, The most important of the new university laws, which replaces seventy laws that have grown up in the last century, and puts within the compass of a dozen pages a new law, gives all the institu-

tions of higher education in the State a recognition for the first time. It recognizes for the first time that the great institutions of education, on which we have spent so much money, and to which so many of our best and noblest lives have been given, are entitled to protection from the State against charlatanry and quackery, just as much as insurance and banking are entitled to protection from the State. This new law makes it, for the first time, a State's prison offense for any man or association or corporation to use improperly the name, or do business under the name, of a university or college, or to sell or traffic in degrees or credentials of educational institutions, feloniously and with intent to deceive the public, and further provides that any man who shall represent that he holds these credentials shall be held guilty of a misdemeanor and be punishable by imprisonment.

Therefore, as we look over our past, we are satisfied that New York need not be ashamed. As we look at our present, we are inspired, because we see so much earnest endeavor for the highest and best things. As we look over our future, we see that it is full of hope. And with the welcome that I give you to-day, I leave to you the great work before American educators, and assure you, each man and woman, that New York will never do less than her full share in aid of human progress.

SUPT. E. N. JONES, CHAIRMAN LOCAL EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.

The work of the Local Executive Committee in the direction of this meeting is ceased. I now turn over the control of this Convention to Dr. E. H. Cook, President of the Association.

RESPONSES.

E. H. COOK, PRESIDENT OF THE ASSOCIATION.

It gives me great pleasure, in behalf of the representatives of the three hundred and seventy-five thousand teachers of the United States, who are molding the characters of the future citizens of the Republic, to respond to these hearty and cordial words of welcome. We appreciate the great efforts made by your various committees in preparing for this grand convention. We trust that our stay here may be one of mutual benefit and inspiration in the great work of education. Again accept our thanks for your welcome and your preparations. I now take great pleasure in introducing to you the Hon. W. R. Garrett, First Vice-President of the Association.

W. R. GARRETT, FIRST VICE-PRESIDENT.

If this Association were disposed to entertain any doubt of the sincerity of the words of welcome which have just been spoken to us by representatives of the educators and citizens of Saratoga Springs and of the State of New York, that doubt would be removed when we reflect that their welcome is offered to us to-day for the fourth time, and that, in the very act of welcoming us, they have used the occasion to extend to us an additional invitation ; making the sixth invitation they have given us to meet at this beautiful resort.

Neither does our cordial appreciation of their hospitality admit of doubt ; for we have accepted their invitation four times, and have met at Saratoga oftener than at any other place. In the future, as duty directs our steps from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and back again from the Pacific to the Atlantic, gathering together our educational family from all portions of our ocean-bounded country, as we pass on our annual journey, we shall always look wistfully toward the great resort of health and pleasure. And where can we find a place at which our meetings will be more profitable and delightful ? It brings us in contact with the educators of the Empire State, whose educational institutions are an example and an inspiration.

The health-giving waters, the invigorating atmosphere, the complete accommodations, and the cordial hospitality of Saratoga afford all that we could desire. "The largest and most substantial convention hall in the Empire State," which will soon be completed, and which our friends assure us was built especially for us, is a standing invitation.

But, beyond and above all such considerations, the greatest educational association in the world deserves that its teachers should have rest and relaxation at the greatest watering-place in the world.

J. M. GREENWOOD, TREASURER OF THE ASSOCIATION.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen : This is a period of readjustment in educational work in this country. The universities and colleges are readjusting and shaping their courses of study. The high schools are endeavoring to fit the colleges and adjust themselves to the schools below. The graded schools, including the primary, the intermediate, and the grammar, are revising, readjusting, and carefully examining their courses of study. Not only this, but in many of the States of our glorious Union more than a thousand men and women are considering at this time the greatest of all educational problems of our country—how to benefit and uplift our country schools. So that however we view the great educational movement, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from the Gulf to the Great Lakes on the north, we find the most intense personal, individual

activity. Not only are we readjusting in the machinery of our school work, but we are beginning to consider the question as to whether our little boys and girls are not capable of doing something on their own account; whether there is not an inherent energy in them that we have not taken into consideration in very much of our educational work. I predict that the time is not far distant when we will commence making a map of each child, and study the strong points and the weak points in each character, rather than shoot at a bunch and then afterward try to get our baggage off the field. Another suggestion in the half minute that is left me. I trust the time will soon come, when in the history of the National Educational Association it will be one of the duties of the President to give us an annual review of the great educational work of our country. But, ladies and gentlemen, I did not come here to speak, I came here to collect.

R. W. STEVENSON, SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATION.

I believe it a proper thing for me to respond to your words of cordial and sincere welcome, in behalf of the people of the Great West. While the Association is composed of no one section, and recognizes no East, no West, no North, no South, but the whole United States, the Territories, and Canada, yet we of the West believe we are second to no other section in our appreciation of, and in our gratitude for, your words of warm welcome, and the accommodations you have provided for the entertainment and comfort of all whose good fortune it may be to attend this meeting of the Association. In times past, so highly have the educators and teachers west of the Great Father of Waters esteemed the professional value of the meetings of the National Educational Association, they have, in proportion to the population, attended them wherever held, in the largest numbers.

It was our earnest desire that this meeting should be held in the Northwest, that we should have the pleasant duty of making the speeches of welcome, and you the responses; but we were fairly beaten, and gracefully accepted the situation. To show you that we hold no ill-will, we have come to you in the East in larger numbers than ever. There are objects of interest and comforts in this beautiful city which we might not have been able to furnish, and yet we believe that we could have provided you with many objects of equal interest and value which you cannot furnish us.

In Yellowstone Park, for instance, there is a piece of ground called the "Devil's Half Acre." Some of you Eastern people would have had an excellent opportunity of looking once more on your old homestead! It might have been possible for us to extend the area of this half-acre to ten, that standing room might be provided for his Majesty's numerous children of the East. The air in our country is so pure, so invigorating, and so exhilarating, that artificial stimulants, provided in your country by saloons,

are unnecessary. This good air is what makes prohibition possible in our country—God's country. We have also pyramids and Eiffel towers as places for an outlook thousands of feet higher than those of Egypt and France, New England and New York. Our country is so much healthier than yours that we risk much physically in coming here, and our morals are so much better that they are in danger of corruption ; but courage and power to resist temptation are among the prominent characteristics of the Western people. The fame of the remarkable medicinal properties of the mineral waters so abundant in your city has reached us, and we are persuaded that these waters, freely taken, will in some degree produce effects similar to our own pure air.

Besides, we have heard that these wonderful waters are both meat and drink, and for this reason the hotel-keepers urge their guests to visit the springs and partake freely just before meals. But I sincerely thank you, gentlemen, for the words of hearty welcome you have spoken, and you, the members of the Local Committee, for what you have done to make our stay in this beautiful city pleasant and profitable.

N. A. CALKINS, CHAIRMAN BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

Mr. President, Fellow Teachers and Educational Workers of the United States : I am glad to greet you here on this occasion. It is appropriate to recall a few of the important events in the history of this Association, which are identified with the place in which we are assembling to-day.

In 1882 this Association came to Saratoga for the first time, with an indebtedness of nearly six hundred dollars due to its officers for money advanced to pay the expenses of previous years.

In 1883 the Association returned here with an indebtedness of nearly seven hundred dollars ; but it left with all its debts paid, and a balance of five dollars in the treasury. The proceeds of the large meeting of teachers that gathered at Madison, Wis., in 1884, left a balance of over three thousand dollars in the treasury, after all the expenses were paid.

A third meeting of this Association was held at Saratoga in 1885. As results of action taken at that time, the National Educational Association became an incorporated body, with a Board of Trustees as its executive financial officers ; and it is in the capacity of Chairman of that Board that I thank those who welcome us here to-day for their cordial greeting, and that I express my pleasure in returning again to this delightful summer resort, with the privilege of announcing to you that the treasury of the National Educational Association to-day has in its permanent fund forty thousand dollars. And, while it is fit that we should allude to these matters of the past, it is more fitting that we should now act so that this Association shall go forward in its great educational work, and when it returns here again some time during the next ten years, as I hope it may, that it shall be able to present to you facts showing that it

has acquired a still greater reputation, because of the good it has done throughout the country.

HON. WILLIAM T. HARRIS, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The President of the United States has already responded this morning for the whole country; as his Commissioner of Education, I will respond for the educational interests of this country.

In behalf of these interests I thank you for your welcome to this place of health-giving waters, to this land of rest and refreshment. The members of our Association come from the four quarters of the national domain to confer on the problems that beset the work of education. They come to gain wisdom by learning what solutions have been discovered to those problems, and they come to gain strength and courage to face the difficulties which the future sends toward them.

There are two elements of conflict which our national meetings give us help to meet. There is the struggle between civilization and savagery, the struggle to overcome the strongholds of illiteracy and the slums of our cities, to overcome and heal the causes for social weakness that produce crime and pauperism.

The second struggle is that which goes on within the ranks of the educational forces; it is the struggle between education as a lofty ideal of culture, and education as a means of fitting the individual for his trade. Both of these ideals are good and positive, although they are not of equal value. This National Educational Association helps to reconcile these two ideals by methods which obtain both results, the useful and the beautiful.

In the name of the educational interest of the whole nation I thank you for this welcome to sit with you in conference on these themes so important to the conservation of the Republic.

GREETING FROM DOMINION EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

HON. DR. INCH, CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS OF NEW BRUNSWICK, CANADA.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: The great honor has fallen upon me of bearing to you the greetings of twenty thousand teachers of the Dominion of Canada, as represented by the Educational Association of the Dominion.

As your President has said, the coming of the National Educational

Association to the city of Toronto last year was welcomed by the teachers living under another government, and over whose head floats another flag, as an evidence of the desire of the teachers of the United States to cultivate a closer acquaintance and a more fraternal relation. And this desire was responded to so generally from the east and west of the Dominion, that we not only welcomed it as a token of greater things in the future, but we give what may be regarded as the sincerest proof of admiration, by following in your footsteps, and imitating your customs in the organization of an association of teachers in the Dominion similar to the National Educational Association in the United States. Last week, in the city of Montreal, the first annual convention of the Dominion Association was held; and though our members were not so numerous as had been hoped, yet the enrollment showed the presence of four or five hundred teachers, and there were a series of important sessions held, at which most interesting and instructive papers were read and discussed; and this gives us the promise that the enterprise will be of great advantage to the cause of education in the Dominion of Canada.

I am talking, Mr. President, under a consciousness of the limitations, and of the further fact that the permission you have given me to speak is a matter of special courtesy, even for the prescribed three minutes. There are so many things I wish to say which I must leave unsaid. Yet permit me to say that we, in Canada, feel especially under obligations to the United States and your honorable Commissioner of Education for furnishing our educational departments so freely with the valuable publications of his bureau. The national boundary seems to form no obstruction for the free passage of educational documents; and we trust that this indication of good-will on the part of the United States will result in even closer intimacy in other respects between the two countries. The Canadian teachers, although rendering loyal and loving obedience to the noble woman who represents the majesty of the British Empire so well, are still proud to be allowed membership in the National Educational Association of the United States, as you have already heard; and from Nova Scotia to British Columbia, the various provinces are represented in your Association, and we are trying always to be worthy of fellowship in that still grander republic—the republic of letters. We hope—we look to-day to it as a dream, and trust that it may not always be a dream, that our country, so little in point of population, but so grand in territory and resources, that that country is to be, under Providence, the medium by which the whole vast English-speaking people of the world are to be brought into closer relationship and more intimate fellowship. Standing, as Canada does, with political relations to the mother country across the water, and with traditions which are woven through the history of a thousand years; and, on the other hand, so intimately related to this great Republic by geography and contiguity, by the increased and

increasing intercourse of the inhabitants of the two countries with each other, by a common interest, by a common origin, by the common sentiments which animate us—let us hope that under the providence of God we may together be the means of extending Christian civilization and the blessings of freedom over the wide world. Standing, as we do, intermediate between the Republic and Great Britain, we stretch forth one hand across the water to the mother-land, and the other hand to our eldest sister, the Republic of the United States, and we say to them, one to the other, Clasp hands across the waters, and we three united shall form an alliance which shall guarantee the reign of universal peace, and extend liberty wherever men dwell upon the earth.

Teachers of the National Educational Association, teachers of the Dominion Association of Canada, if this dream is ever to be a reality, upon you depends its accomplishment.

TWENTY YEARS' PROGRESS IN EDUCATION.

HON. WILLIAM T. HARRIS, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

THE three characteristic instruments of modern civilization are the railroad, the daily newspaper, and the common school.

The railroad means the connection of each part of the country with the market of the world. The newspaper means the participation of each man and woman, who can read, in the experience of the human race, so that each individual may profit by the lives of all his fellowmen far and near.

The common school means the acquisition on the part of each boy and girl, whether rich or poor, of the necessary knowledge required to read the newspaper, and make use of the railroad to exchange the products of their own industry for a share in the products of the world's industry.

These implements of human invention are devised for the sake of the general welfare and to promote democracy.

The modern trend of human history since the discovery of America has been slowly moving toward this result. The New World gave a great field for adventure and the development of individuality. Adventure in new lands and on untried seas has been paralleled and accompanied by adventures in the world of thought and theory. In fact, the revival of learning, so called, preceded the epoch of discoveries, and this epoch then followed as a result. The revival of learning and the epoch of discovery ushered in the epoch of natural science, which has made possible the epoch of useful inventions.

The epoch of discoveries, too, led to the founding of colonies by the

most hardy and headstrong among the citizens of western Europe. The accidents of birth and wealth do not bear transportation on ships that sail to new countries. Only the aristocracy of intellect and will-power goes for anything in the settlement of a border land. Hence, with the settlement of America, every step has been toward democracy and local self-government, and toward the escape from the trammels of caste founded on birth and wealth.

So great has been the influence of America upon Europe by way of reaction, that all the countries which have furnished immigrants for the New World have been drawn toward democracy so far as to have constitutional limitations adopted in their forms of government. This has been noteworthy in Northern Europe, less so in Southern Europe.

The progress grows more rapid as the Christian spirit which leavens our civilization sends forward, one after the other, its legions into the field. For great inventions, as well as great moral reforms, proceed from Christianity. The discovery of Watt in the last century gave us the steam engine. Fitch and Fulton soon applied it to the movement of boats; George Stephenson, to railroads. In 1830 there were locomotives running between Manchester and Liverpool.

But even as late as 1840 there was only a force of two millions of horse power derived from steam in the whole world. This doubled by 1850, and again doubled by 1860, and still again by 1870. Since 1870 the aggregate steam power of the world has increased from eighteen millions of horse power to sixty millions. About one-third of all the steam power in the world is in the United States—some twenty millions of horse power.

Of this vast force which toils for us, two-thirds is in the form of locomotives, which connect the back country with its cities, and its cities with each other. Over twelve millions of horse power mounted on wheels in the form of locomotives is now in process of making all the people who live in the country sharers in city civilization. The people in cities have the advantage of the world market and of the world's discoveries in science, art, literature, and history. The city offers to each of its inhabitants the inestimable blessings of society with the wise and good.

Now, it is steam power which has, so to speak, moved the back country into the city, to the extent of twelve millions of horse power. What the country can produce of agricultural products and mining is made of much greater value by cheap transportation. Then, in turn, the products of manufactures and the articles that come from around the world are made cheaper to the farmer and the miner by the same process of cheap freights on the railroad.

In 1860 the cost of freight on railroads was three and four cents a mile for each ton; now it is less than one cent per mile.

We have stationary steam engines, to the amount of six millions of horse power, manufacturing goods for us.

According to Engel, the great German statistician, there were industries to the amount of thirty-two billions of dollars that depended on steam for their motive power, and at this time there are upward of fifty billions of dollars invested in industries for which the steam engine gives the force and the laborer furnishes only the guiding power.

Looking at the nations of the world, we can see which are producing the wealth and which are democratically lifting up their population into a share of the world product of industry, by the statistics of their steam power. For each thousand inhabitants the United States has a steam power of three hundred horses. Great Britain is the only nation which equals us in the amount of steam power per inhabitant. Germany has a little more than half as much, France less than half, and Russia only one-eighth as much, according to population.

I dwell on this lesson of the steam engine because it is this which is making us a wealthy nation.

In 1800 I find that the total product of each man, woman, and child in the United States did not amount to ten cents a day. In 1850 it had increased to twenty-five cents. In 1880 it amounted to forty cents. It now comes to nearly, or quite, fifty cents per day.

The new census gives us data to prove that the total increase of wealth in the last decade, 1880–90, was twenty billions, or an average of two billions a year. The increased use of the steam engine has made this accumulation possible. The increase, to some extent, is due to the increase of the value of land near cities, and to new farming lands brought under cultivation. But far more of it comes from buildings and improvements which have been made by labor aided by steam.

The use of machinery in productive industry causes a transfer of laborers from agriculture to manufactures and commerce. We need fewer persons to obtain for us the raw materials of food, clothing, and shelter. More persons can be spared for the elaboration of the material. Fewer persons are required to produce the bare necessities of life, and more are set to work on articles of luxury and human comfort. More and more persons are employed, too, for the care of the spiritual wants, of protection and culture.

In a savage state, only one in a hundred can be spared for the production of articles of luxury and ornament, and for protection and culture. In the old civilization, before the invention of the steam engine, only one in twenty could be spared for such work. Now we can spare one in ten of the population, and we are soon coming to the time when we can set one in five to work at the production and distribution of newspapers and books, at the use of the telegraph and telephone, the work of teaching and preaching and lecturing, and the work of the professions of law and medicine, which protect life and property.

The vocations of man that have for their object the production of com-

fort and ornament, and the care for man's spiritual welfare, are bound to grow from more to more with the increased application of machinery to productive industry.

In the statistics of incomes for 1888 my attention has been attracted to the increase of comfortable, well-to-do families in those countries where the steam engine is much used, and where the laborers are educated into artistic skill. Thirty out of every hundred families in Great Britain are receiving $1,000 and upwards a year. Think of the comforts that can be purchased in London for $1,000 !

France, thanks to its instruction of its people in forms of art, manufactures works of taste and ornament for the world, and twenty-four per cent. of its families are receiving $1,400 and upwards a year. In England, the seventy per cent. of the population remaining receive on an average $500 per family, and this means greater luxury than the average nobleman enjoyed three hundred years ago. But in Italy, with only one-tenth as many steam engines per thousand inhabitants as Great Britain, there are only one-tenth as many families in the hundred that receive $1,000 a year. Ninety-seven per cent. of its families get on an average only $300 a year. It is important to notice that the machinery of productive industry demands educated intelligence to supervise and guide its direction. This has been one of the causes why the nations of Europe have, one after the other, felt the need of adopting national systems of education. Especially those like England, France, and Germany have seen that to hold the markets of the world it is necessary to develop the intelligence of the laboring classes by means of schools.

A still deeper lesson was learned by the results of the two wars which Prussia carried on—the first one with Austria, and the second with France. Both of the conquered countries at once set about reforming their school systems. Austria has doubled its ratio of school attendance since the battle of Sadowa, and now has thirteen per cent. of the population in school.

France has increased its school attendance to fifteen per cent. of its population from the nine per cent. which it had in 1864. Meanwhile, the number of illiterate men and women in France has decreased from fifty-eight to eighteen in the hundred. A great French statesman said that it was the German universities that conquered at Sedan.

The alarm at the military success of Prussia aided the English reformers in carrying through Parliament the radical measures of 1870. Large sums of money were given to encourage private schools and the school systems of towns. The schools thus aided were teaching at first about eight per cent. of the population. On the wave of this reform the friends of education succeeded last August in making the schools free to all children of the compulsory age. France had done this ten years before. The effect of the English effort has been to increase the school enrollment from eight per cent. to sixteen per cent. of the population.

The other countries, Italy and Spain, have increased their school attendance to over ten per cent. of their respective populations, or to double the number enrolled in 1860, and have thereby decreased the amount of illiteracy.

Turning to our own country, one striking item of progress is that of the rapid increase of property used for school purposes. In 1870 the property for the common schools in the aggregate amounted to one hundred and thirty millions of dollars. In the twenty-two years this has increased to three hundred and fifty millions of dollars, or almost exactly ten millions a year on an average. It is interesting to note that up to 1888 the London school board had expended forty-two millions for school buildings.

More remarkable than this is the increase of school attendance in the Southern States. In 1870 the south Atlantic division of States, comprising all from Delaware to Florida, enrolled in school only six per cent. of the entire population. In 1891 the enrollment is twenty per cent., or one in five of the population. The south central States, including Missouri, Kentucky, and West Virginia, and the States south of them, enrolled in school only seven and one-half per cent. in 1870, and more than twenty per cent. in 1891.

To understand at their true value the efforts of the South to make their schools what they should be, we ought to remember that the wealth which numerous large cities give makes it easy in the North to raise money for the support of schools without making a great burden for the tax-payers. In the South the taxes are large, but do not yield the requisite amount to support the schools for more than one hundred days in the south Atlantic division, nor for more than ninety days in the south central.

This, of course, is in process of correction, as the present villages grow into cities and the States grow wealthy.

The average length of school year in the north Atlantic division (full of cities) is one hundred and sixty-four days ; that of the north central division is one hundred and thirty-four days. The largest enrollment of children in the schools is in the north central division, amounting to nearly twenty-three per cent. of the population. That of north Atlantic and the Pacific coast and mountain region falls below the south in proportion enrolled in school. This is explained by the fact that children do not constitute so large a proportion of the population in those sections as in the other parts of the nation.

As a whole, the United States appears as enrolling in school quite twenty per cent. of its entire population. This is a better showing than that of any other nation, except Saxony. But many other nations of Europe have a much longer annual school session than we have. Here is the place to show improvement in future years.

To sum up the results of our outlook, we see the nations of Europe first

making education of all their people compulsory, and next, after some years, but as a logical consequence, making education free.

We see that there are reasons of self-preservation, both industrial and military, which lead to this. In our country the political reason was perhaps the first, as it is now the leading motive. We are to govern ourselves, and each of us is to help govern the rest. It is obvious that the better educated each citizen is, the better governed we all shall be.

The introduction of instruction in manual training has become a large feature in recent years, and will grow a larger feature in proportion as cities are called upon to grapple with the population of their slums.

Higher education is becoming more practical in that it studies the problems of the people, and endeavors to solve them in the laboratory. University extension has a great *rôle* yet to perform to connect itself with the public libraries growing up everywhere in the cities, and to form classes of serious-minded men and women throughout the community who are anxious to continue their studies for the sake of culture or for special preparation in arts.

In these lines of progress we see the development of the missionary spirit of Christianity, which goes out into the highways and by-ways and seeks out the maimed, the halt, and the spiritually blind, and brings them into the house of the Father.

AMERICANISM IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

BY FRANCIS BELLAMY, OF THE "YOUTH'S COMPANION."

We are in the midst of a revival of Americanism. All signs point to the fact that Americans are giving a fresh attention to America. The gathering impulse to foster American trade; the awakening to the need of a navy large enough to fit the nation; the turning of scholarship to a scientific study of American institutions, political and social; the new popularity of American topics in our magazine literature; and, not the least, the schoolhouse flag movement, which is giving to our public schools a national sense—these things are indications of a rising tide of American feeling.

This growing sentiment is to be hailed with delight. There has been need of such a revival. For after the war there came a natural reaction. Material developments absorbed attention, and our people had little mind for national ardors. Besides, we had a growing comparative sense of our place among nations; and this undoubtedly made us a trifle apprehensive lest our old-time emphasis of the American idea might seem like provincialism.

But to-day witnesses a palpable change of attitude regarding the sentiment of country. Americanism is the word which covers this new spirit of national culture; this new consciousness America is beginning to have of her own true value and destiny, and which marks a new epoch in our history.

This new Americanism brings a duty. It must be deepened and made solid. It must be made a force strong enough to touch the immigrant population which is pouring over our country.

Furthermore, Americanism must be defined. A clear discrimination needs to be made between true Americanism and that which is inferior; between the Americanism which cares for the highest destiny of the Republic, and that which goes no further than markets for special industries and prerogatives on the seas.

In a generation so lacking in idealism as ours, amid a people so given to scornful materialism, it is not strange that the tone of patriotism has not been high. We have produced captains of industry in plenty, but large-brained statesmen only a few. It is not enough in our day, while the spoils and the barrel are still regnant in politics, to arouse a sentiment for country: that sentiment must be informed with a clear sense of what the United States really stands for.

How shall Americanism be defined? Do we not all agree that the only Americanism we care to cultivate is, devotion to the highest interests of America?

Then, Americanism is not national self-conceit; that belongs to a provincial period, and exists only to be outgrown. Nor is it national bumptiousness; that quality of quarrelsomeness, of hot sensitiveness, of scheming aggressiveness, is a survival of barbarism, and America lifts up her great tranquillity among the nations as sign of a better way. Nor, again, is Americanism national selfishness; granting all that is required for self-protection, our country has too broad a horizon, too large possibilities in the future, for Americanism to be simply synonymous with the care of American trade.

America has climbed beyond the point where these qualities seem noble, and stands as a protest against them among the peoples of the earth.

The true Americanism is more than exultation over square miles and multitudes; it is a joyous sense that America must be another name for opportunity—opportunity for the realization of justice; opportunity for the free use of all native powers; opportunity for the rounded development of every individual. True Americanism is more than pride in our achievements and in our institutions: it is a conviction that the rights we have asserted involve duties we must render—the duty of each citizen to think for himself, to be independent of inferior party leaders, and to be thoroughly acquainted with both sides of the political issues of the day; the duty of every good citizen to attend the primary and not to miss the

polls; the duty of a personal care that American self-government is not a farce, but a truth. And true Americanism, also, is more than solicitude for American wheat and iron and hogs; it is more than the fostering of American wealth, more than the feeding and clothing of American bodies; the true Americanism is the putting steadily the thing that is fair, the thing that is just, into legislation. Our politics are not hindered by the antique conventionalisms of Europe. There is no reason why we cannot start out and legislate the simple right. America is geared for this. Our free institutions themselves are but a means to a superior end—the end that the right thing may be done in the easiest way. And it is the special glory of America, that, in spite of shameless leaders and of corrupt party machines, the heart of the people, in the long run, is true to right-doing. The ideal Americanism, then, not only sees in the Republic the attorney for every citizen, but also the mighty friend of all nations; not narrow, grasping, selfish, like the old powers, but the generous benefactor, the moral guide, the strong example for the world.

It is in the power of the public school to make this ideal Americanism the practical politics of the approaching century. President Harrison said the other day, "When I was a boy, the schools thought if they taught the three R's, as we called it out West, they had done their duty; they never thought of training boys for the duties of citizenship." If the schools had been mindful of this kind of training, the few real statesmen of our day would not be so lonely.

The demand upon the public school to-day is the systematic training of citizens. Talk about patriotism in the schools is not enough. The time has come when the highest ideals of American citizenship should be made a part of the curriculum, in the high school of course, and in the grammar school and the little schoolhouse on the country road as well.

Instruction in civics—the story of our political struggles as a nation; the way our town or city, the state, the nation, is governed; the explanation of the principles at the bottom of our institutions; and, above everything, the moral duties of citizenship; all this should be taught from the primary grade to the end. It should be taught picturesquely, and with enthusiasm. The normal schools and institutes should begin to train teachers specifically and carefully for the luminous teaching of civics.

These efforts should be supported by object lessons which appeal to the imagination and stir the enthusiasm. In this need of an appeal to sentiment is the importance of the school flag movement. There are those who depreciate the use of the flag; call it a fetich, and claim that our generation has risen beyond the need of any symbol of textile fabric. It was well these ideas were not advanced in 1864; men were dying for a textile fabric then. The time is far distant when our race will have outgrown the need of visible symbols. The flag over the school-yard makes

the nation a real thing to the very ones who are most in want of that lesson. The daily ceremony of raising and saluting it is a perpetual education. Recent testimony from teachers shows that in many schools an increased interest in American history has been manifested since the advent of the flag. Perhaps the most striking feature of this testimony is the frequent statement of the salutary influence on children of foreign parentage; to them it is a daily object lesson in patriotism for the land of their adoption. Visit the New York City schools, where Col. Balch of the New York Board of Education has introduced his system of patriotic instruction. These schools are made up from the very poor and from foreign families. The children of Italy, and Germany, and Portugal, and Ireland are all there. But the enthusiasm with which the singing of "Watch on the Rhine," and the other European national airs, is followed by "The Red, White, and Blue," and "America," and the stars and stripes are given a series of thrilling salutes, would be evidence enough that the flag has as great a potency to Americanize the alien child as it has to lead regiments to death.

One of the most significant events in this school flag movement occurred last Christmas in Salt Lake City. An Eastern journal made a gift of some twenty-five flags to the schools of that city, which a few years ago half-masted the United States flag on the Fourth of July. The Mormons dared not refuse to rent their great tabernacle for the exercises, where nearly ten thousand people gathered. That stronghold of disloyalty echoed with patriotism for the first time in the history of Utah, as the most distinguished Gentile citizens made addresses, and the great organ led the singing of the "Star-Spangled Banner" and "My Country."

The fabric means something still. It is more than the symbol of the grandest republic on earth. It is an education which in these days of individualism and special religious and secular interests is tremendously needful to remind our citizens of common obligations in a common country. While, with the children who are to be taught the duties of citizenship, its flashing appeal to their sentiment is the spur which the study of Americanism needs.

Another movement of vast importance to an intelligent appreciation of America in the schools is the national public school celebration of Columbus Day.

In response to the suggestion to set apart this four hundredth anniversary of America for a public school celebration, thousands of letters were received from teachers warmly approving the plan. At the Brooklyn meeting of the Department of Superintendence of this Association, the project was given final indorsement, commended to the public schools of America, and committed to executive officers, who were especially instructed to prepare a uniform program for use in every school in Amer-

ica. The idea has met with wide popular response. Nearly all the State Superintendents have taken measures to make the schools of their States the centers of the local celebrations of Discovery Day. Several governors have already made proclamations for the school observance of the Day. The Grand Army of the Republic is taking a warm interest in the Celebration, and General Orders have been issued for the Posts to encourage the schools to assume the leadership of the local Celebrations, and on October 21 to send a detail of Veterans to assist the pupils in raising and saluting the flag, and in the afternoon Parades to act as an escort of honor to the schools. In addition to this, Congress has recognized the movement by passing a bill authorizing the President to recommend to the people the observance of the day by suitable exercises in the schools. The press from the start has shown marked friendliness to the idea, and the support of thousands of newspapers has gone far to bring to pass its present acceptance.

By the 1st of September the Official Programme, uniform for all localities, is promised for publication. It is to provide for a morning Celebration, on October 21, in every schoolhouse in the Republic, and in the afternoon for a Public School Review, and a mass meeting of citizens in which the school idea shall still be the dominant feature.

This national observance of America's four hundredth anniversary presents a great opportunity to the schools. One object of the Celebration is to give fitting prominence to the free school as the most characteristic product of the four centuries of American life. Another object is to emphasize to our people and to the world the fact, that upon universal education is based the foundation of the greatness of this Republic. Still another aim is to impress upon our thirteen millions of common school pupils something of the real meaning of America. They will be made to grasp the forces that went to form this Western civilization ; they can be made to see its destiny, and to understand its dangers. Moreover, these millions of school-children, united on that day in concert of action, will be made conscious of their coming power as the citizens of the new century. It will be their first lesson in citizenship.

This national demonstration is to be urged as one more means to stimulate a pure Americanism in the public schools. Wherever it is followed by increased training in civic matters by earnest teachers, the ardor of the Celebration is not likely to be a spasm, but a persevering impulse toward intelligent patriotism.

Among other methods which may be used in the schools as a persisting inspiration for Americanism, probably one of the most effectual, is the school lyceum. The old-fashioned village lyceum was an institution which made young men familiar with the issues of the time, and trained a race of statesmen. There has already begun an extensive revival of the debating society. A league of lyceums, organized to teach young men the

duties of good citizenship, is now stretching throughout the United States. It is one of the many excellent patriotic organizations in which the present time is prolific. The debating club, however, has special advantages which fit it for school work. It is first of all a natural thing. Young men like to debate. The matching of logistic skill is always a popular thing, and school-fellows like to meet in evening array, where each is on his nerve and nothing is tame. Moreover, the debating club is a place where the schoolmaster can meet his pupils on equal terms—a man-to-man mingling, most salutary for class-room interest. For training pupils in Americanism the school lyceum is almost a necessity. Here the abstractions of civics become living questions. Here young men may learn the first duty of an American—to think for themselves, instead of always submitting to the views of text-book and teacher. In this arena where national problems, and especially the local issues of the town or city, can be fairly discussed, our boys will become conscious of the responsibilities which bear upon the true American. The school lyceum, as an annex to the political instruction of the class-room, is the schoolmaster's opportunity for the promotion of intelligent patriotism.

I have named these three things—the schoolhouse flag with its ceremonies and its culture ; the National Public School Celebration of Columbus Day, in which the schools shall take the responsibility of leadership in the local demonstrations on October 21, throughout America ; and the school debating club, where the patriotic impulses already aroused may be focused and developed. I have named these only as certain very practicable devices for stimulating and supporting the pupils' interest in the American instruction, which ought to be perseveringly given by every teacher in the land. The teacher is patriotic ; but civil government and political economy have been dry-as-dust studies, and he wants to know how they can be illuminated. These subjects can be made very centres of light by the wise use of some such outside methods as these which touch the sentiment and fill the imagination.

The schoolmaster holds the future of American politics. With the general increase of interest in Americanism all around him, with the present responsiveness of our youth to patriotic projects, the school-teacher is responsible for the organizing of this unorganized impulse into a system which shall develop a new race of Americans.

We shall always have parties to look after our political issues ; we shall have politicians to look after the parties ; we need somebody to look after the politicians. The public school of America is the only organization wide enough, and trusted enough, to render that service. The State fosters the school ; it is the school's business, in return, to make for the State a substantial bottom of citizenship, to supply it with leaders who will lead worthily and intelligently, and with statesmen who will dare.

If our educational system shall rightly address itself to its present

chance and duty, the approaching twentieth century will regard the public school training as a high civic qualification, and will distinguish the teacher as one of the responsible officers of the State. All the centuries have celebrated the patriot soldier and the patriot statesman ; the twentieth century must be made, above all, the age of the patriot schoolmaster.

RELATION OF UNDERGRADUATE TO POST-GRADUATE CURRICULA.

BY WILLIAM PEPPER, M.D., LL.D., UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

In replying to the question of your President as to the subject of my remarks to you this evening, I fear that I selected the particular question of the "relations between undergraduate and post-graduate curricula," rather because it interests me so deeply at the present time than because I have anything new or important to submit to you upon the topic. But, in reality, we seem to have reached a point in the development of our college and university work at which this problem forces itself upon us more urgently than ever before. As is the case with many others of our great educational questions, the data for the solution of this one are probably not yet adequately at hand. It is altogether likely that various solutions may be found, or, at least, that for some years to come interesting experiments will be conducted along various lines. The mere fact that widespread attention is being given from an university standpoint to the courses of study in our professional schools marks a distinct and important advance in our educational position.

I presume that the immense changes which have been made in the curriculum of our American colleges during the past twenty years have been almost wholly without reference to post-graduate or professional courses properly so called.

These changes have for the most part consisted in the marked increase in the requirements demanded for admission to college, in the introduction of considerable numbers of new branches to the lists of subjects taught in the four undergraduate years, and in the adoption of more thorough and exacting methods of instruction in each branch. There has been, as a necessary consequence, a marked increase in the ratio of the teaching force to the number of students taught, and in the amount expended by the college for each degree earned in course. The average age at entrance to college has advanced two full years in the last quarter of a century. The opportunities for high attainment and the incentives thereto have been multiplied, and with this greater maturity on the part of the

students there has come an elevation of the grade of scholarship, and an improvement in the tone and dignity of undergraduate college life.

The development of the free elective and of the group elective systems would have been inevitable as a result of the overcrowding of the roster. But other causes have contributed to produce the result. The gratifying advance in the status of the teaching profession has been closely connected with the reduction in the number of hours required per week from each instructor; and with the advance in professorial salaries attainable as the result of the greater wealth of colleges and of increasing competition for successful teachers. So long as the average college professor was overworked and underpaid to the extent that prevailed a score of years ago, his influence was necessarily restricted. It speaks eloquently for the force and devotion of our elder teachers that in spite of such grave disadvantages they raised so high the standard of their calling, and impressed so deeply upon their students and associates the lessons of their self-consecrated lives. But with the return of a measure of leisure, and with the enjoyment of more liberal facilities for study and investigation, the college professor has become a vigorous and progressive student and a frequent and successful author. His relations to society, to his students, and to his special subject have undergone great changes. His methods of instruction have felt the inspiration of the freer and fresher intellectual life enjoyed by himself. His students get more out of him, and in turn he gets more out of them. In every live college in America to-day it is safe to assert that each hour in the roster stands for a greater reality and thoroughness of intellectual work on the part of teacher and student than has ever before been secured here. With such a state of affairs, new subjects clamoring for admission to the curriculum, each subject claiming more hours and more earnest application, more force of instructors and wealth of illustration, the introduction of some privilege of election between studies became inevitable.

At the same time, no less inevitably there appeared the desire on the part of the more progressive teachers and of the more earnest students for an extension of study beyond the possible limits of the undergraduate course. We have thus seen within a few years the rapid development of post-graduate studies as a feature of our American college system, a feature whose importance was certainly not recognized at first, and whose relations with undergraduate work are still far from being clearly defined. In most institutions there was little or no endowment available for the support of such advanced work. It encroached upon the time of the ablest teachers, who alone could conduct it. The fees of the few students who sought it formed no adequate compensation. It is not strange that at first it met with no warm encouragement, and that the attempt was made to crowd the advanced work back into the already overcrowded undergraduate curriculum.

Up to this very recent stage the nearest approach to a fully developed

university that was made by even the most highly organized among our colleges was in the co-existence of a vigorous undergraduate department with one or more professional schools which owed their privileges to the same charter and were nominally under the control of the same board of trustees, but which in reality had no more to do with the college than if they had been wholly independent institutions. The trouble was aggravated by the fact that such professional schools were nearly if not quite always managed in the interest of the faculty. In many cases it was known that the profits were out of all proportion to the duties performed by the professors, and it was more than suspected that the standard of education was deliberately kept down to favor a larger attendance of students. It is not strange that popular enthusiasm and benevolence did not go out towards that aspect of university work. Nor is it strange that when the college department of such an institution enriched its curriculum, elevated its standard at entrance and all along the line, and later projected a post-graduate department under a so-called faculty of philosophy, but little concern should have been felt for the effect such changes might have upon its relations with its own semi-detached medical or law school.

Yet, as a matter of fact, during these same eventful twenty years the tender consciences of medical and law faculties were beginning to prick uneasily at the flagrant disparity between their standards and those of other countries. A few of the stronger schools bravely incurred the risk of prolonging the course of study, exacting examinations at entrance and at the close of each term, and increasing the number of subjects taught. The wild race for cheap and easy diplomas went on, and these schools suffered seriously for several years. Their classes were greatly reduced; their faculties did double labor for half pay. But, with few exceptions, they did not falter, and the tide soon turned.

The graduates under the improved educational methods immediately demonstrated their superiority, and carried off all the prizes available. Now, as ever, one may safely assume that the American public will choose, and will cheerfully pay for, the best product, so soon as convinced of its superior excellence. In a few years the success of the higher grade schools of medicine and of law became greater than it had ever been with lower standards. A strong revulsion of feeling occurred in favor of thorough, honest, and adequate professional training, and it was not long before those who had doubted the possibility of exacting three years of six months' study began to plan for four years of eight or nine months each. Let us consider briefly what this implies in the case of medical study. I speak of this more fully, because it happens at present to be of the more immediate and urgent importance. Twenty-five years ago an American medical education meant the attendance upon two sessions of five or six months' duration, the instruction consisting of seven courses of didactic lectures, which were repeated annually, and a limited number of medical

and surgical clinics. The faculty comprised from four to seven professors, all engaged in the practice of their profession, and expecting to receive the larger share of their remuneration from the wide-spread advertisement of their prominent position, and from their cordial relations with their graduates, who, indeed, may well have reciprocated the indulgent favors shown them at their final examinations. The only equipment necessary was a building with one room big enough to hold the swelling classes; if possible, it should be conveniently accessible to a hospital. Laboratories there were none, excepting the dissecting-room. The apparatus was most meager, and a library would have been regarded as a needless luxury.

It will give some idea of the strenuous efforts that have been made to equip this one branch of professional education when I state that when the University of Pennsylvania inaugurates an obligatory four-year course of medical study, in 1893, there will have been expended for the requisite buildings (including the Medical Hall, the Hospital, the Chemical Laboratory, the Laboratory of Hygiene, the Wistar Institute of Anatomy, and the Laboratory of Biology) over $850,000, without counting the value of ground and equipment, which could not be estimated at less than $250,000; that the annual cost of maintenance, without including a single professorial salary, will amount to $115,000; and that the staff of instructors will number between eighty-five and ninety. It is evident that this means a serious stroke of work, and that the schools which will stand together on this advanced plane count confidently upon the support of the most intelligent and highly educated portion of the community. It is evident they must begin to compete vigorously for endowment, and that they will apply to the generous public for funds to endow professorships and fellowships, and to maintain costly laboratories (for we should spend several times as much in running a laboratory as will go to the teachers connected with it), with no less weighty reason than now supports the appeals for our colleges. Within a year there will be half a dozen great schools offering facilities in medical education, almost, if not quite, equal to those obtainable abroad. This four-year obligatory course will be carefully graded: the first two years will be devoted to the fundamental branches; the latter two years, and especially the last year, should be so largely clinical in character as to be equivalent to a term as interne in a hospital. The principle of election will be introduced in the last year; a certain number of hours will be laid down, and then a certain number of additional hours must be made by choosing out of a list of special subjects offered as electives. Inducements of the most weighty nature will be offered to lead students who have the means, and particularly those who would fit themselves as teachers or investigators, to remain over a fifth year, and to devote this added time to work in the fully equipped laboratories, the hospital wards, and the extensive libraries.

As may be gathered from the above statement, it has been found pos-

sible everywhere to interest the generous public in the endowment of professional schools just so soon as it is made clear that the school is conducted in behalf of science and the community and not of the members of its faculty. It must not be supposed that I would imply that medical professors were sinners beyond all the rest that dwelt in college land in these days. Human nature is wonderfully uniform. They did but what we all should do under similar conditions. There was absolutely no restraining authority on the part of the State or of boards of trustees. There was an immense continent being opened up and sparsely settled; the demand for medical men was unprecedented; neither time nor facilities could be had for turning out the needed thousands with thorough training; half-baked loaves were gladly taken by those who otherwise must have fed on patent pills. The case was just as bad with the supply of teachers. What proportion of that great army had even the rudiments of the science of education? It remains true, that until each State of the Union shall enact some wholesome legislation to protect the lives of its citizens from the malpractice of incompetent doctors, and the minds of its children from the malpractice of incompetent teachers, there will be abundant supplies of these commodities. It is easy to argue that we may not hope to supply every $500 place with a man with a $5,000 equipment. But in fact it is precisely in those small and inaccessible places, where the incumbent is thrown upon his own resources, and where the counsel of colleagues and the opportunities for self-improvement are hard to obtain, that we need the services of men who have had thorough and practical education. It cannot be expected that as students they will all have been able to pay their own way through a long and costly course in college and in professional school. The time has come when the public and the State must hear and heed the demand for the endowment of the higher education, and especially for the establishment of great numbers of fellowships in schools of medicine, schools of pedagogy, schools of law, so that earnest students may complete their preparation for their life-work.

In the last report of the Bureau of Education (Washington, 1891) the statistics for the year 1888–89 show that in 354 colleges and universities, with 86,996 students, there were but 111 fellowships endowed, 581 scholarships established by the State, and 4,588 scholarships established by private funds. In 32 schools of science endowed by the National Land Grant, with 9,621 students, there were 9 fellowships; 2,976 scholarships established by the State, and 207 scholarships established by private funds. In the remaining 32 schools of science not endowed by the National Land Grant, with 7,716 students, there were 20 fellowships, 50 State scholarships, and 93 scholarships endowed from private sources. In these three great classes of institutions for higher education, with grounds and buildings then estimated at $64,898,319, and productive funds reported at $76,487,973, and total annual income from investments, from State or

municipal aid, or from tuition fees, of $10,170,485, and with benefactions for that year of $4,839,851, the number of endowed fellowships available for post-graduate students would seem to have been only 140, although the total number of resident graduates is reported as 1,358.

On turning to professional schools, we find in 141 schools of theology, with 6,989 students, that the number who had received a degree in letters or in science was 1,453 (20.8%), and the number of endowed scholarships was 584. The total income was $959,654, and the benefactions for that year had been $630,402.

In 52 schools of law, with 3,906 students, the number who had received a degree in letters or science was 829 (21.2%), and the number of endowed scholarships was 26. The total income was only $55,589, of which $46,164 was from fees of students, and no benefactions were reported. It is needless to comment upon the low state of equipment and endowment revealed by these figures.

In 115 schools of medicine, including 92 regular, 9 eclectic, and 14 homeopathic, with 14,066 students, the number who had received a degree in letters or science was 1,378 (or 9.8%), and the number of scholarships was 219. The value of buildings and grounds is reported at $3,356,618; the amount of productive funds, $248,000; the total income, $486,990, of which $390,361 was from fees; the benefactions for the year had been $104,343. During the years 1888 and 1889 there were 12,898 degrees in course conferred, of which only 121 were Ph.D.

In 129 public normal schools, with 20,622 students of the science and art of teaching, and in 42 private normal schools, with 4,487 students, it does not appear that there were any endowed scholarships or fellowships.

I come now to what seems a point of extreme importance. It will be readily inferred from the above figures that, in spite of the magnificent promise of the last few years—a promise which surely will be more than kept—there is no practically conceivable amount of benefactions which will enable the bulk of these students to accomplish the desirable purpose of securing a baccalaureate degree before entering on their professional studies so long as the completion of their college course occupies them until the close of their twenty-second year. John Fiske, in his "Outlines of Cosmic Philosophy," has some fine passages on the influence of the lengthening of the time of caring for children, upon the development of the family, and of the lengthening of the period of youthful mental plasticity upon the ability of a new generation to improve upon the ideas and customs of its predecessors. But this process must be a very slow one; and the honest merchant or farmer who would fain give his ambitious child the best equipment for his profession will draw from it small comfort in his efforts to support that child up to the age of twenty-five or twenty-six years. Although I have spoken of the medical profession chiefly, it must be remembered that the preparation needed for the highest success, or

even for good work, in very many callings is now so extensive and minute as to constitute a veritable professional education. This is so, of course, in the case of theology and of law. Is it not practically the same as regards pedagogy, journalism, chemistry, engineering, architecture, literature? It is assuredly the case that to-day all who aspire to be well equipped for any of these avocations desire, and, were it attainable, would insist upon a post-graduate course in the branches specially related to the profession of their choice. Of course, great numbers of the seven thousand graduates * who received their degrees in letters or science last month will enter at once upon work in some of the professions which are not yet protected by the requirement of a special additional course of instruction. Many others will be forced to satisfy themselves in their choice of a professional school with those whose diplomas can be most readily won in the shortest time. Many of us can attest this from our personal experience, but the fact is confirmed by the small percentage of the students of medicine, law, and theology who, as already shown, have received previous degrees in letters or in science.

No one questions the importance of previous academic training to every student of these professions. The higher the standard of the professional school is raised, the more evident does the need of a higher entrance examination become. We would gladly insist upon the degree of B.A. or B.S. as a prerequisite for admission. But in practice the significant fact has been observed—and especially in medical schools, where the recent advances in standard have been more marked than in other professional schools—that as the course has been lengthened, and the curriculum rendered more rich and difficult, the proportion of students holding degrees in letters or in science has tended to decline. It cannot be doubted that if the four-year obligatory course of medical study which will speedily be enforced at the leading schools of the country were to be associated with the requirement of a baccalaureate degree for admission, there would not be a single institution that could stand the strain with their existing inadequate endowment. Whatever entrance examination may be enacted will presumably be dealt with in most cases as a matter for cramming, rather than be met, as it should be, by the presentation of a suitable degree or certificate won in a properly adjusted course of undergraduate study. Very much the same thing exists in regard to the law schools, where, however, the case is further complicated by the fact that the routine of the lawyer's office and the bar examination offers in most States an additional avenue of entrance into the legal profession. The truth is, as indicated above, that all the changes and advances and prolongations of the undergraduate curriculum have been without reference to the effect upon these great branches of post-graduate study.

* There were 6,475 degrees in letters, science, and philosophy conferred by American colleges in 1888–89.

But the difficulty which has been for some years conspicuous as regards these branches is coming to be felt keenly as regards others, such as pedagogy, architecture, engineering, the science of administration and finance, and the like. The recognition of an actual need called into existence schools of science, and their unprecedented success has forced the colleges to reconsider their curriculum. As the requirements for the profession of chemist, of architect, of engineer, have been successively advanced, it has become clear that a typical education for any student intending to pursue one of these professions would be, just as in the case of medicine or of law or of theology, a good college course followed by two or three years in a post-graduate professional school. It is not necessary to consider the question here as to the propriety of a single baccalaureate degree B.A., or of several, such as B.S. and Ph.B. in addition. The decision has come to hinge almost upon the single item of Greek. Most people now believe that the disciplinary value of courses in science with a fair proportion of letters, is equivalent to that of courses in letters with a fair proportion of science. Nor can it be doubted, I think, that each of the branches above mentioned demands expansion into a highly equipped post-graduate professional school. Nay, more; I think it will soon be conceded that each of these schools—medicine, law, theology, pedagogy, architecture, art, social and political science, literature—embraces more than one subject which should be recognized in the strictly university course leading to the doctorate of philosophy.*

When scientific courses were first opened in colleges, in competition with the preëxisting literary courses, the grade was so much lower that they attracted not only the students who intended a serious preparation for their profession, but many others who chose them only on account of their easiness. As the standard of scientific education has been steadily advanced, literary studies are being more and more crowded out from these scientific courses, and we are witnessing the development of professional schools of technology as integral parts of the undergraduate departments of our universities. Within a few days I have listened to the earnest appeal of Professor Shaler, Dean of the Lawrence Scientific School at Harvard, for a larger recognition and development of these professional scientific courses in the college department of that university. At the University of Pennsylvania we tried for fifteen years to conduct the courses in the Towne Scientific School from a university—or rather from a non-technological—standpoint; but it has been found impossible to evade the difficulties and defects of that position, and now they are fully equipped and conducted as true technological courses. Each technical course covers four years and leads to the degree of B.S. in architecture, chemistry, civil engineering, mechanical engineering, and electrical engineering, respectively.

* For instance, at Johns Hopkins pathology, and at the University of Pennsylvania hygiene, have been so recognized.

Graduates of these courses who have shown marked progress in their profession and have submitted a satisfactory thesis may receive the degree of master of science, together with the professional degree appropriate to the course pursued. At the same time, a scientific course covering five years is conducted, the first two years devoted to general literary and scientific study, the last three years chiefly to technical work in the various professional branches. At the end of the senior year the general degree of B.S. is given, and at the end of the post-senior year the degree of master of science. The professional degrees may be conferred upon masters of science of two years' standing who have made satisfactory progress in their professions and have presented an acceptable thesis.

The effort to provide for the wants of earnest and valuable students, who cannot postpone entirely the preparation for their profession until after the completion of their undergraduate course, is leading in the same way to the intrusion into the B.A. and B.S. courses of subjects of the most diverse character, which are clearly portions of post-graduate true university work. At the same time, the growing demands of each branch of professional study for more thorough, advanced, and prolonged work will lead to the establishment of numerous and varied post-graduate schools, whose curricula cannot be adjusted economically to that of the B.A. or B.S. course, since its demands are so great as to make it increasingly difficult for the student to take a full college course prior to entrance upon his professional studies. It seems inevitable that this process should go on, and go on rapidly, if the age of admission to college continues as high as at present, and if the requirements for the B.A. degree are made, as of late, more and more exacting. Of course there are colleges and colleges—several hundreds of them, and of all degrees of strength and soundness. It is quite possible that one or more may maintain such a standard and continue to draw adequate numbers of students. There is much to be said, however, in favor of uniformity of educational requirements. There is wide scope for superior excellence in the greater degrees of thoroughness with which they are exacted. And, looking at the subject from the standpoint of the interests of the whole country, I have not been able to resist the conclusion, the reasons for which are here merely glanced at in a desultory and defective fashion, that it would be better for the future of our university education if the age of admission to college were to be lowered decidedly, and if the B.A. degree was made to represent a definite stage of true college education attainable by good students of not more than nineteen or twenty years of age. I believe firmly, moreover, that with the establishment of proper relations between the college and the secondary school —a result which would be rendered infinitely easier by an approach to uniformity and simplicity in the entrance examinations and curricula of our colleges—it would be found possible to send students up to college at an age decidedly lower than at present, and with even better preparation than can

now be secured as a rule. There would go with this, as an inseparable corollary, the development of a group of vigorous, highly equipped post-graduate schools, with curricula of two, three, or four years' duration, according to the subjects involved. As an essential to admission would be exacted the B.A. or B.S. degree, or an equivalent preparation, and in consequence there would be a harmonious and economical adjustment of instruction in the undergraduate and post-graduate courses. The post-graduate schools would confer the appropriate professional degrees or the degree of Ph.D. according to the faculty in which studies were pursued, and the coördination of this system of schools would constitute the university in the full sense of that term.

It is obvious that we in America are developing a great national system of college and university education. It may be too early to predict what its leading features will be. The entire absence of governmental control makes it all the more important that frequent and full discussion shall be held upon all the important questions involved. One thing that may be assumed is that it will not be a mere imitation of the system of any other country, whether France, England, or Germany. At the same time, it would seem likely that the general plan which in Germany has led to such brilliant results may present more features adapted to our conditions than are to be found in the educational systems of other countries. All are familiar with the organization of the gymnasium and the realschule; and without assuming that the courses of instruction therein provided, either under the former regulations or as recently modified, would be most desirable as a college curriculum for us, it is important to observe how completely the difficulties to which I have already alluded are there avoided. In general, the boy enters the gymnasium or the realschule at the age of nine years, and the course in each is arranged to occupy nine years. By the more liberal conditions established by the recent official decrees, there is a distinct approach to a common type, as shown by the fewer hours devoted to classical studies (especially Greek) in the gymnasium, and by the corresponding increase in the amount of time devoted to the natural sciences and the mother tongue. The right to confer the certificate of maturity (admitting to the university) now pertains not only to the gymnasium, but to both of the two schools into which the former realschule is now divided—the real-gymnasium and the ober-realschule. The gymnasial certificate, however, still carries the higher distinction, and is the only one which admits to all faculties of the university. We see here a proof that the German system is plastic, and that it can adapt itself to the established claims of new educational opinions. The fact that the certificate of the gymnasium, or the real-gymnasium, or even the ober-realschule (though in the case of this latter only to certain courses), admits to the university without further examination, shows how thorough is the adjustment of the different stages of education, and how effectively and economically the time available can be

disposed of. It results, then, that the student can enter the university at from eighteen to twenty years, either by special examination or on certificate, and that he at once begins the special line of study adapted to his future career. Throughout the gymnasial course the fundamental principle is the giving of a liberal training, and there is declared opposition against the introduction of professional studies of any kind, and even against the giving of a professional turn to instruction in any subject. The importance of this principle as helping to secure the broadening and strengthening effect of education upon the mind at this stage of its development cannot be over-estimated. Yet, with all this, the degree of Ph.D. can be attained in three years' study in the university, or by the age of twenty-one to twenty-three. The courses in theology and law are of the same length; while even that in medicine, which is the longest, and occupies four or five years, can be completed, with the state's examination for license to practice and with or without the doctor's degree, by the age of twenty-three to twenty-five years.

The entire educational system of the country—and this includes Austria as well as Germany—is thus directed to secure thorough liberal training in letters or science, followed by thorough professional study, and yet is so arranged as to permit the student to enter all branches of professional life or the higher employment of the state at a reasonably early age. Practically the same result is secured in France, where, for instance, the candidate for the degree of doctor of medicine must possess the degree of *bachélier ès lettres,* corresponding about to the certificate of maturity (*Abiturienten-Zeugniss* of the German Gymnasia), and in addition must possess the *baccalauréat ès sciences* as regards mathematics and natural sciences. In spite of this very thorough preparatory education, and of the fact that the required course of medical study is four years of ten months each, the license to practice can usually be secured by the age of twenty-four years. In France also, therefore, the system is coherent and secures effective results with economy of time and labor.

In England, on the other hand, a struggle similar in some respects to our own seems pending over this very question of the relation of the medical to the undergraduate curriculum. The demand for more thorough instruction in natural science and the clinical branches has led to a conviction that the medical curriculum must be prolonged to five years; and the General Medical Council of Great Britain has accordingly passed resolutions that all students of medicine who matriculate after January 1, 1892, shall pursue a five-year graded course of study. Before entering upon this course there must be passed a preliminary examination in English, in Latin, in mathematics (including arithmetic, algebra, and the first three books of Euclid), in the elements of dynamics, and in two optional subjects chosen from the following: Greek, French, German, higher mathematics, natural philosophy, logic, and moral philosophy.

The new medical curriculum ordains only a limited amount of instruction in botany, natural history, physics, and chemistry, and it is evident that the above preliminary examination is scarcely equal to that required for admission to the freshman class of our stronger American colleges. At the same time, in a report presented to the Board of the Faculty of Medicine of Oxford University, and communicated to my friend Dr. Ord, of London, by Sir Henry Acland, the principle is reaffirmed, that no candidate should be admitted to the first examination for the M. B. degree of Oxford until he has passed all the examinations required for the degree of B.A. It seems to me apparent that, just as with us, the whole bearing and influence of this new legislation will be to still further divorce professional from college education, and to still further reduce the proportion of those who bring up to the professional studies a degree or certificate attesting thorough previous education.

The question of time seems to me to enter so largely into the problem that even though we advance the requirements for admission to our schools of medicine, of law, of theology, of pedagogy, of political science, as we should and as we must, we shall not secure the great disideratum of more general attendance at college, so long as the requirements for admission to college and the college curriculum are such as to make the age at graduation from twenty-two to twenty-four years.

We shall rather, I fear, tend to make a larger and larger proportion of students depend upon the secondary school or upon special cramming to prepare directly for the entrance examination to the various professional schools; a result clearly, as it seems to me, to the disadvantage of the secondary school, the college, the professional school, and the student. There are, it would appear, but two alternatives—either a general restoration of the B.A. degree to its old signification and value, or else a continuance of the process of modifying the college curriculum, which has set in so vigorously, with the view of adapting it to the increasing requirements of the post-graduate curricula. I have already expressed my preference for the former of these courses; but this would be a slow process, and the requirements of the case are, in various directions, urgent. Pending more full study of the question, it will be interesting to note how the various expedients that are to be tried will work. For instance, at the University of Pennsylvania the adoption of the obligatory four-year course of medical study has induced the trustees and the college faculty of that institution to provide a special elective group in biology and natural science, covering junior and senior years, which may be chosen by those who have entered either for B.A. or for B.S. A student who pursues successfully this elective course will be admitted to the second year of the medical school. Even better than this, there has been arranged a graded five-year course which may be elected at the close of sophomore year, so that thus also the baccalaureate degree and the medical degree may be

earned in seven years. In this really admirably combined biological and medical course there are offered advantages not surpassed, if equalled, by the new five-year English curriculum or by that of either the German or the French universities. In effect, indeed, it is not unlike the provision in Germany where the student who has won the gymnasial certificate of maturity, and proposes to take the medical course in the university, passes at first into the philosophical faculty to study zoölogy, mineralogy, botany, physics and chemistry, anatomy and physiology, and at the close of the second year passes the *tentamen physicum*, after which the final two years are devoted wholly to technical medical branches.

The advantages of the methods adopted by the University of Pennsylvania are obvious, and they are very considerable. They are open, however, to the serious objection that they still further complicate the undergraduate curriculum and still further introduce into it the professional element. They are open to a further practical objection. Such an arrangement may be excellent where there are exceptionally strong advantages for the biological and natural science studies; but it is difficult to see how it can meet the wishes or promote the interests of other colleges. It may induce a limited number of students to leave their colleges at the end of sophomore year so as to take advantage of one or the other of the elective courses above described, but this were a result which would seem undesirable.

I do, indeed, venture to hope that this action of the University of Pennsylvania—particularly if, as I trust to see, similar action shall be taken also by other leading universities with strong medical schools—will have the effect of inducing colleges to introduce such full biological courses in the last two years of their curriculum as will lead many students to take their baccalaureate degree, since it would secure admission to advanced standing in their professional course and save one full year in the acquisition of the doctorate. But I fear that for the most part the immediate effect of the advanced standard of medical education now established by a number of the leading schools will be to deter students from going to college, and to induce them to prepare specially for the examination which will admit directly to the professional school.

I know that the entrance examination, even to our best medical schools, is shamefully low. Personally I advocate getting the prolonged medical course, with its ample practical and laboratory instruction, strongly established before loading the experiment down at the other end. The absence of endowment and the destructive competition among the absurdly numerous medical schools make me apprehensive. But either at once or in a couple of years the entrance examination must be decidedly advanced. The most advanced requirement demanded to-day is, I presume, that called for by Harvard College, which includes only the following subjects:

1. *English.*—Every candidate will be required to write, legibly and cor-

rectly, an original English composition of not less than two hundred words, and also to write English prose from dictation.

2. *Latin.*—The translation of easy Latin prose.

3. *Physics.*—A competent knowledge of physics (such as may be obtained from Gage's Elements of Physics).

4. *Elective Subject.*—Each candidate must pass an examination in any one of the following subjects: French, German, the elements of algebra or plane geometry, botany.

By the recent action of the Regents of the University of the State of New York, it is directed "that hereafter they will require their academic diploma (which Mr. Secretary Dewey defines 'as meaning a good, thorough high-school course') or its equivalent as a minimum of general preliminary education from any candidate for any degree conferred on examination by the university."

But even when all the leading colleges shall have come up to, or shall, as I trust to see before five years are over, have passed the standard thus set, I am convinced we shall not have lessened in the least the difficulties of those students who would gladly take both college and university courses, but are hindered by the exalted requirements for the B.A. degree.

The expedient recently adopted at Columbia College seems to me neither more hopeful nor less objectionable. As President Low writes: "At the end of the junior year our seniors take all their studies under one or the other of the university faculties, including those that give a professional education as well as those that do not. By this system the student must still give four years of study for our B. A. degree, but for such students as combine with the college course a professional training, the total time is shortened by one year."

The ultimate effect of this arrangement upon both undergraduate and post-graduate curricula in Columbia cannot be foretold; doubtless there are the strongest reasons for expecting it to be excellent, or the plan would not have been adopted by the distinguished president and faculties of that institution. I can readily imagine also, that, as regards a single university, the curriculum of the first three years might be so arranged as to enable such a plan as the above to work well. But if, as would be inferred from statements published, though not official, it were proposed to admit students from other colleges at the close of their junior year to full standing in the senior class at Columbia, with the privilege of securing the B.A. degree in one year, and, for instance, M.D. in three years more, the arrangement would seem open to grave criticism from the standpoint both of Columbia and of the general college system of the country. It were indecorous to discuss more fully arrangements which have not been promulgated officially in full detail, and equally indecorous to more than allude to the proposition advanced at Harvard by our distinguished col-

league, President Eliot, since it has not yet been embodied in legislation by that university.

I feel that no apology is needed for the introduction of this subject. Even with the imperfect statement I have made, it challenges your serious attention. There are said to have been almost twenty thousand students in medical schools during the last college year; less than nine per cent. had baccalaureate degrees. The claims of this great army of students deserve consideration. Precisely the same problems are arising with regard to our law students, and our students of theology, of pedagogy, of architecture, of engineering, and of other professions.

So many experiments have been tried with the undergraduate curriculum that we hear from every side demands of the most extraordinary boldness.

If the process which, most unfortunately as it seems to me, has been pursued with constantly accelerating speed for twenty years be continued much longer, it is to be feared that the undergraduate college curriculum will be hopelessly distorted and perverted, and will become a medley of college and university instruction, divorced from the true university schools, and yet wholly inadequate for any class of the community except for those estimable gentlemen of independent means, who find it unnecessary to fit themselves for any serious pursuit in life by thorough education in any single branch.

It seems doubtful if any of the expedients suggested to avoid the urgent problems forced upon us in consequence of the present state of the undergraduate curriculum are of more than local and temporary value. It remains to be seen whether a wiser course toward a solution of more permanent and general efficiency may not be found in concerted efforts on the part of university, college, and secondary school in favor of a restoration of the baccalaureate degree to a position of greater stability and more in accordance with its original historic signification. The great anniversary year, 1893, will find us with the victory over the huge material forces of this continent practically won; it will find us with our political federation strongly, and, as we devotedly trust, indissolubly cemented. But we must recognize that our greatest battles are still to be fought—between sound doctrine and specious error; between the wise and humane equities of a true democracy, and the blind ignorance or the blatant folly which would array labor against capital, and masses against classes; between the forces that make for and those that make against truth and order and progress. The issues are portentous. Naught but education, thorough, free, universal, can win for us.

No less than we needed political federation do we need the federation of our educational forces from the primary school to the university—their federation and their loyal, effective coöperation.

UNDESIRABLE AND DESIRABLE UNIFORMITY IN SCHOOLS.

BY PRESIDENT CHARLES W. ELIOT, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

My subject is "Undesirable and Desirable Uniformity in Schools;" the word "Schools" being used in a large sense. To present it with tolerable completeness I shall be obliged to state some facts and principles already familiar to many persons in this professional assemblage. Education is properly the development and training of the individual body, mind, and will; but when it is systematized, and provided for many thousands of pupils simultaneously, it almost inevitably adopts military or mechanical methods, and these methods tend to produce a lock-step and a uniform speed, and result in a drill at word of command rather than in the free development of personal power in action. The interests of the individual are frequently lost sight of, or, rather, are served only as the individual can be treated as an average atom in a homogeneous mass. This natural tendency in systems of education I believe to be a great evil, particularly in a democratic society, where other influences, governmental, industrial, and social, tend toward averaging the human stock.

I. Let us first consider in some detail the undesirable uniformity in schools. The graded school of large towns and cities will supply our first illustration. In any room of a perfectly graded grammar school we find, in the fall, a single class of from forty to sixty children who are supposed to have had the same preparation for their coming year's work; who are to have the same lessons in the same books, at the same times, under the same teacher, throughout the year; who are to make as nearly as possible the same progress each day in each subject, and submit to the same tests at the same intervals. They are all kept together day by day, so far as is possible. The bright ones never work to their utmost, and are frequently marking time; the slow ones are urged forward at a rate which drives some of them to despair; and the ideal of the class is that of equal preparation, equal capacity, equal progress, and equal attainments. If at the beginning of the year the children are obtrusively unequal in capacity or attainments, it is an inconvenience to be regretted. The teacher will not be able to "handle her class" so easily as she could if they were all of the same mental size and strength. If at the end of the year they have not been pretty well evened up, the teacher has been less successful than she could have wished. This is an extreme statement of the most undesirable

uniformity in schools. This is the sense in which close grading is an educational curse. In my opinion the right aims in any room of a primary or grammar school are to recognize at the beginning of the year, as promptly as possible, the different capacities and powers of the children; to carry them forward throughout the year, each at his own gait and speed; and to turn them out at the end very much more different in capacity and attainments than they were at the beginning. It has always seemed to me that a teacher who did not discharge his pupils, at the end of each year, much more unlike in powers and acquisitions than they were at the beginning, was a proved failure. We all know that children, like adults, are not alike, but infinitely different; that the object of education, as of life, is to bring out the innate powers, and develop to the highest possible degree the natural and acquired capacities of each individual. An education or training, therefore, which at the end of four years, ten years, or twenty years, leaves the subjects of it alike in skill, capacity, or power of service must have been ill directed.

The individuals in any group of men and women, who start together in active life at about twenty years of age, become, through their various work, service, and experience, more and more different as they go on. We expect that at sixty their powers will be very different, having been exercised in unlike fields and in various measure, and that their acquired stores of knowledge and experience will be as different as their powers. This variety is at once the strength and the charm of human society. Now, the effect of school work on children should be analogous to the effect of life on adults, for school is preparation for life.

Let us take another illustration at a higher grade—the secondary school, represented in the United States by the high school, the academy, and the private preparatory school. These schools hold children until the seventeenth, eighteenth, or nineteenth year. By that time of life almost every peculiar mental or physical gift, which by training can be made of value to the individual or to society, is already revealed to its possessor, and to any observant friend, provided that the youth has had access to those various fields of human knowledge and research in which the various mental capacities and activities find play. If a youth has never had access to any studies except Latin, Greek, and mathematics, he will, perhaps, remain ignorant of his powers in scientific or historical study. If he has never had access to any language but his own, his linguistic gifts may be concealed from himself and his friends. This revelation to himself of a youth's natural predispositions and faculties is one of the principal objects of secondary education. Now, if the only school that the youth has attended has had a narrow, uniform programme, containing a limited number of subjects without options among them, this important object in secondary education may not have been attained for the individual. A good secondary school must have a programme of

studies larger and wider than any single pupil can follow, else its range of subjects will be too small to permit the sure fulfillment of this all-important function of a good secondary school—the thorough exploration of all its pupils' capacities.

Let me further illustrate undesirable uniformity in schools with a higher programme still—that of an old-fashioned college. A young man on completing his college course is to make choice of a profession. A large majority of the graduates of all our colleges go into the three learned professions—so called—into teaching, journalism, and the other literary pursuits, and into the various scientific professions. I need not say that the choice of a profession is of immeasurable importance in determining each man's future happiness and serviceableness. Now, these professions are so very unlike, calling for such different mental attributes and personal qualities, that the choice among them should always be led up to by clear indications of the individual's aptitudes and tastes obtained in earlier years. The young man who is fit to make a physician should have been earlier drawn irresistibly to chemistry, physics, and natural history. He should have exhibited a natural tendency toward those subjects, and that tendency should have been gratified. The young man who is to be a minister should have been drawn in college to the study of language, philosophy, ethics, sociology, and political science, and should have had ample opportunity to obey those natural attractions. The young man who is to be a lawyer should have felt disposed to study in college Roman and mediæval history, the history of institutions and governments, political history, ethics, rhetoric, and logic, and to practice discussion and debate in speech and writing. The journalist, long before he decides to begin his specific training as a writer for the press, should have been conscious of a preference for literature, sociology, political science, and history, and should have been drilled daily for years in the writing of English under criticism. Now, the uniform prescribed college curriculum gave no proper opportunity for the students to follow, each for himself, his natural leadings toward the wise choice of a profession.

Considering the diversity of discipline and knowledge which should underlie the professional training for these various callings, is it not wonderful that many generations of teachers should have advocated a uniform preliminary training for them all? Yet the old-fashioned, uniform, prescribed, elementary college course was just that—a preliminary training supposed to be equally good for those destined to any of the learned, scientific, and literary professions. It was a vivid example, indeed, of undesirable uniformity in schools.

People have always recognized the great diversity of power between remarkable individuals and the common run of men, and even the diversity between one remarkable individual and another. Thus, mankind has always refused to believe that its greatest benefactors belonged

to the common race of men—they were gods, or demi-gods—and everybody sees that Shakespeare, Napoleon, and Lincoln were types of quite indescribable diversity in character and mental powers. But mankind has apparently failed to perceive how different ordinary people are one from another; and human society, until it became democratic in organization, never had a fair chance to win the proper advantages from the real diversity of ordinary individuals. It required the mobility of democratic social classification to prove the importance to society of discovering all the small, peculiar gifts and faculties which reside in individuals. We know now that it is greatly the interest of society to discover and utilize the man, ordinary in other respects, who has the little gift of determining with certainty the commercial value of different sorts of wool merely by rubbing them between his sensitive fingers. We know that it is important to discover and educate as a surgeon the man who can feel more, and more certainly, with the tip of his fore-finger, in places out of sight, than any other person in the city. We know that it is for the interest of society to discover and train every man who has the peculiar eye to recognize by tints, which tarry but for an instant, the right temper of a steel drill. We know what a tremendous influence may come from a ploughman who can write verse, or from a peasant woman who can sing, if only their natural gifts be discovered and trained. We have lately learned that from two German workmen of the mechanic class—father and son—endowed by nature with an exquisite eye for tints and textures, may come, with proper training and encouragement, an entirely new method of illustrating flowers, so that they can be studied in colored glass models, both of natural size and of enlarged size, at all seasons of the year. It is the mobility of democratic society—a new thing in the world—which has brought home to us the importance of discovering and training each least individual gift and power. The greatest natural gifts reveal themselves, and the genius is as a rule independent of institutions of education. It is the humble, small, inconspicuous, but vastly more numerous, peculiar individual endowments which systems of education should take infinite pains to bring out. Uniformity in schools crushes and buries them.

Again, democratic society cannot help seeking equality of condition for all men, though it is not so foolish as to believe in equality of natural faculties or powers. Now, the best chance of securing an approximate equality of condition lies precisely in this discovery and development through education of the peculiar endowments of each individual in the community. The great capacities or powers do not lead to happiness and prosperity in this world any more surely than the small personal gifts. A little gift well utilized may do more for the individual and his family than a greater gift. The world does not reward men in proportion to the intellectual quality of their work. The village shopkeeper earns more

than his minister. Many a skillful mechanic, whose gift is one of the eye or the hand, earns more than the grade teacher or the newspaper writer. If public education discovered and developed the infinite diversity of gifts and powers among the school-children, the chances of an approximate equality of condition during the adult life of those children would be greatly increased. Uniformity in schools impairs these chances.

Any one who has had much experience in schools or colleges must have learned that as the course of education goes on, and new subjects are set before a class or group of pupils, the bright and the dull children not infrequently change places: those that were accounted bright become apparently dull, and those that were accounted dull become perhaps leaders. The reason is that the dull children have finally been brought to a subject in which they excel; while the bright ones, who have been exercising a faculty which they possessed in large measure, have been brought to a new field to which their powers are not adapted. Flexible and diversified school programmes will give all the children their most favorable chance; stiff and uniform programmes will not. No machine, like an army, a ship, or a factory, can be a democratic institution; for it demands from the many implicit obedience, and the subordination of the individual energy to the movements of the mass. So far as a school is a machine of uniform product, it must fail on that very account to serve as it might the real interests of democratic society.

I have thus far urged that a strictly graded grammar school, a high school or academy with a single limited programme, or a college with a uniform prescribed curriculum must suppress individual differences instead of developing them, and must leave individual capacities undiscovered and untrained, thus robbing the individual of happiness and serviceableness, and society of the fruits it might have enjoyed from the special endowments of thousands of its numbers. But this is not all the harm done by undesirable uniformity in schools. It also degrades the teacher's function, and converts his occupation, which should be varied and inspiring, into a killing routine which runs its round in a single year. I do not know how a woman teacher of one class in a grammar-school grade, who goes year after year through the same prescribed routine with pupils previously made as uniform as possible, and to be turned out as uniform as possible, can maintain any intellectual freshness or enthusiasm in her work for more than five or six years. There are many persons who say that teachers in the graded schools ought not to serve more than ten years at the outside, for the reason that they become dull, formal, and uninteresting; but, if this be true, it is certainly the fault of the system rather than of the teachers. If we go higher in the educational hierarchy, the same objection to uniformity holds. What can be the intellectual fate of a man who year after year is compelled to read the same extracts from the

same Greek and Latin authors, with boys at about the same stage of their education, who present to him not a carefully cultivated diversity of power and attainment, but the greatest similarity which the educational mill is capable of producing? Many of us can recall college teachers who went over the same text-book with the junior class in college every year for twenty years, making year after year the same hopeless effort to develop an interest in the subject in students who felt no attraction toward it; to drive the unwilling to make some attainments in it, however slight; and at the same time to satisfy those who had some aptitude for the subject in hand. It was a task well calculated to blunt the keenest enthusiasm, to destroy all pleasure in teaching, and to dull the mental faculties and scholarly aspirations of the victim. The main interest in the teacher's life is to be found in studying and developing the infinitely various mental and moral qualities of his pupils. A rigid, uniform programme, alike for all pupils, deprives the teacher of ready access to this most interesting field of his calling; and this degradation of the business of teaching is one of the most mournful results of undesirable uniformity in schools. A teacher who is to preserve his mental freshness and enthusiasm must seek to vary his teaching as much as possible from year to year, and to cultivate intimate contacts with pupils, whose infinite variety he recognizes and takes pleasure in developing. This principle applies just as well to the primary school or grammar school teacher as it does to the university professor. If it be observed, the teacher's life can never become monotonous, dull, or depressing.

It is proper here to recognize the obvious fact, that whereas twenty years ago the tendency in American schools was toward stricter grading, simultaneous promotions, and uniform prescribed programmes, the tendency in later years has been toward freedom and variety. Witness the introduction of English sides, or courses, into the old classical academies, the subdivision of the single high-school courses into three, four, or even nine parallel courses, and the recent introduction of heretical options into the sacred grammar-school grades. We begin to hear a good deal about loose grading, and flexible classification, and frequent irregular promotions. It begins to be recognized that close grading and stiff classification are not good things, but evil; and that uniform programmes, gradings, and promotion examinations are, at bottom, merely economical, mechanical inventions, which enable a city or large town to get tolerable school results from a large number of inadequately educated and poorly paid teachers, who are directed by a small number of better trained and more experienced principals and superintendents. One of the most encouraging school papers that has appeared of late years is the valuable report of Dr. Emerson E. White, of Cincinnati, on "Promotions and Examinations in Graded Schools;" a paper which not only describes evils, but also suggests remedies.

But is not a school or a college necessarily a machine in some degree? Is it not an organization for dealing as intelligently and effectively as possible with large numbers of pupils, who must be sorted, classified, and drilled, on general principles, in masses and not as individuals? Is not a school inevitably conducted with fixed hours of instruction in fixed subjects, with examinations long anticipated and prepared for, with uniform standards, and therefore with uniform means of enabling large numbers of pupils simultaneously to reach those standards?

All these questions must be answered in the affirmative, but with careful qualifications. A school or college must be a machine in some degree. Let it be to the least possible degree. Let us avoid to the utmost cast-iron rules, arbitrary enactments, and uniform prescriptions. Of course classification is necessary in every large school or college. Let it be as flexible and as frequently renewed as possible. Tests of faithfulness and of mental condition are also necessary at stated periods; but these tests should be directed to ascertaining what the pupils can do rather than what they know. There must be examinations, anticipated and unanticipated. Let them always be conducted by the teacher for the teacher, and as helps and guides in teaching and in learning. The teacher needs to ascertain, from time to time, by such tests, how his instruction has been assimilated by his class; and the pupils need to learn from them what the teacher expects of his class. Of uniformity in subjects, in the periods allotted to each subject, and in minimum standards, I propose to treat in the second part of this paper.

The best way to avoid undesirable uniformity in schools is to push steadily toward the individualization of instruction, by reducing the number of pupils assigned to one teacher. The larger the number of pupils assigned to one teacher, the greater the inevitable uniformity of method and pace, and the smaller the account that can be taken of individual peculiarities, good or bad. If one woman teacher has fifty to sixty pupils to deal with from nine o'clock in the morning until one o'clock in the afternoon, she is little likely to have leisure to attend to the peculiar capacities or the peculiar defects of individual pupils, and a semi-military machine method becomes inevitable. Such conditions may well make one contrast the graded urban school of to-day with the old-fashioned rural school of thirty years ago, to the advantage of the latter. In the New England village-school of forty pupils, the college undergraduate then taught a dozen classes; the pupils were at every stage of progress, and the bright boy or girl could pass rapidly from one class to another under the guidance of a sympathetic young teacher, whose work was various, and whose interest was keen in the progress of all his earnest and capable pupils. To the individualization of instruction will be added in time the careful study of each pupil's temperament, constitution, and mental aptitudes and defects by some method like

that so well described and practised by Superintendent Frye, of San Bernardino.

II. I turn now to consider desirable uniformity in schools; for there is such a thing, and it has great importance in a system of public education, extending from infancy to manhood and womanhood. Although it may not be best for all children to study algebra, geometry, zoölogy, physics, or a foreign language, there is probably a best way of studying each of these subjects, which best way all the pupils who attack any one of them should follow. Moreover, it is altogether probable that there are certain topics within each of these subjects which all children who take up the subject should study; and the expedient limits of each one of these topics can probably be defined with a good degree of precision. Again, if it be worth while to teach a given subject at all, there is probably some ascertainable number of week-hours which may best be devoted to it through some ascertainable number of years. Thus a convention of experts in teaching physics ought to be able to agree on the best topics in physics for beginners, the best mode of teaching the subject, and the number of year-week-hours which may wisely be devoted to it; they ought to be able to arrive at a similar agreement for the second stage in the study of physics, when the pupils, having mastered the elements, are ready for its more difficult problems; they ought to be able to agree how many topics can be advantageously taught to a class of twenty pupils, working six hours a week in the physical laboratory, and hearing three lectures a week, in the first, second, or third year of a progressive course on physics. If physics be one of the subjects which may be presented at college admission examinations, as part of the evidence of the candidate's fitness to pursue college studies, then teachers of physics in secondary schools, in conference with college teachers of physics, ought to be able to determine the reasonable limits of knowledge of that subject for a candidate for admission to college at the age of eighteen years. In like manner, if elementary plane geometry be one of the subjects taught in the seventh or eighth grade, it ought to be possible for experts to determine about how much geometry could advantageously be given to pupils of that grade, and in how many year-week-hours. Some pupils would do more than the advised amount; undoubtedly others would find it impossible to master so much; but a minimum standard for a given grade could probably be agreed on. Without desiring that all pupils should study the same subjects, or should move at the same rate through any subject, and making ample allowance for the very various aptitudes for each subject in any given group of children, it must still be possible by careful study and by comparison of views to determine the reasonable limits up to which each subject should be pursued at a given stage of the individual pupil's advancement. One pupil may begin algebra at ten, another at

eleven, another at thirteen; but whenever they begin algebra, if they devote a certain number of hours a week to it for a year, a reasonable minimum expectation of attainment within that first year can be established.

Conventions or agreements covering topics, time allotment, method, and appropriate tests for each of the subjects which enters into the grammar school programme, and into the high school and academy programme, are very desirable, in order to prevent waste of force and time at each of these levels of the national system of instruction. The grammar school programme is the foundation of the high school programme, and the high school and academy programmes are the foundation of the college courses. Now, although it is wholly unnecessary that all the pupils who go from the grammar schools to the high schools in any year should have studied the same subjects, it is desirable that all high schools should be able to count on all grammar schools having taught a given subject in a given way, with a range and scope agreed on, and up to a minimum standard of acquired power in the subject. So at the close of the high school period, it is neither necessary nor desirable that all candidates for admission to colleges should have pursued the same subjects; but it is desirable that their attainments in those subjects which they have pursued should represent a tolerably uniform number of year-week-hours, and should normally cover a definite number of selected topics in each subject studied in an agreed-on method. This is by no means the case at present. For example, Harvard and Yale universities conduct admission examinations at a large number of American cities, scattered over the country; but there are curious little diversities within the same subject in the requirements of these two universities. Thus, they both require Latin and algebra for admission; but every schoolmaster who presents candidates at both universities knows that the Yale requirements differ from the Harvard requirements both in Latin and in algebra. The Association of Colleges in New England has done something to diminish the absurd diversities within the same subjects in the admission requirements of the twenty colleges of New England; but there still remain many unmeaning and trivial diversities of a very vexatious character. The diversities within the same subjects which the schools and colleges of the country at large exhibit are, of course, much more serious and numerous.

Now, the number of subjects which enter into grammar school, high school, and academy programmes, though somewhat formidable when we imagine the attempt made to define the proper limits of each for school purposes, is still distinctly small. Considering the immense expansion of knowledge within this century, it is remarkable how few subjects are used in a substantial way for primary and secondary education. The requirements for admission to Harvard College are more varied than those of any other institution, in the sense that the number of options permitted to

candidates is larger than in any other institution ; yet the number of separate subjects is only sixteen. They are—

English.
Greek (elementary and advanced).
Latin (elementary and advanced).
German (elementary and advanced).
French (elementary and advanced).
History of Greece.
History of Rome.
History of the United States.
History of England.
Algebra (elementary and advanced).
Plane and solid geometry.
Trigonometry.
The elements of analytic geometry.
Astronomy.
Physics (elementary and advanced).
Chemistry.

The options among these subjects are so wide that at every annual examination for admission from seventy to ninety different combinations of subjects are presented, and hundreds of combinations are possible ; yet the examinations are conducted with perfect administrative ease, and with less labor and trouble on the part of the examiners than if one rigid set of sixteen examinations were prescribed for all candidates.

The Harvard requirements include at least two advanced subjects ; that is, two subjects to which the candidates must have given several years of study, and which have therefore been pursued beyond the elements. In seeking a just variety of gates of admission to the higher education, some colleges and universities have given entrance to persons who only present a considerable variety of elementary subjects, without any advanced subjects ; but such gates will always remain inferior to the traditional door of Latin, Greek, and mathematics, for the simple reason that they include no prolonged or advanced study of any one subject. The main reason why the ordinary programme of a so-called preparatory school yields a better training than the ordinary programme of a high school is that the pupil's attention is more concentrated ; that the number of subjects is fewer, and that each subject is carried farther. It has long been supposed that the superiority of the preparatory schools was due to the fact that Latin and Greek were there studied ; but my conviction is that their superiority is due chiefly to the concentration of work on a few subjects, and that many other subjects, if given as large a share of the pupil's time as the classics have had, would yield as good a result. However that may be, we may be sure that to study botany, zoölogy, geology, physiology, physics, chemistry, and astronomy, all taken together, in the scientific course of a high school for only the same time devoted to the single subject of Greek in the classical course, will not yield so valuable a training as to study the Greek. We may be sure that to study French two years and German one year three times a week will not yield so good a linguistic training as to study either language three years three times a week. In order to get good discipline out of any subject at the age of fourteen to eighteen, it must be pursued beyond its mere elements ; there must be prolonged and advanced study of it.

The admission requirements at Michigan and Cornell universities illustrate, in another way from that which obtains at Harvard, variety for the individual candidate procured through a few different combinations of a moderate number of subjects. Thus, at Cornell University there are four distinct groups of admission requirements; the first, and most difficult, composed of eleven subjects, the second of twelve, the third of eight, and the fourth, and easiest, composed of ten subjects. To make these four groups, only fifteen separate subjects are used. At the University of Michigan there are five distinct groups of admission requirements, containing from nine to thirteen subjects each, but using twenty-one separate subjects in all. The reason for the larger number of separate subjects at Michigan is this: to keep nearer the high schools, Michigan permits candidates to present among other things a selection from seven scraps of subjects, no one of which is supposed to be pursued for more than half a year.

Now, it is not desirable that all the American colleges should have the same requirements for admission, or that any college should have but a single set of requirements; but it would greatly facilitate the work of secondary schools if all colleges and universities should agree on the limits of each subject which enters into their requirements for admission, on the time to be devoted to it at school, the proper method of teaching it, and the fairest way of testing the student's knowledge of it. So much uniformity is desirable, and it is by no means unattainable. If four or five of the leading universities, such as Harvard, Yale, Cornell, Michigan, and California, should enter into an agreement on this subject, the work of the important secondary schools would, in all probability, be gradually conformed to the recommendations of the universities. At present, the subjects which enter into the ordinary grammar school grades are few in number, so that for these grades an agreement could be reached with more ease than for high schools; but the advantages to be derived by high schools and academies from an agreement for grammar schools covering the points above mentioned would be great, particularly by academies, because they receive pupils from many widely separated communities.

The great field, however, for the profitable application of the doctrine of uniformity by subject is public secondary education. The number of subjects which enter into the four years' course of many high schools in this country is large in comparison with the number used in grammar schools; but this four years' course is very commonly divided into three sections (classical, Latin, and scientific), within which a considerable number of options occur, so that no individual student is compelled to study all the subjects which enter into the course or courses. The following list, which is made up from the programmes of a considerable number of high schools situated in different parts of the country, is

believed to contain all the subjects from which high school programmes are now commonly made up:

1. English (including both literature and composition, and therefore comprehending the elements of rhetoric).
2. History (ancient, mediæval, and modern).
3. Civil government.
4. French.
5. German.
6. Latin.
7. Greek.
8. Arithmetic.
9. Algebra.
10. Plane geometry.
11. Solid geometry.
12. Trigonometry.
13. Analytic geometry.
14. Physical geography.
15. Geology.
16. Botany.
17. Zoölogy.
18. Physiology.
19. Physics.
20. Chemistry.
21. Astronomy.
22. Psychology.
23. Moral philosophy.
24. International law.
25. Political economy.
26. Science of education.
27. Music.
28. Drawing.
29. Stenography.
30. Bookkeeping.

After all, these subjects are but thirty in number, and it ought not to be beyond human wisdom to lay down the approximate limits of each subject for the years between fourteen and eighteen, the right method of study in each subject, and the proper number of year-week-hours to be devoted to each. It does not seem impossible that a board of experts should agree that a few of these subjects are desirable for all pupils, but that the great majority of them should be optional subjects. Perhaps there are in the list some subjects which such a board would agree ought not to be included at all in a course intended to cover the years from fourteen to eighteen, unless, indeed, as reading matter. In the whole course of organized education from five years of age to twenty-five, the public high school presents the greatest difficulty for the attainment of uniformity by subject. Since the adoption of the elective system by all the principal colleges, the variety of subjects attempted in the high school by the individual pupil is greater than in any other institution, considering the shortness of the course; and from necessity most of the subjects are treated only in their barest elements. The old-fashioned curriculum in the American colleges was just such another exaggerated group of elementary subjects; but that was partially redeemed by the fact that Latin, Greek, and mathematics had already been studied for several years by students admitted to college, and that these three subjects were insisted on during the greater part of the college curriculum.

There is much to be said in favor of the growing practice of organizing a city school system in twelve grades, without dividing these grades into groups called primary, grammar, and high. Among other advantages gained, uniformity by subject and variety for the individual pupil are

both facilitated by this arrangement. It makes it easier to provide that the twelve grades may be finished in nine, ten, eleven, or twelve years. There is no real division corresponding to these three traditional groups, and the nomenclature which implies a division probably has some effect to diminish the proportion of pupils proceeding to the upper grades.

The introduction of new subjects into the grammar-school course—already begun in many places with vigor and prompt success—is going to affect very favorably the high-school programmes, and will bring us perceptibly nearer to the realization of the only truly democratic school principle—every grade to provide the best possible power-training for every pupil at his stage of progress, no matter at what age his education is to end. More information can never compensate at any age for less power. To give children whose training is to be short a poorer education for power, just because their years in school are to be few, is surely to add injury to misfortune. The enrichment of the grammar-school grades means options for the individual pupil, and probably means also a differentiation among the grammar schools of the same town or city. Either of these improvements will reduce undesirable uniformity, and promote the advent of the desirable.

Our governmental institutions supply no broad, authoritative supervision of education. The national government has no function of that sort. Some of the newer States have a State superintendent and county superintendents; but the authority of these officers is often limited, and their tenure brief and uncertain. Many of the older States have no such officers. In the main, the administration of education is local, each town or city being independent as regards school administration. Accordingly, the best hope of exerting an influence throughout the nation over school and college programmes is through the voluntary action of a few experts in each subject of instruction, who can command the coöperation of institutions which have obtained an acknowledged preëminence, and can act under the sanction of an association having a national organization.

As encouragements in an undertaking which looks arduous, I take time to mention four interesting instances of considerable changes brought about in the United States by the voluntary coöperation of a few competent persons and corporations—one in practical affairs and three in educational. The change in practical affairs was the adoption of the standard times across the continent. This improvement was brought about by some of the principal railroads acting on the advice of a few astronomers. It was the work of a small number of strong corporations and of a few experts. Yet it affected the daily lives of almost all the people of the United States, and in those sections where the standard and the local time differ by nearly or quite half an hour the population was distinctly inconvenienced by the change.

The first of the educational changes to which I refer was the early

replacement of Euclid in American schools and colleges by much simpler geometries, translated from the French. This great improvement was achieved by a few mathematical teachers in leading institutions. In England, Euclid was retained for two generations after it had practically ceased to be used in this country.

A second interesting result of effective leadership in a few American colleges and schools is to be seen in the adoption of the so-called Roman pronunciation of Latin, which, being recommended by two or three professors of Latin in leading institutions, spread rapidly over the whole United States, and is now the accepted pronunciation in most schools and colleges. In sharp contrast to this result is the actual state of things in England, where the professors of Latin in Oxford and Cambridge united in recommending the adoption of the new pronunciation more than twenty years ago ; but their recommendation has as yet had scarcely any effect in English schools and colleges.

The third educational change which has proceeded from a few centers in this country, and yet has been rapidly and widely adopted, is the substitution of the laboratory method for the book method in teaching natural science. This is the most important improvement in educational methods during the past twenty years, for it gives science for the first time a fair chance in the competition among subjects as discipline. The new method yields the real training which science is adapted to furnish; whereas the book method yielded nothing characteristic of science, and for memory training science so studied was inferior to history, grammar, and literature.

I urge, then, that uniformity in schools is undesirable so far as it means uniform subjects, gait, and pace, for individuals; that it is desirable so far as it means selection of all the subjects which may wisely be included in the successive grades, either for all pupils or for some pupils, definition of those subjects, determination of the average or ordinary time to be devoted to each subject, and prescription of the methods of instruction appropriate to each. And, finally, I believe that the most hopeful way of bringing about that desirable uniformity is through recommendations as to selection, definition, time allotment, and method, which proceed from judicious experts acting under the sanction of a national association like this, to be soon adopted provisionally by a few leading cities and institutions, and to be constantly improved by coöperative experimentation in many institutions and school systems year after year in all parts of the country.

ETHICAL CULTURE IN THE KINDERGARTEN.

BY IRWIN SHEPARD, WINONA, MINN.

THE importance of ethical culture in school education is questioned by no one, and there is little difference of opinion as to the general character and aims of such culture; but the times, the methods, and the means are not agreed upon among teachers, and few individuals, even, are satisfied with their own solution of this many-sided question.

I am asked to discuss the relation of this culture to that department of school training which is scarcely yet recognized as a part of the national public school system, but which is winning its way to recognition largely through what it has done and is peculiarly fitted to do for ethical as well as physical, emotional, and intellectual growth.

The more clearly we understand the philosophy of education, the farther back toward infancy do we fix the time when systematic philosophical instruction should begin. During the past quarter of a century we have elevated the primary school to the place of chief importance in our educational system. Yet when the child enters the lowest class of the primary school, at six years, we must presuppose an education which in extent and importance will hardly be matched in the next sixteen years. He has already acquired a language; a knowledge of the external world; a facility in the use of senses, memory, imagination, and reasoning; habits of attention or non-attention; a code and a practice of ethics which often makes his whole school life largely supplemental or corrective. That period of child-life which can wisely be set apart with care for the physical growth only is very brief, if indeed it exists at all, and in the period intervening before school life is ordinarily begun the ethical as well as the intellectual bent is largely determined. We have come to realize that no child even begins life anew, but comes to it endowed with the accumulated power of inherited tendencies, not to say fixed ancestral habits. If these tendencies and habits are ever to be modified or overcome, it must be done in the very earliest years before they become rigid through exercise.

The great ethical battle of life is between the two opposing forces of the self and the not-self, the individual and the general interest; and who that has stood in the presence of the petted, untrained, selfish, self-willed child of three years, will not say that the battle is already on and will be won or lost before school life begins?

Language comes early to the child as the expression of his budding thoughts, but it does not come earlier than those social acts which are the expression of his ethical emotions and concepts. The wonderful

achievements in sense perception, discrimination, assimilation, association, memory, imagination, and reasoning which must precede a child's first sentence are fully equalled in the complexity of interlacing and interacting perceptions, emotions, desires, and volitions which condition his first social act as his first sentence of ethical language.

All this would seem to point to the home as the place where ethical culture should begin, and so it is. No institution can or should displace it, as no love or care can or should displace a mother's love and care ; but if every home were an ideal home, and every mother a true teacher, with no busy tasks to turn her from the training of her children, it would be found that the ethical culture of the home, beautiful and essential though it be, is necessarily incomplete. No educator has seen this so clearly, or has done so much to honor the home and to aid the mother in her responsible duties to her child, as Froebel. He would have her realize that education begins with the mother-play and the nursery-song. Through his Mutter und Kose Lieder he sought to bring the spirit and methods of kindergarten philosophy into the home and make of each mother a true kindergartner.

At its best, the home has its limitations. It may train with loving care in the knowledge of the right, and may develop the full strength of noble emotions ; but the highest ethical culture of the home often results in only ideals of duty, without either the disposition to do or the habit of doing the duty—in moral temperament rather than moral character.

The very affection which has surrounded the child and guided his growth in filial love often makes difficult the exercise of that altruistic choice of the right which is alone the ethical element of an act. Beautiful as filial and fraternal affection is, it may become so self-centered in the common self of the family as to become purely egoistic and hinder true ethical growth, which springs only from the soil of a broader fellowship. Ethical culture without an opportunity for the exercise of altruistic love is impossible.

The power and habit of feeling rightly and beautifully, and of knowing truthfully, constitute an ethical tendency, which becomes an ethical element of culture only when it finds its expression in the good, the beautiful, and the true act.

The home does not often furnish the conditions of fellowship essential to such ethical training unless the family is a large one, and then, too often, the child reigns as a crowned king over the subservient older brothers and sisters, until in turn he takes his place as the slave of a later and younger prince, while neither condition has been conducive to ethical growth.

The kindergarten furnishes the fellowship of equals so essential to the action and interaction of forces in which the ethical habit is best fixed. It is here that many a child first loses his little self in the greater self of

the community, and realizes the ethical kindergarten motto, "Each for all, and all for each." And in losing himself he first finds himself; for it is here that the birth of self-respect, through individual thinking to a definite end, individual feeling to a worthy choice, and individual willing to the accomplishment of a right action, comes like the dawn of a new morning to the kindergarten child. Here he learns to meet and to bear the responsibility of his own act, and to measure himself by the highest standards of justice, truth, and generosity, while in their felt presence he learns to conquer and govern himself.

Froebel rightly conceived the first principles of educational philosophy when he said: "It is my firm conviction that whatever gives a child pure, persistent pleasure is connected with some deep truth in his nature, and has in it the germ of highest possibilities."

But Froebel also saw that a child's play did not always yield a pleasure which was either pure or persistent; but that it was more often a capricious activity which reaches a pleasure-giving end only by accident, while it leaves no healthful habit in the actor. So he devised the kindergarten gifts, occupations, and song-games, in which the ruling thought is simple and truthful purpose in play, in which every act that enters into the builded blocks or woven mat or folded sheet or happy game stands for a clear and definite idea—for a general truth so simple that the child grasps it with ease, yet so true for all time that he will never outgrow it or leave it behind; a truth which will be his pillar of cloud by day, and his pillar of fire by night, in all of his journeyings through the wilderness of social life.

To unfold within a child's mind simple but great truths, so that they linger on his lips, are hummed as he works, break into song as he plays, are acted in his games, and are interwoven with all his happy hours, is the method of ethical culture in the kindergarten. In this way did Froebel aim to secure the first great end of all education, which Thring calls "setting the loving and the hating on the right track."

It is a well-established principle of educational philosophy, that all mental growth has its origin in a self-directing energy which acts and reacts on the world about. The later growth is largely conditioned by the character and definiteness of these early reactions out of which all concepts are built; and whatever interests, and therefore holds, the attention directs the will.

I need not discuss the value of the kindergarten exercises in establishing the early mental activities and habitudes which make for the best intellectual growth. The ethical value of these exercises is not less prominent; indeed, the two phases of growth are most happily blended. A gift in the kindergarten does not come to the child as gifts usually do—the embodiment of another's thought and labor; but as material upon which he may work out his own ideal, and which stands when completed as the

well-earned reward of its young designer and maker. With the pleasing consciousness of individual creative power comes the ethical consciousness of individual responsibility for the use of that power. The occupations no less emphasize the moral lessons, that one may enjoy the rewards of his own labor and of that alone, that nothing is right unless it is exactly right, that all unused material is wasted material, that harmony in color and song is not more necessary or beautiful than harmony in social life, that the law of opposites applies to things that are right and wrong as well as to things that are right and left.

It is here that the child best learns that great ethical lesson of obedience, obedience to law, which constitutes the first steps in realizing that individual liberty without which there can be no moral growth. Richard Hooker voiced the great ethical principle of the kindergarten when he said : "Of Law there can no less be acknowledged than that her seat is in the bosom of God ; her voice the harmony of the world. All things in heaven and earth do her homage—the very least as feeling her care, and the greatest as not exempted from her power ; both angels and men and creatures of what condition soever, though each in a different sort and manner, yet all with uniform consent, admiring her as the mother of their peace and joy."

The youngest child in the kindergarten learns to know and to obey that voice which is "the harmony of the world" and "the mother of his peace and joy," for Froebel has based every exercise of the kindergarten on definite law, requiring exact obedience to secure any result whatever; the law of rhythm, the law of opposition and contrast, the law of number, the law of unity and proportion in design, and all the other laws of Froebel's philosophy, which are as inexorable as they are beautiful and tender and true. It has been said that there is music in heaven because there is no self-will there ; but perfect self-willing, obedience to law. It is the glory of the kindergarten that it teaches so beautifully and thoroughly the first lessons in such obedience.

The games especially furnish the social intercourse of equals so essential in ethical training. Here the domineering and arbitrary spirit and all forms of rudeness are checked ; diffidence and self-distrust yield to gentle encouragement. Here there is a minimum of theory about the duty of self-restraint, self-denial, and love for others, and a maximum of practice of courtesy, gentleness, kindness, and love in a sunny atmosphere of happy play where "Virtue kindles at the touch of joy."

The kindergarten has been fitly called the soul-school for children. Froebel recognized the symbolic age of the child, and so he blended a spiritual symbolic training, through the Mutter und Kose Lieder, with the physical and intellectual activities of the gifts and occupations, and the ethical culture of the social games. It is in the mother-songs that the child realizes his spiritual self, in the highest type of self-activity freed

from the limitations of matter, physical power, or social surroundings, and builds with clear vision and joyous zeal his ethical ideals. The analysis of a single mother-song, "The Three Knights," shows the range and depth of its ethical symbolism. It teaches: the child's responsibility for his acts; the reward of loving deeds, in the loving esteem of friends; ideas of right must conform to the universal standard of truth; only the highest ideals are worthy; the distinction between right ideals and right acts; the ethical value of right effort as distinct from the accomplished result; the dependence of social harmony on individual generosity; the "discipline of consequences."

The value of these ideals appears in Froebel's thought, "The clearer the thread which runs through our lives backward to our earliest conceptions of pleasure and right and duty, the clearer will be our onward glance to the goal."

Childhood is the age of poetry and song, and kindergartners have done well in adding to "Die Mutter und Kose Lieder" a wealth of songs and poems for children with which our literature abounds. The song of the "Great, wide, beautiful, wonderful world;" Lucy Larcom's glad song of "The Brown Thrush," in which it seems indeed as if

> "The world's running over with joy;"

Mary Howitt's "Buttercups and Daisies,"

> "Speaking to our hearts of Him
> Who doeth all things well;"

Jane Taylor's "Violet," teaching

> "That I may also learn to grow
> In sweet humility;"

and the sweet song of Little Christel, with its lesson:

> "Do noble things, not dream them all day long,
> And so make life, death, and that vast forever
> One grand, sweet song,"

are but types of the many that deserve and find a place among the child-songs of the kindergarten.

But it is not the songs alone that so beautifully cultivate the ideal side of child nature. The kindergarten story as well furnishes means for ethical training, limited only by the genius and skill of the kindergartner to select and adapt from the world of human thought and action.

So thoroughly interwoven is ethical culture with every element of kindergarten philosophy and practice that we cannot but say:

> "The paths that lead us to God's throne
> Are worn by children's feet."

Who ever visited a true kindergarten and did not feel thrilled by the abounding presence of the good, the beautiful, and the true, in ideal, in purpose, and in action?

The wonderful hold which the kindergarten has on the confidence of the educational world is not due to its value for manual and intellectual training so much as for its beautiful ethical culture in that joyous atmosphere in which "love is the fulfilling of the law."

ETHICAL CULTURE IN ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

BY MRS. DELIA LATHROP WILLIAMS, DELAWARE, OHIO.

In the short time allowed for this paper it will not be possible to enter into any detailed treatment of the topic of the hour—"Ethical Culture in Primary and Secondary Schools." I shall therefore present but the briefest statements, hoping that the discussion which follows will supply details.

I assume that all who hear me admit both the desirability and the practicability of direct and methodical moral training in the common schools; and also the possibility and practicability of basing this training upon the principles of moral science, so that this phase of education shall be no more empirical and inconsequent than the training of the intellect.

Every member of this Association recognizes the fact that character is vastly more important than mere intellectual attainment, and the further and vital fact that intellectual attainment is largely dependent upon moral character. Lack of moral sense in children and youth is likely to issue in such phases of wrong-doing as very much to embarrass the work of intellectual culture, if not to make it altogether impossible. Only the pure and high-minded youth is in the narrow way that leads to the highest intellectual life. All immoralities that absorb the attention, or unduly excite the imagination, are in direct and immediate antagonism to school work; all habits that work harm to the body directly affect mental ability; all lax moral conditions—such conditions as demand no conscience, no "right-because-it-is-right" rule of action, no standards planted under which to fight the omnipresent inclination to self-indulgence, idleness, cheating, and sham work of every sort—make the highest intellectual achievements impossible. There is but one royal road to learning, and that is the highway of moral purity.

The *a b c* of moral instruction is not to be taught even in the primary school. The average child of our public schools, from the time he was first able to comprehend a command of his parents, has been compelled to

form moral judgments upon his own acts and those of his mates. The patrons of our public schools wish their children to be respected and respectable, and the home rule is, in the main, in the direction of correct living.

Most of the children of our public schools attend some sabbath instruction, in which further emphasis is put upon morality of conduct. Then "A Boy's Town" itself has a code which is mainly on the side of honor and truth, and which is good as far as it goes.

Yet the character which the average child brings to school is both very imperfect and very incomplete. Even if the utmost care were exercised by the parents, the home training would require constant reinforcement in the school training.

Growing intelligence, and the consequent larger outlook upon life, bring with them new ethical inquiries; and the circumstances attending the constant association of large numbers of children not only give rise to new moral questions, but tend to destroy a sense of personal responsibility in the more conscientious, and to embolden and make aggressive the evil-minded.

What is attained in ethical culture outside the school furnishes a basis for school work, a "known" element from which to proceed to further instruction. It is the business of the public school to find what has been already done in the cultivation of the virtues which lie at the base of a sound moral character, and, building upon these, to correct false notions, to supplement the lack of correct principles of action, and as far as possible to render right thinking, feeling, and doing habitual. This is not an easy task.

It is the universal judgment of teachers that formal moral instruction is much more difficult than intellectual culture. This arises from several causes.

First, teachers are not prepared for the systematic teaching of ethics. It is true that in order to teach practical morality it is not necessary to teach a *system of ethics,* but the teacher of practical morality must get his order of sequence, his terminology, his knowledge of the relation of the intellectual and moral faculties, and his justification for his positions, from the science of ethics, which has its roots in the nature and relations of the powers of the soul. Only so can the teacher be a wise master-builder, knowing the exact place of each block which he puts into his structure. I have recently been watching the building of a large and complicated stone edifice, and the marvel to me is that there has been no fitting of stones to their places required on the ground. The entire plan is so present in the minds of the builders that each stone is prepared and marked for its place before it is delivered. The workmen on Mount Lebanon had the same secret thirty centuries ago, for the record is: "And the house was built of stone made ready before it was brought

thither, so that neither hammer, nor ax, nor any tool of iron was heard in the house while it was building."

I have been asking myself, again and again, whether we teachers are such trained workmen. Have we an ideal, and are our blocks carefully fitted each to its place, and does our structure go noiselessly up according to the pattern? I have sometimes feared that in an ill-advised haste we seize the first block of material we can reach, and with little estimate of its fitness for the especial demand, and with no all-comprehending plan, we fling it upon the wall, and then despair of ourselves and our pupils because our structure does not come from our hands symmetrical and beautiful.

Before teachers are prepared to give moral instruction in any methodical and comprehensive manner, they must themselves be instructed in the science of the moral nature of children. Without this, ethical teaching is rote teaching, mere empiricism.

A second difficulty is that children require individual attention. Intellectual training may go forward in large classes, but character building is largely a heart-to-heart business. It requires personal contact, intimate association, genuine sympathy. In the schools the numbers are large, and the teacher finds it next to impossible to come into intimate relation with each pupil. No two children have the same mental or moral characteristics. Natural temperament and home surroundings must be taken into the account in estimating the real character of pupils. Children must be reached by different methods. The motives that influence one child will not reach another.

Again, the circumstances of the same child differ. What will influence him to-day would have been powerless yesterday. A new experience has come to him, a new door is opened, and access is now possible. There come climacteric experiences in the life of every child; a day arrives when it is as if he had a peep at life through a Lick telescope. The soul opens its eyes upon a new heaven and a new earth. All nature begins to talk to him in a half-articulate, awe-inspiring way. Then he begins to question the past and the future. Happy the teacher who can read his opportunity in the new light of the boy's face. More can be done in an hour's wise conversation now, while the moral fiber is all vibrating with this thrill of new power, than in all the previous years.

Not infrequently the difference between success and failure depends upon seizing just the critical moment "to do the right thing, to say the right word, to give the encouraging or the reproving look."

Routine may not be fatal to intellectual teaching, but character building cannot so proceed. There must be quick apprehension of motive, quick play of emotions, ready adaptation of means to ends, just discrimination between physical infirmity, flaccidity of will and moral obliquity. For a man to be weak may be a sin, but not so for a child. When on that sultry forenoon in which Dodd fell from grace and became restless

and mischievous again, the wise little Amy Kelly sent him on a quarter of a mile race to the old maple tree and back, she knew that the difficulty was a purely physical one; that the undue accumulation of nervous force must be used up, and that there could be no equipoise till the excess of animal spirits was exhausted. So she held her watch to mark the time, and when he returned told him how many minutes he had been gone and bade him take his seat; and between wondering why he was called on to perform this feat, and being tired from his race, he was a good boy all the rest of the morning. Not all teachers are geniuses, but all can make a study of children, and get much nearer their inner selves than most persons do. Except one become a little child he cannot enter this kingdom of service for children. Childlikeness of spirit is a *sine qua non.*

A third difficulty is that character is of slow growth. A friend of mine is accustomed to say that it takes twenty-one years to civilize a boy after you have caught him, and then he is not civilized.

It requires a large measure of faith to work on, never "bating heart or hope" when no returns are discoverable. In moral instruction there are no examination tests by which to prove our faithfulness, no brilliant class-day performances to gratify our pride and secure to us commendation. What we are working for is not an intellectual apprehension of duty, a mental assent to the right and dissent from the wrong; but a habit of right thinking and feeling and acting. Habits are growths, and who sees a character grow? He sees it least who is in deepest sympathy with it. Oh, the patience, the faith, the love it requires to fashion the soul of the average boy into the nobility of manhood! Anxiety cannot do it. Fussiness will spoil all. Perpetual repression is fatal. There are a thousand ways not to do it. "Except one become as a little child," one cannot find the one right way.

I cannot pass on to the discussion of formal ethical teaching without a word upon the power of *unconscious moral tuition.*

The pupils in our primary and secondary schools are at the most plastic age, that in which habits are most readily formed, and are most tenacious. During these years, the capable and strong teacher is an almost omnipotent factor in the child's life. He is the child's ideal of attainment and behavior. His opinions are unquestioned; his decisions are final.

You know what a marvelous power there is in the influence of a strong teacher. You have felt this power in your own childhood. You may not even now be able to analyze it or trace it to its sources, as I cannot, but you have known teachers whose lives, flawless under the keen scrutiny of their pupils, have been the most powerful element of their teaching. Who can estimate the actual value to a child of living with such a person in the intimate relationship of the schoolroom six hours each day, five days in the week, nine months in the year?

But a noble character cannot be simulated. In the schoolroom a man must be what he seems, or he is a shorn Samson. This real nobility of character is essential to effective moral training. It is not mere *saying*, but *being*, that counts with pupils. From the nature of the case, the teacher stands before his pupils as the exponent of his teaching, and if there be any divergence between his character and his precepts, what the teacher *is* will weigh vastly more than what he *says*. An artist may hide his own personality behind his pictures, an author may live a life outside his books ; but the *teacher* and the *man* are inseparable.

That there should be a vast amount of moral tuition connected with all the literary work of the school will be readily admitted. The building of character, the giving of pupils the mastery of themselves, the leading to the intelligent choice of the right, however attractive the wrong may be, is the chief consideration in every lesson, whether it be reading, arithmetic, or geography.

Moral instruction may be drawn from much of the matter of the text-books, not formal lessons, but the sharp, awakening blow which comes from a single question or remark: "Do you admire that boy, that girl, that act? Why? Describe the opposite. Do you like it? Why?" Such questions teach a discrimination between right and wrong, win the approval of the right, call attention to motive, teach pupils to reflect, awaken right feeling, inspire good resolutions, create a high ideal, and so prepare for the test in action.

But can formal moral lessons be profitably given in schools? Undoubtedly such lessons can be profitably given, but undoubtedly not all that have been attempted have been profitable. As has been before stated, teachers must base their methods upon the principles of moral philosophy and work in harmony with nature to secure the best results, and this has not always been done.

Moral science tells us that in order to secure correct action there must be, first, an intellectual apprehension of moral distinctions. Moral judgment must be developed and a habit of moral discrimination. Secondly, the feelings must be enlisted. A love for the virtues, such as purity, truth, justice, loyalty, must be stimulated, and a corresponding aversion to the vices, such as selfishness, deception, injustice, cowardice. The sentiment of duty must become the controlling one. Thirdly, a proper value must be attached to motive. The child is to be taught that the nature of an act is not determined by its appearance to one's associates, but by the subjective character which the soul of the actor has given it in its conception. The act in its true character is the mirror of the soul of the actor. This method of looking at action induces reflection and a sense of personal responsibility.

The will must be disciplined to choose the right, though solicited to do the wrong as easier and more pleasurable. These choices of right must

be so invariable that a habit of right-doing shall be formed and the power of solicitation to evil be broken. Then the boy becomes his own master. He has attained to freedom of spirit.

Can special lessons be so prepared and taught as to lead up to this ultimate result, the end of all living—perfect self-mastery ?

Let us see in the light of the most approved educational methods what characteristics such lessons must have.

1st, They should be given in the concrete, except, possibly, in the advanced classes of the secondary schools. The statement of abstract moral truths will have no power whatever to awaken the moral faculties of a child. Even *we* remember the illustration, the incident, the story, and forget the text. The basis of the lesson must be an incident from the present life of the child, from biography, history, or literature, vividly presented, and capable of teaching a moral lesson. It must be so positive in its character that the judgment of the class will decide on the right side. It must appeal to the sentiments. The feelings must be moved to confirm and fortify the judgment. The element of motive must enter into the incident, so that children can be led to determine the quality of the act in the light of it.

This is the limit of the teacher's direct work. The Creator himself can go no further. The *will* of the child is his own to exercise as he shall choose when occasion arises for his own moral act. Here personal responsibility begins, and every pupil is an independent soul. Compulsion may sometimes be resorted to for temporary ends, but moral victories come only through freedom of action. This thought of personal responsibility is a tremendous one when it is first comprehended by the child.

2d, These lessons should proceed from the known to the unknown, from the already attained to the immediately attainable. As before stated, the children come into our schools with many of the virtues quite established by home and sabbath training.

May it not sometimes happen that, not taking account of this, we do not give our pupils credit for the excellences they already possess, and by this failure make our instruction so puerile or so general that it is valueless ? It is in human nature to wish the good in it properly recognized. In a lesson upon truthfulness, for instance, it would be very unfortunate to assume that all the pupils are liars, and liars at every point. Far better would it be to note the circumstances in which all would undoubtedly tell the truth ; but suppose this particular temptation, out of the ordinary experience, then who has the will-power to resist ? Or the lesson may be addressed to some fault which prevails through lack of moral discrimination, as peeping into books in recitations, receiving assistance upon examination, etc. Often the conscience has not been asked to sit in judgment upon such matters.

3d, The lesson should have a specific object. This has been already

assumed. Not all selfishness, but one particular form of it; not all disobedience, but one especial phase of it—should come under discussion. Only so can the "thou-art-the-man" conviction come home to the child.

4th, It is without doubt true that moral conceptions are made more vivid by their expression in poetic form, and therefore a moral lesson may properly culminate in the memorizing of a beautiful sentiment poetically expressed. These "poetic gems" will remain in the memory, a restraint from evil or an impulse to good, long after the occasion which suggested them has been forgotten, perhaps after the teacher himself has passed out of mind. History is full of incidents where the snatch of a song or the verse of a poem has inspired fainting virtue, has opened a door of hope to a despairing soul, has been the very voice of God to one unused to hear him speak.

In closing, let me repeat with the utmost emphasis, that all moral teaching is a sounding brass and a tinkling cymbal—words, words, words—emptiness itself—unless the teacher has received the baptism of the spirit for this ministry to youth. Do you ask how one can secure this preparation?

First, By making conscience regal in the teacher's life. There must in no sudden wind of self-interest be a single flicker in his character. It must shed a calm, pure, steady radiance, which neither flattery nor defamation can affect. It is true that to be weak is only to be human, but the ideal teacher abounds in superhuman graces.

Second, By understanding and properly estimating the nobility of the teacher's calling. His is not a call to teach a few pages of geography, arithmetic, and grammar, each year, but a laying on of hands, setting one apart for the work of making out of very imperfect material men and women in the image of God. The great Teacher has shown the way. Let us study his methods, but above and infinitely more than all, let us study *him.*

Third, By learning to value childhood. God has given to children the leadership of the world.

We see everywhere the verification of Scripture, "A little child shall lead them." For whom is all the world toiling—the father in his shop, the mother at the hearth? For whom is the daintiest garment fashioned? For whose coffin are the sweetest flowers chosen? It is these priceless treasures of the home that are put into our care. We have accepted the responsibility. There is no charge compared to this.

Fourth, By getting into sympathy with children so as to see life from their angle of vision. To do this, one should talk with them, try their games, read their books and papers. No teacher of children can afford to ignore children's story-books and children's papers. Blessings be upon the good men and women who have drawn out for us the charming pict-

ures of child-life which can be found in our libraries and book-stores. One who can read them and not become a child again has "no part nor lot in the matter."

Fifth, By keeping a brave and cheerful spirit. Clouds may lower to-day, but the sun is shining somewhere, and our clouds will lift by and by; the heavens may weep to-day, but "into each life some rain must fall," to mellow and enrich it; immediate results are disappointing, but we are not building for to-day, but for eternity. While we are humble and faithful, all is going well. Hope is the sure and eternal anchor, and faith laughs at impossibilities, and cries, "It shall be done."

ETHICAL CULTURE IN THE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY.

BY CHANCELLOR JAMES H. CANFIELD, LINCOLN, NEBRASKA.

I AM to give twenty minutes this morning to the discussion of "Ethical Culture in the College and in the University." In such a brief time such a subject must be discussed in a fragmentary way, in an assertive way, and in a rather dogmatic way. There is little chance for carefully elaborated argument or for rounded periods. There is vast opportunity for misunderstanding and misquotation on the part of those who hear.

The subject is unfortunate not only in the time allotted to it, but in that it endeavors to cover and express the proper form of instruction in two wholly different fields. In spite of all that may be said to the contrary, we are rapidly differentiating the college and the university in this country, in life and in spirit, if not in curriculum and in form. It is already quite difficult to prescribe the same rules, or lay down the same lines for both. And the differences in point of fact are precisely those which affect to a great degree this very question of ethical culture. There is a certain fixedness and rigidity in the college, and a larger liberty and independence in the university. Very generally it is still true that immature youth are sent to the college by parents and guardians, while young men and young women, largely capable of making their own choice and of directing their own lives, go to the university. The one retains the old dormitory system; the other generally knows little or nothing whatever about this. The one has an exhaustive disciplinary code; the other simply asks for exemplary conduct and strict attention to business. The one has a fixed curriculum; the other gives larger latitude in choice of subjects. One still gauges advancement by recitations; the other seeks for growth by the freest discussion of largely independent work. In the one the faculty are taskmasters; in the other, co-laborers and friends. The one has pupils; the other has students. The one

dictates; the other inspires and guides. In the one, precept still largely controls; in the other, influence is by far the more important and effective factor. The one is still busy with the preparation for life; the other is the beginning of life itself, and the very highest kind of life. The student in the one is still of such age as to warrant direct and continual ethical instruction of the simpler and more direct form; the student in the other may profitably take a broad review of the history and philosophy of ethics, but especially needs to see and feel that ethical thought and life is not for nursery-maids and kindergartners, but fills a large place in the lives of strong and earnest men.

The methods of instruction, therefore, will vary between the two as they are sharply distinguished, or shade into each other. In one a certain grade of text-books will be used, in a larger sphere there will be a choice of different authors; while in the university there will be no text-books, but the largest possible use of the library. In the one there will be but a few weeks given to the subject, and in what may be called a second-hand way; in the other there will be as much time as the subject warrants, and as the student may choose to employ with more thoughtful work. One will be content with a single author, who has written expressly for the class-room, and for a rather limited constituency; the other will try to sweep the whole field from Spencer to Bascom and Hopkins.

Though I can readily believe that at the very threshold of all strong and righteous existence stands a keenly apprehensive and responsive intellect, I am very far from believing that the cultivation of the intellect alone is enough to answer the purposes of wise education, or of any education worthy of the name. There can be no question that all education lifts man above what are sometimes known as the common or baser crimes. The coarser forms of licentiousness, drunkenness, petty thieving, and midnight burglary—these and many of their kind are almost impossible to a man who has advanced at all in the walks of learning and scholarship. But they often seem impossible just as mere manual labor seems impossible, because there has been created a distaste for this at one and the same time with an ability to do more and better. And so it is that all intellectual education possible does not seem to lift men above forgery or counterfeiting, or gigantic frauds and steals. Indeed, sometimes unusual temptations seem to be brought to bear by the very fact of an unusual sharpening of the wits, and by the very sense of superiority to one's fellows in this respect. The crimes of reflection, as they have been called, the crimes of the higher passions, are not at all uncommon among the highly educated, especially where men have been content to let the intellectual faculties have full sway, with little if any thought of the ethical. When one examines a modern college curriculum, therefore, he can but be struck with the small part positive instruction in ethics seems to bear, and at once seeks for an explanation of this apparent negligence.

For all wise men recognize that that is a poor education which has not secured the right training of the will through the emotions; the only way in which the will can be reached and stirred at all. It is scarcely conceivable that any will was ever moved to action by mere intellectual concept. Let me assume at once, then, the necessity for ethical training, but let me also turn at once from forms of class-room instruction, and from the schools and authors, to that which I deem of far more importance, that which may in part account, though unconsciously account, for the short time given to positive and direct ethical instruction, yet that which seems to be only too often overlooked.

The main business of education is twofold—to secure power in man, and to secure dignity in man; to put man in the line of conquest, first of himself, since without this he can do nothing worthily, and to put man in the line of large and generous service. All success worthy of the name is conditioned upon this. If education is to enlarge the man, to enable him to stand outside of himself, and to give him a happy life, it must make him honorable and it must make him beneficent. Without this education is a failure, man is a failure, and life is a failure, in the saddest sense.

The trinity of powers which are conditions to this success are right thought, right feeling, and right action, each dependent on the others, neither long existing (if at all) without the others, and the three so closely interwoven as to be scarcely separable. These three alone can save us from all that is base and ignoble and narrow and selfish in man, and in the life of man. The greatest of these is right feeling. Thought and feeling go together, but it is feeling that gives power. They are like light and heat: we go but blindly without the one, but without the other we go not at all.

No instruction is sound, therefore, that has no ethical purpose in it or in its treatment. But while this is true, and while ethical instruction is good, ethical influence is far better. The difference between the two is the difference between the letter of the law that killeth and the spirit which maketh alive. It is the latter which I desire to push sharply this morning. Others may dispute about masters and schools, I much prefer conditions and results. All worthy results seem to spring from two conditions or factors—the ethical atmosphere of the institution, and the ethical influence of the faculty. I press these because, deny it as we may, we are just now unconsciously and consciously slighting these, though not ignoring them altogether.

Unquestionably the strongest form of moral influence and culture is that which comes from loving and unselfish contact. God recognizes this in the constant revelation of his fatherhood. Man recognizes it in the ready admission that in ethics the best school for the child is the sympathetic indwelling of the mother. The prime necessity, then, in any

institution that is to give strength to those under its influence, is a large and sympathetic life, the largest and most loving service to all who are within or who may possibly come within its walls, and to offer this service to all alike. This is the education that tends to the unification of society, to the general advancement of all, to the breaking down of barren pride and aloofness and reserve, to securing earnest life and unselfish life and wholesome life. The institution that exists for some given class; that tends to separate rather than unite society; that creates or continues and fosters artificial distinctions; that forgets to labor thoughtfully and intelligently for the welfare and advancement of all; that fails to welcome all; that adapts itself to a preferred few, rather than thankfully working side by side with the great uncommon common people—such an institution is unethical and practically immoral in all its life and influences. All the formal instruction in ethics known upon earth cannot save it from the final scorn and reproach of all true men and women. I recall not many years ago hearing an instructor in a celebrated Eastern college say that not one of its faculty would send his children to the public school in the town (though I happened to know that the school was of high rank) because it was "the common school, you know; and full of the children of artisans and day-laborers." An institution in which such a spirit exists is a constant menace to all ethical impulses and ethical life. A man may repent of licentiousness, and may turn from his cups, but if he is once attacked with exclusiveness in this malignant form he rarely recovers. He is a moral cripple and weakling all his life.

And so with the institutions that seem to love scholarship and erudition for their own sake; who make these ends and not means; who hug themselves with joy because they are not as other men, and especially are not as this practical fellow, who always wishes to know what may be done with what he is to receive. These are the institutions that weigh a single monograph on the *iota subscript* against years of devoted and successful life in direct ministration to public and common welfare. Their degrees and their commendations are for the men who publish something, not for the men who do something. They desire to sit in the shade by their own filled and overflowing fountain and minister to their own small segment of society, rather than that water should be poured out freely by the roadside for every passer-by. They mistake the scaffolding for the building. They think that mere erudition is better than power. They forget that handling any moral means below its level is in itself immoral; so they become the most unethical and immoral of all instructors. There is a constant divorce between such colleges and the activities of daily life; there is an utter lack of that true scholarly spirit which is tempered by a constant recognition of personal and institutional relationship; that turns to the immediate and pressing needs of one's fellow-men; that recognizes that man must live before he can live well;

that seeks first to secure the strongest and bravest of life in the state at large, through the strongest and bravest life of its students and through a certain large and well-defined publicity of life ; and there is ever present the spirit that talks about scholastic cloisters rather than the market place, and prefers the fossil leaves of ages past to the green blades and branches which wave in God's sunlight of this nineteenth century. No matter what may be its pretensions in morals or religion, no matter how padded its curriculum may be with the philosophy of ethics or ethical philosophy, here is the salt that has lost its savor, and is fit for nothing but to be cast out and trodden under foot of man.

This same weakness, and fatal weakness, of ethical influence, is also found with those institutions that forget that the first object and end of all wise instruction is to seek the truth, and that the truth may only be found by the freest investigation and research and discussion ; which hang an *index expurgatorius* on one wall of the library, and an *index prohibitorius* on the other ; which even question the wisdom and safety of any library or library methods ; which seem to forget that there is no Presbyterian geometry or Congregational astronomy or Lutheran geology ; and that the Episcopalians have no exclusive property in the rule of three, nor the Methodists in the laws of falling bodies, nor the Baptists in the hydrostatic paradox, nor Republicanism in economics, nor Democracy in civics and reform. This substitution of teaching tenets, secular or religious, in place of teaching the truth—though I am not to be understood as saying that the two are always and necessarily contradictory—is in itself constantly undermining the ethical strength of every student on the rolls.

Only the institution which is possessed of large and strong and brave and earnest life can possibly draw to it and retain in its teaching ranks the men and women who are best fitted to secure the same characteristics among the students. Yet next to the general atmosphere of the institution and institutional life, comes the power and influence of the faculty as a whole ; determined, of course, by the power and influence of the individual instructors. I am not sure that this does not touch the student more keenly and helpfully, or otherwise, than does the institutional life and spirit. If there exist that daily contact, that frankness between the teacher and taught, that ever-present sympathy, and that spirit of helpfulness that ought to characterize the daily life of all men worthy of the position of instructor and friend, there can be little doubt that here is the ethical power of the highest degree. Without this I do not believe that a man should receive the recognition of the profession by employment. I know that it is somewhat dangerous, in the State of Charles Bardeen, to speak of the ideal teacher ; yet it is delightful to know that in this State there is this one bold and daring and outspoken advocate of *manhood* as the first and most essential characteristic in all worthy instructors. And

what are the characteristics of manhood if they be not an ever-present sense of opportunity and of duty, unceasing industry, unwearied patience, the strictest honesty and integrity, the most unswerving candor and good faith, impartial justice, that high heroism that makes man ready and willing and glad to be worn out in gratuitous and generous service, that reverence which gives man his true place in the economy of God, that character that manifests all these daily, combined with such lower qualities as promptness, order, and accuracy, and that tempers all with friendship, sympathy, and affectionate regard for all under his care? These are the qualities that the world needs more than it needs great railways, or great cities, or great factories, or thriving commerce, or extended trade. And these are the qualities that will bring the young men and the young women who have the good fortune to be under such influences, not into a slavish discipline, but into a voluntary and glad conformity with what is right and just and true.

Yet think of the carelessness with which faculties are often made up in respect to these things. Think of the time-serving, and the indifference, and the idleness, and the jealousy and suspicion, and the unfaithfulness, and the selfishness, and the unlawful ambition gratified by unlawful means, and the want of loyalty, and the petty cliques and parties, and the thriftlessness, and the coldness, and the partiality, and the dishonesty, known to exist in so many faculties of even the highest institutions of the land. Think of young people coming under such influences, and stirred to take part in all this unworthy life, and even and often almost coerced into partisanship on the one side and distrust on the other. And think of the men who undertake to teach such ethical principles as temperance, with a reeking breath; or purity, with mouths often polluted by obscenity; or honesty, with a lecture yellow with indolent age; or duty, with a record of class work frequently neglected or slighted for trifling and personal reasons; or loyalty, while holding by sheer force a position long after usefulness has been outlived; or helpfulness, while never showing the slightest interest in student life or thought, or making the slightest sacrifice in its behalf; or sweetness and light, with extended chin and distended lips trying to draw fire and nicotine from a friend's cigar. And think of the established authorities of educational institutions ignoring such things because a man is "smart," or because he is "a noted specialist," or "is a frequent contributor to leading magazines," or is "a recognized authority." It is not difficult for me to recall a surly, indolent, ill-mannered brute, who long held high educational place for one or more of these reasons; nor do I forget the fact that those who attacked him had to bear the odium of inability to appreciate his "expert knowledge," and were themselves assailed as willing to lower the standard by putting an inferior man in his place. I well recall the remark made in my hearing a few years ago, by one of the great college presidents, "I cannot

scrutinize this man's character too closely, for he is one of the ablest entomologists in the country"—which was simply establishing an utterly wrong basis of selection and appointment. Young people are neither fools nor blind, though we often live as though we thought them both. I prefer the estimate of a man's students in the long run to that of his associates or contemporaries; and the result of this intercourse with his students is the very best criterion. It is a safer basis on which to elect or reject a candidate. And all the formal study of ethics known to man is of no consequence whatever under the conditions and influences at which I have just hinted.

I beg you not to misunderstand me. I am not even intimating that many of those engaged in the work of higher instruction are immoral. But some are; and more are unethical, and still more are non-ethical, in character and in influence. I simply wish to enter a strong protest against the present worship of mere intellectualism, and to make a plea for giving due consideration and a proper value to intensity, to sympathy, to earnestness, to all true manliness and womanliness, as of the highest ethical value in connection with ethical instruction, as with all instruction. And so I come back abruptly to my starting point. Make the institutional life and the life of the faculty, collectively and individually, what it ought to be; create an atmosphere in which every instructor and every student is expected to do his duty, and his whole duty, and simply because it is his duty; and there will be no trouble about the teaching of ethics. Whether it be material or Christian; whether it be natural or revealed; whether it be evolutionary or inborn; whether it be human or divine—and I am very far from saying that it matters not what form instruction takes—there will be at least this inspiration that comes with and from all higher life, without which all formal instruction is worthless, and with which without formal instruction man may walk with his forehead touching the stars.

DISCUSSION.

Dr. E. E. White, of Ohio: I am asked to attempt the impossible task of discussing three twenty-minute papers in fifteen minutes. I obey orders, and let the responsibility for the result rest on the President of the Association.

The first agreement of these three papers, to which I devote a minute, is their clear recognition of the important fact that ethical training is the central function of the school, and character its supreme test. It seems to follow from this fact that moral training should not be crowded into a corner, and given the odds and ends only of school time.

Another agreement of the three papers is their recognition of the fact that the one essential condition of vital ethical training is *character in the teacher*—that the one element that surely works for righteousness in a school is rightness in the teacher's life. It is thus seen that in ethical training character stands before intellectual culture or learning. What is this but a recognition of the historic fact that the most uplifting force that has yet touched the human race is the inspiring life of the Great Teacher?

The supreme ethical need of the school is an inspiring life back of precept, a soul-inspired manhood back of instruction.

We have at last learned that it is not words on the lips, but truth dwelling regally in the life, that touches children's hearts with transforming power. Are we also ready to say with Dr. Huntington that "not the most eloquent exhortations to the erring and disobedient, though they be in the tongues of men or of angels, can move mightily upon our scholar's resolutions, until the nameless, unconscious, but infallible presence of a consecrated heart lifts its holy light into our eyes, hallows our temper, breathes its pleading benediction into our tones, and authenticates our entire bearing with its open seal"?

This suggests that the unwritten law of the school should be: "No man or woman shall enter as a teacher whose character and life are not fit models for the young to copy."

As we pass from these two elements of unity in the papers—the elements of end and condition—to the question of method, we do not find equal agreement, and for the good reason that they refer to pupils of widely different ethical experience and power. I cannot devote a minute to these differentiations in method, but I must go straight to the heart of ethical training in the elementary school, and here I can do but little more than repeat what was so beautifully said in the excellent paper by Mrs. Williams.

The specific leading purpose of moral training is the training of the *will;* the training of the will to act habitually from high and worthy motives. The practical outcome of moral training is right conduct, and right conduct is right motive carried out by an act of will into a deed. It is thus seen that will-training is, in its essential nature, the effective use of right motives, and here we touch the ethical weakness of thousands of schools. They seek to secure school results by an appeal to motives that are low and selfish; they thrust between the pupils and duty artificial incentives, and thus rob them of the joy and help of virtuous action. The two enemies of intellectual and ethical training in the schools are respectively mechanism and artificialism.

I do not believe that it would be possible for an angel from heaven to develop manly, true, and self-centered character in pupils by the use of the artificial incentives that have so long been used in many English and American schools—incentives that increasingly bring the will under bondage to low and selfish desires. Think of urging a band of pilgrims on the way to paradise, every step of the way attended with its own satisfying reward, by a swarm of hornets in the rear for the laggards, and alluring imps in advance waving prizes, class honors, honor seats, etc., and, at stated intervals, promotion tickets bearing the image of those gods of the modern school—90% to 100%. If his Satanic Majesty had taken the job of alluring these pilgrims to that other place, I could understand, in part, the philosophy of his tactics!

The time has come for a radical and thorough discussion of the whole question of *motive* as a determining element of ethical training.

Another important factor in ethical training is effective *moral instruction,* and what is now specially needed is the basing of such instruction on sound pedagogical principles. The ends to be reached by such moral instruction are the awakening of right feelings, the quickening of the conscience, and the development of clear moral ideas—the training of the moral judgment; and in the elementary school the materials for such instruction must be concrete examples—not didactic lectures, not the science of ethics—and fortunately this material is abundant in literature and in life. Here, as in intellectual training, we must begin with sense and end with reason; must begin with experience and end with principle and law.

I have only time to add that ethical training must give the pupil increasingly a clear perception of right conduct, and it must increase the imperativeness of the sense of duty, and, to these ends, ethical motives should be enforced by religious sanctions, and here, again, example will be found more effective than creed or dogma. The great law of right conduct is love to God and man.

MR. H. A. FISCHER, Wheaton College, Ill.—*Mr. President, Ladies, and Gentlemen:* I trust the authors of the admirable papers in many respects will kindly excuse me if I take no part of my five precious minutes in commending their excellent things. But if in some respects I shall not agree with them, I wish to have it understood that in many respects I certainly do agree with each one of them.

As your President has announced, I am—perhaps I ought to be sorry for it after what Chancellor Canfield has so eloquently said—I am, however, the representative of a Congregational college. It does seem to me that whatever Chancellor Canfield said was excellent about these educational institutions belongs to the college as well as the university. It is a matter of regret to me, as well as to the chancellor, that the subject

was not divided right here, and that a college man—not the one now speaking to you, but some more eloquent and able—might be permitted twenty minutes to speak for ethical culture in the college.

Let me proceed from the college and university into the kindergarten. How shall we teach unselfishness in the kindergarten ? I say the best way of all is to set before the children in the kindergarten the example of the one perfect, unselfish man that ever lived—the God-man, Jesus Christ.

How shall we teach obedience to law and recognition of the authority of law ? I say first of all by bringing into the hearts and lives of the children the consciousness of the fact that there is an authority supreme—an authority above all human authority. Children think that parents are the best people in the world ; at least, parents ought to live so that they can believe this. They are apt to think that their teachers are among the best people in the world, and I am glad to say that in most cases they do belong to the best people in the world. But when the child passes out from the round of school life and enters political life, how is it then ? Who are the ones to stand before him as the representatives of law ? Why, they are the men you send to Albany. They are the men that we in Illinois send to Springfield ; and I am not ready to say that we in Illinois send the best people to Springfield. I do not know what you New Yorkers will say about Albany. The political child, or when the child begins to be political in his thoughts and ambitions, sees before him the examples of politicians. How can you teach that child reverence for law after he has made his observations of the doings in his State Capitol, where a large proportion of the lawmakers had to be carried upstairs in an elevator, because they were too drunk to walk or stand in the elevator? How can children retain respect for law, unless we can show to them that there is an authority above all human authority ? However imperfect these men may be who represent the law, they represent in one sense the authority of God.

And then I want to say also what I read in a book written by the gentleman who preceded me, Dr. White, that in his opinion, at least, people will yet learn that it will be very difficult to teach morals correctly without reference to the best text-book on morals known, the holy word of God.

Supt. Ashley, of Troy, N. Y.—*Mr. President and Members of the Association :* I wanted to have a place here, because of a story that came to me concerning an incident that occurred years ago while I was teaching in the South. One negro met another and said, "Massa and I had a great 'spute this morning."

"What did you and massa 'spute about ?"

"Well, massa and I was down in the corn-patch, and he looked all over the field at the young sprouting corn, and he says : 'I think we are going to have a downright good crop of corn this year,' and I said, 'Massa, I think so too ;' and there we stood 'isputing about it for more than an hour."

Now, fellow teachers, I feel there is nothing for us to dispute about in regard to this matter. I will tell you why I sent my name up. Last February I was in Brooklyn, and I heard some excellent talk there in regard to kindergarten work ; and to-day the papers on "Ethical Culture in the Kindergarten," on "Ethical Culture in the Elementary and Secondary Schools," and on "Ethical Culture in the College and University" meet my approval.

About twenty years ago it was my pleasure and privilege to be a teacher in the schools of Wisconsin. I was there when they passed the law making the university a part of the public school system ; to allow a pupil in the high school to take the examination there, and send that examination paper to the university, without going to the university for examination, and so the pupil could be admitted to the university if he stood high enough in his per cent. Now, it seems to me we are doing, in many things, that which has been done years ago. The college stands for itself, the public school stands for itself, and the kindergarten stands for itself. If we were to take a vote to-day in this vast audience, in regard to the kindergarten, I think you would be surprised to see how many would vote it simply a play school. I was opposed to it when I thought of it that way ; but when I saw the possibilities of the kindergarten for intellectual development, for true psychologic growth, without the child knowing it, I became converted to the kindergarten.

One of the grammar masters in my State said to me the other day, "Why, all the teachers of the primary school say that the most difficult children they have to govern are those who come from the kindergarten." My only answer to him—and I want to say to all of you, and to the State superintendent, what I wanted to say in Brooklyn last February, but which I hadn't the courage to get up and say—was that you need to make the kindergarten and the primary school one by having the teachers of the primary

school instructed in the kindergarten method ; not alone in Froebel's method of object teaching, but in reaching the mind and heart of the child ; and if they do not know this, teachers should be told it. In the past thirty-six years I have talked with pupils and teachers, I have looked upon public employees in all departments from the highest to the lowest ; I have taught in the South, I have taught in Wisconsin, and I have taught in this State, and I want to say there are no public officials in the great Republic in which we live, none in the commonwealth, none in the municipality, that so faithfully, so earnestly, so conscientiously labor as do the teachers in the common schools of the United States. The great difficulty is, they do not know how to labor to the best advantage. What we need is that teachers shall be instructed in the normal and training schools, not alone in one branch, but in all branches of the elementary schools, from the kindergarten up through the university, so that there shall be one magnificent system of education ; not great stepping-stones, but one grand perfected whole.

Mr. Zalmon Richards, Washington, D. C.—*Ladies and Gentlemen:* I have only time to emphasize one thought which has come to me as I have listened to the papers and the discussion. It seems to me that the first element of human character, of making character in the training of our children, is to teach them obedience—obedience to the laws, their parents, their teachers, the laws of their country and their God. It seems to me, in relation to the kindergarten work, that we possibly need a little more of this principle inculcated into the minds of kindergartners, in the conduct of those schools, in order that this principle of obedience, unvarying obedience, shall be secured.

Then I would go and take up the second principle, to which a beautiful reference was made by the first paper, as to the influence of love—love for our fellow creatures first, love for the authority under which we live, love for God, love for the highest authority.

Then I would take, as the third point, the means that shall be used in the future culture of the child, carrying out the principles that have been so well brought out in the culture of the child, that it shall be a continued, constant culture, all the way through the child's life.

And finally I would say, as has been most emphatically brought out here to-day, give us the exemplary character, or all the instruction that can be given in the kindergarten, the primary, the secondary school, the college or university, will be of little avail.

REPORT ON THE WORLD'S EDUCATIONAL CONGRESS.

To the National Educational Association:

The undersigned would beg leave to report that a committee was appointed at the annual meeting held at St. Paul, and empowered by the National Educational Association to make provision for holding an international congress of education at Chicago in the summer of 1893, in coöperation with a local organization in that city, organized under Act of Congress by the name of The World's Congress Auxiliary of the World's Columbian Exposition. The committee thus appointed, after due deliberation, resolved on the formation of a committee of arrangements as the best means of providing for the work of preparing the programme for such international congress, inviting its delegates, and organizing its corps of presiding officers. Said committee was to consist of the U. S. Commissioner of Education, Chairman, and a number of other members appointed by him, subject to the approval of the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association, one for each department of the congress to be held. The Commissioner of Education, accepting the position thus tendered him, selected as his associates the following gentlemen :

James MacAlister, President of the Drexel Institute, for *Art Education.*

W. H. Maxwell, Superintendent Brooklyn Public Schools, for *School Supervision.*

W. N. Hailmann, Superintendent of Schools, La Porte, Ind., for the *Kindergarten.*

Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia College, for *Higher Education.*

Ray Greene Huling, Principal of the High School of New Bedford, Mass., for *Secondary Instruction.*

E. Oram Lyte, President of the Pennsylvania State Normal School at Millersville, for *Normal Schools and Training Schools for Teachers.*

James L. Hughes, Inspector of Schools of Toronto, for *Elementary Instruction.*

C. W. Bardeen, of Syracuse, N. Y., for *Educational Publications.*

N. Coe Stewart, Musical Supervisor, Cleveland, O., for *Musical Instruction in Schools.*

A. J. Rickoff, of New York, for *Manual Training.*

It should be mentioned that the following-named gentlemen were first appointed and resigned: F. L. Soldan, Principal of St. Louis High and Normal School, for elementary instruction; J. W. Cook, President of the State Normal University at Normal, Ill., for training schools; Walter Damrosch, of New York, for music.

It is proposed that a department congress devoted to schools of technology be set off from the Congress on Higher Education, and that Francis A. Walker, President of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, represent that department on the committee; that Robert C. Spencer, of Milwaukee, be added to the committee, to represent the department recently added to the National Association, under the name of Business Education.

It is further proposed that the National Council of Education be represented at Chicago by two department congresses devoted to psychology, inasmuch as the work of the Council is, and has been, chiefly in this department; and that G. Stanley Hall, President of Clark University, Worcester, Mass., represent on the committee of arrangements the Congress of Experimental Psychology, and J. G. Schurmann, President of Cornell University, represent in the same manner the Congress of Rational Psychology.

Your committee would also report that it may be necessary further to subdivide the department congresses or to add new departments for the best practical success of the meetings to be held, and for this they will ask authority from the Board of Directors.

Your committee has undertaken the preparation of lists of questions on the points under dispute at home and abroad, with a view to draw out written theses from the educational thinkers of Europe and America, and thereby obtain the requisite material for opening the discussions of the

various congresses. Selections from these theses can be made by the committee of arrangements, which will set forth in a salient manner the questions which it is desirable or feasible to take up in the conferences.

Your committee has been forced to consider the relation which a group of world's congresses on education would have to the regular annual meeting of this Association. It has, after many discussions and much consultation with the public opinion that exists within the ranks of the Association, found it advisable to recommend for your adoption the following plan:

First, Let the regular officers of the general Association and its departments, which will be elected at the close of the present meeting, be instructed to lay out their programmes for the meeting in July, 1894, instead of 1893. Let them be further instructed by their several departments to be present in Chicago at the opening of the congresses which represent respectively their several departments, and call the meetings to order, and induct the several officers appointed by the committee of arrangements into their respective chairs, and deliver to them the programmes agreed upon.

Second, Inasmuch as the ordinary means for collecting the membership fees due this Association, namely—the extra railroad coupons—are not available for the year of the Columbian Exposition, it is further recommended that the treasurer of this National Association be present with a sufficient number of deputies to collect in their several department congresses the usual fee of two dollars, entitling the member to a copy of the volume of proceedings when published.

Your committee has proposed that the time of the congress be placed in the week that includes the last days of July and the first days of August, in order to meet the convenience of delegates from abroad. It proposes two joint sessions of the entire congress, one to be held at the beginning, and one to be held at the end of the series; namely, the first on the evening of Tuesday, and the second on the evening of Friday of said week.

It proposes that the mornings of Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday be devoted to the several department congresses meeting in the separate places assigned them by the local committees of the World's Congress Auxiliary in Chicago. It is understood, of course, that each department congress can dispose its work so as to hold a morning and afternoon session if it so decides.

Your committee would further report that all questions of coöperation with the World's Congress Auxiliary have been amicably arranged, and to the advantage of both parties. The Auxiliary recognizes fully and freely the work and prerogatives of this Association, and, on the other hand, in all the invitations and announcements, your committee of arrangements explicitly states the position of the World's Congress Auxiliary as the duly

authorized board of management of the entire series of congresses, and as the source of the power delegated to this Association. Your committee of arrangements has been given full authority to act in all matters relating to the announcements of the congress, its lists of delegates, its invitations, its programmes, and its appointments of presiding officers.

W. T. HARRIS, *Chairman.*
RAY GREENE HULING.
E. ORAM LYTE.
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.
C. W. BARDEEN.
JAMES MACALISTER.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION.

BY PRESIDENT RICHARD H. JESSE, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.

IN the early history of this country, the influence of English precedent was powerful in shaping our educational institutions of higher grade. As examples, let me cite only Harvard in Massachusetts, and William and Mary College in Virginia. The cause of this influence is not attributable to our British origin alone, but even more to the fact that the scions of wealthy families, sent to the mother country to complete their studies, returned home deeply impressed with her institutions of learning.

The Revolutionary war struck the first blow at this influence, and the blow was effectually repeated in the struggle of 1812. As the wars with France, and the consequent loss of her Continental possessions, helped England herself to develop on lines other than those of Norman origin; as later wars repeatedly stayed the influence of France in the progress of English literature—so here, in America, Anglican tendency in the formation of our schools was sharply checked by the war of the Revolution, and finally arrested by that of 1812. Common origin and common speech might have restored it but for circumstances which I will now detail. The establishment of our national independence, the evolution of our political institutions, and the phenomenal growth of the country thereafter turned the eyes of the world to the new Republic. Immigration set in, forging a band of knowledge and sympathy with every land in Europe. A diplomatic service had to be maintained at every court in the civilized world. To show that I do not overestimate this last-named agency, let me cite the fact that Jefferson's ideas on education did not ripen into maturity or receive practical embodiment in any way until after he had served as minister to France. His residence abroad marks an epoch in American education. For not in France only, but elsewhere likewise on the Continent,

he was preparing for a great work. A professor of the Johns Hopkins, writing under seal of the National Government, has recently declared that the University of Virginia, which Mr. Jefferson founded in the fullness of years and which is the image of his ripened thought, has been the one great molding influence on Southern institutions of higher grade. What his ideas have effected in the great Louisiana Purchase and elsewhere throughout the West, I need not remind you. Simultaneously with the revulsion from English precedent, the establishment of national existence, the institution of diplomatic service, and the inpouring of immigration, there came a wonderful development of commerce and a multiplication of the means of travel. All Europe was subjected rapidly to the inspection of American eyes. It was like a vast model museum suddenly opened to a quick-witted people. While the spirit of independence and eclecticism governed the choice of our forefathers in everything, they were, nevertheless, willing to profit by the experience of others. What land was to furnish models? Not England; for she, however, continued to be an object of more or less antipathy almost to the middle of the present century. Not France; for she, after shocking the world by a revolution of unparalleled atrocity, had plunged into recurring periods of unstable government, *coup d'état* and imperial despotism. Moreover, her reputation in morals was much against her, after the religious feeling was intensified in America by the sweeping revivals of some fifty years ago. From what country, therefore, was the new nation to take her models, consciously or unconsciously? Just about this time—that is, the first quarter of the present century—Prussia, though crippled and impoverished by the Napoleonic wars, began to struggle forward under leadership of men like Stein and Wilhelm von Humboldt. These venerable men conceived the idea of redeeming Prussia by lifting her up intellectually. The mind of the whole people was invigorated by common schools, secondary schools, and universities, all under government supervision, all practically at government expense, and all of the best quality. As head to the entire system, in one of the darkest hours the nation ever saw, the University of Berlin was established, which has since become, all things considered, the finest seat of learning in all the earth. It is far from my intention to assert that this was the BEGINNING of successful school work in Prussia; a notion is already advanced to conceive and execute even through leaders such a plan of national resuscitation. Nevertheless, this movement of which we are speaking marks, perhaps, the greatest advance in pedagogical evolution that Europe has witnessed in the present century. Other German states, too small to hope for political glory, vied with Prussia and with one another in the intellectual race. A government that could not compete with larger powers in military array or territorial possession could achieve a certain glory through a university, a polytechnicum, a museum, an art gallery, or a school of music. With this attitude of government and the

eager support of the people, it was not long before such men as Stein, the two Humboldts, Niebuhr, Schleiermacher, Friedrich August Wolf, Buthman, Savigny, Fichte, Goethe, and Schiller, and a host of other intellectual giants, made Germany the literary and educational center of all Europe. This fact was quickly perceived by the sharp-eyed American. Our young men began trooping thither in ever-increasing numbers for higher, lighter, and deeper learning. Coming back, they brought German conception. German method, and German thoroughness first to scores, and then to hundreds of American institutions. Nor is this movement yet abated; probably it is rather increasing constantly with the shortening of time and the lessening of expense in travel. As a result of all this, it is safe to say that in the latter half of the present century Germany has exercised greater influence than all other countries combined in molding our institutions of higher learning. Not that we have copied slavishly; that has been kept out no less by inborn American independence than by peculiar environment. But as the constitution of Crete helps us to understand that of Sparta, in spite of certain divergencies; as the development of constitutional right in England throws light upon our early political institutions, widely different though they were; as our own institutions must be held in mind to understand the drift of British politics in the last sixty or seventy years, notwithstanding sharp contrasts—so the influence of England explains much in the foundation of our early schools, while that of Germany accounts for even more in their later development. And, moreover, the consideration of these things enables us to forecast, perhaps, in certain directions whither we are now drifting. But we must keep in mind constantly the difference in national genius and the dissimilarity of environment, lest we go grievously astray. In Germany, boys enter the secondary schools a little less advanced in years, and perhaps in attainments also, than they do with us. The average age of entrance there is ten or eleven years. Their secondary schools are of three distinct types: (1) Gymnasia, in which the strictest attention is given to Latin and Greek, and as much as possible thereafter to science, modern languages, and other things; (2) Real-gymnasia, in which Latin is taught thoroughly, but no Greek, the time thus saved being given to better work in other branches, chiefly science and modern languages; (3) Real-schulen, in which neither Latin nor Greek is taught, but all the time is devoted to science, modern languages, and some minor subjects. The course of instruction is from seven to nine years long, the student passing the final examination and entering the university at from eighteen to twenty years of age. These figures are, of course, all general and approximate. But in the Royal-Gymnasium at Leipzig, where the course is nine years long, I found the average age of the graduating class to be nineteen and a half years.

In America, the students enter the secondary schools a little older and a little more advanced in attainments, I think; perhaps the average age

of entrance might be stated approximately as from thirteen to fifteen. Widely as the courses of instruction differ in the high schools and academies throughout the length and breadth of this vast country of ours, it may be safely said that they generally include the classical languages, one or more modern languages, and one or more sciences, thus coming measurably nearer than the German schools to uniformity in curriculum. With us the course is usually from three to four years long, after which the student enters upon a college course of four years more, making the whole time from entrance into the high school to graduation from the college a period of about eight years. For the secondary education in Germany, we must remember, includes the four years at our academies, and likewise the four years thereafter at college. Our secondary system has two stories—the lower labeled high school, and the upper labeled college. These are of equal height, but of only one story. These three types of German schools offer three curricula, diverging from the very beginning; with us there is general uniformity in the first period, and divergence only at the half-way point—the college-door. This postponement of divergence is, I think, in favor of our system. We now see how this modern notion of equivalent curricula in college courses probably arose. Manifold as are the differences in these curricula, they generally fall into three great classes: (1) The classical course, corresponding mainly to the last four years at the gymnasium; (2) the semi-classical, including Latin, but substituting for Greek more science or modern language, after the model of the Real-gymnasium; and (3) the scientific course, which includes neither Latin nor Greek, but emphasizes science and modern languages, even as the Real-schule does. No doubt this idea of equivalent curricula is attributed to President so and so, of such or such a college, and perhaps it really belongs to him; but, after all, the presence of Teutonic prototype seems discernible, even though slavish imitations have been wanting. It is decidedly in favor of the German system in secondary instruction that the student finishes it two or three years earlier in life than our students do their equivalent course in high school and afterward in college. And, at the same time, it is unquestionably true that success in their last examination is a full equivalent for baccalaureate degree in our American institutions. At eighteen to twenty years of age the German is generally ready for what we call post-graduate or professional, what they call university, work; whereas, at the same age, in our best institutions, at least, the average American is not yet through the sophomore class. The faster time the Germans make, with equal or even greater attainment, is scarcely attributable to better methods of actual instruction, I think, but rather to better instructors all along the line. Their teachers as a class are superior to ours, not in skill, but in depth and thoroughness of learning. Much, I fear, is lost in our public graded schools through the suppression of individualism. The fact that in our

best colleges the student at man's estate has generally two or three years more of undergraduate work before he can enter upon the richer field and freer movement of post-graduate or professional study is beginning to be felt as a serious evil in our American system. It has sprung from the fact that in the older portions of the country the courses at the high schools have been lengthened and strengthened, and the requirements for admission to college have been raised, simultaneously, while the curricula have still remained four years long, and, at the same time, have been both crowded and intensified. As a partial remedy of this evil of superadding four years of college, or upper secondary work, to an ever-growing statue of high school, or lower secondary work, the device has been employed of offering election, mainly in the junior class, thus allowing greater specialization in the last two years. But this has not remedied the evil adequately. And now come the presidents of two leading universities, east and west—Harvard and Ann Arbor—proposing as a remedy the reduction of the college curricula to three years and the strengthening of the post-graduate or real university courses. Prophecy is always risky for the reputation of the prophet; but does it not look as if this proposition, though temporarily rejected, must ultimately be accepted, and if the condition of life is progress, and, therefore, the high schools and academies continue to advance their instruction, may not three years of college curriculum be some day shortened to two, and finally abolished altogether? Then the examination for bachelor degrees in art and science would be held in the high schools and academies, as an American equivalent to the last examination of the Gymnasia, Real-gymnasia, and Real-schulen of Germany, while the academical courses in the universities would become professional schools in philology, philosophy, science, art, and technology. I dare not say confidently that all this will ever come to pass, but assuredly German models, the present tendency, and the law of progress seem all to point that way just now. The Johns Hopkins pays no attention to undergraduate courses.

Such, roughly speaking, seems to be the present status and the probable tendency in those parts of our country, east and west, in which education has been best developed. If our larger universities, relieved from the tax of undergraduate—college curriculum—or upper secondary courses, could concentrate all their resources on special professional schools of philology, philosophy, history and political economy, law, science, medicine, art, music, and technology, our higher education would be wonderfully developed up to real university standards, up to full equality with European institutions. But before this can be done some advance is necessary in our secondary schools, and some radical changes must be made in our public graded schools. It should not take eight years for quick-witted children to exhaust their instruction. The universities would then become, what they should be, great nursing mothers

to all that aim for mastery in any and every large department of intellectual endeavor. They would train men into largest aptitude and highest skill; not for law, medicine, and engineering alone, but also for commerce and railroad management, for agriculture and manufactures, for journalism and statesmanship, for art, music, and architecture, for every great occupation, in short, that rests upon a basis of high knowledge. Our universities have been bringing their instruction steadily closer to the employment of actual life. Half a century ago they were generally regarded as reservoirs of light and culture, where men got strength and symmetry of mind; but direct preparation for occupation in life was confined to the so-called learned professions of law, medicine, and, at the most, engineering. Even theology was excluded from the range of direct aim. But we must remember that manufactures were then in their infancy; invention, as we understand it, had hardly been invented; technology was hid in handicraft; agriculture was a thing of manual labor and good or bad weather; architecture was for master carpenters; music for women; and art mainly for itinerant Italians. Perhaps, after all, the universities of our fathers were as close as our own to the range of learned occupation. But that range has increased enormously, and the universities have only tried to keep pace with it. The complaint is sometimes made that our institutions of higher learning are developing too rapidly in the direction of science and its application to industry. But the world is moving in that direction with fearful speed, and we must move with it. In fact, our instruction has not kept full pace with this world-movement of modern times. For while the usefulness of science as the handmaiden of manufactures is universally admitted, and training is given in certain specific applications, we have generally stopped far short of the mark. There is no reason, except perhaps a financial one, why a school of manufactures, with a number of different chairs, covering the whole field of larger production, should not form part of a university as much as a school of mines or of mechanical engineering. Our courses make no direct provision as yet for that complex thing called commerce, or for what is included under that vast word "transportation." Mercantile schools have, indeed, been established on private foundations, but they deal almost exclusively with the technique, and not with the history, evolution, and laws of trade. They scarcely enter the vast field of commercial economics. Does not commerce afford ample basis for learned investigation and groups of studies? And is not the same true of transportation by railway and steamship systems? Ask any of our merchant princes or railroad magnates whose eyes are ever fixed on the markets of the world; on the product of mine, farm, and factory over all the earth; on the progress of invention; on the forming of treaties, and the ratings of tariff, and the mutations of national and international policy. Something is already done for instruction in these directions by our departments of economic

study, but much more is needed to make our universities the nursing mothers in these immense provinces of human thought and occupation. The French have achieved some good results in this direction and for their country. If it be urged that full preparation for these employments cannot be gotten from schools, let it be remembered that the same is true of law, medicine, or engineering. The instruction of the lecture-room cannot supersede actual experience in anything; but it may be made an invaluable preparation for it—it may form a basis from which experience may lift to higher skill and larger performance. A few years ago agriculture was regarded as beyond the pale of college instruction. Now the whole nation is busy with the problem of bringing it within that pale. A course of study leading to journalism was looked upon as a novelty not long ago; politics were learned on the hustings and in the halls of legislature, while statesmanship was supposed to be a direct gift of God. As subjects of higher education, in America at least, such things as music and art would have been scouted in former days. Yet music is a noble science of sound, harmony, and expression. Its development from age to age taxes the powers of social and historical investigation. The same is true of art, if we substitute for sound and harmony form and color. All of this old-time notion has passed away in many parts of our country, and is rapidly disappearing everywhere. We are all straining to add facility after facility, until our universities become nursing mothers to all that hope for mastery in any large form of art, investigation, or occupation. This was Mr. Jefferson's idea, advanced some seventy-five years ago. I am but following in his wake long after in time—long after in ability. This was Ezra Cornell's idea, nobly expressed in the university that bears his name. It is fast reaching universal acceptance. But all of our courses should not look always at practical occupation in life. This would be rank utilitarianism. We should remember that universities are also great reservoirs of sweetness and light. Thousands come to them for culture and intellectual strength, aiming at nothing more. Ample provision should always be made for these noble souls, seeking spiritual light and spiritual strength as the chief aim and study. It is the presence of such spirits that makes a university far more than an aggregation of professional and industrial schools. We must remember, on the one hand, that it is man's destiny to win his bread by the sweat of his brow; but we should also remember, on the other hand, that man does not live by bread alone. The chief obstacle in the way of such development of our universities as I have described is lack of money. Some of them have vast incomes, greater than that of any German university; but these princely resources are largely consumed in maintaining the undergraduate, upper secondary, academical curricula. If our high schools and academies could be lifted up into closer equivalents to the college proper, if the pace could be quickened for the quick ones in our common schools, if the curricula could be amended a little,

and post-graduate and professional study begun a little earlier, the development in our universities would be very rapid. Our institutions of highest learning would become more than equal to their correspondents in Europe, through the superior cleverness and larger invention of the American people. It should be remembered that post-graduate work differs from undergraduate not in depth alone, but also in purpose, spirit, and method. But while some portions of our country seem to be advancing toward the conversion of high school and academies into colleges, and of the college curricula into post-graduate or real university courses, there is a struggle in other portions for the establishment of the regular secondary schools and the maintenance of the regular college curricula. The secondary schools are not numerous enough, or thorough enough, as a class, at least, to fill the colleges, and these, to get material to work upon, maintain sub-freshman courses. The maintenance of these courses in time is sadly in the way of development in the secondary schools. Such is the status of affairs throughout the greater part of the South and West. I have endeavored to show how post-graduate work is hindered in our best universities by the maintenance of college curricula. With us the maintenance of college curricula even is hindered by our sub-freshman courses; post-graduate work is wholly impossible.

EDUCATIONAL EQUIPOISE.

MRS. FRANCES W. LEITER, OF OHIO.

A PROFOUND thinker of the present day has said: "The world is not a playground, but a schoolroom; life is not a holiday, but an education." This expresses in a nutshell the philosophy of human existence. The truthfulness of the utterance is more and more apparent as, through study of natural laws, we come to a keener sense of the Divine idea in evolving man.

We turn to Genesis and read the history of the creation. The supreme act in that great drama was consummated when God's breath made living flesh the habitation of a human soul—a soul whose beginning was the thought of the Eternal; whose gradual development in the space of time usually allotted to man is according to nature's laws, modified by environment; and whose end, so far as time is concerned, means simply *passing on* to the unknown but eternal "beyond," to joy or suffer as the soul has profited under this world's tuition.

Races multiply upon the earth according to fixed and mysterious laws. Indifferently as we may permit ourselves to regard the birth of any child,

whether in circumstances of state or abject poverty, the same mysterious act results as was manifest in the Garden of Eden—flesh becoming life through the presence and power of the Creator.

Adam and Eve little dreamed of the progress in store for the human race, even under the curse of Eden's fall. After long ages of experience, out of the plastic existence of that creative period has developed a type of humanity whose knowledge has steadily grown through faithful study of God's laws. Science, which is revelation through natural law, stands at the cradle of the new-born babe to-day, and unfolds to us the wonderful wisdom of the higher Power in adapting the body to the demands of the soul. Science, which has intimated a vague something of what is *life* in its essence, and taught us much regarding the development of the human frame, assures us, also, that in this helpless organism called a babe lies a dormant power named the intellect, whose gradual unfolding, if under normal circumstances, is according to fixed laws sealed by the same Creator.

If we will permit it, the first few years in the life of any child can reveal to us somewhat of the Divine plan in the development of human existence; and the lesson should help us recognize and remedy some of the errors and defects in what is considered education.

It is the first helpless cry of the infant which informs us that the vital current is coursing through the precious little body. For weeks this power to cry is the only audible assurance of life—little more than a mollusk, save for the possibilities which are cradled in that cradled form.

With what eagerness do fond parents watch for evidence of recognition through the faint smile, the first assurance that the child has any knowledge of the great world outside its own diminutive self. Then come the movements of the hands and feet, an intuition existing in the child for its bodily growth. Soon follow evidences of dawning coördination, when the feeble will, barely more than embryonic, has its first positive exercise in attempting to grasp objects beyond its reach. When this same feeble will reaches such a point in its development that it ventures, for the first time, to combat the will of the mother, this proficiency, significant as it may prove in the future of family life, is regarded with justifiable pride by the parents. The child is first upon its feet, with reasonable power of locomotion, before speech is rapidly developing. In fact, the power "to get about" is the forerunner of the investigating tendency so characteristic of the unfolding mind.

The aphorisms that have grown out of childish proclivities mean more than critical declarations of exasperated members in the household: such as, "Little pitchers have big ears;" "Bobbing up and bobbing down, never still and always around;" "Eyes in all parts of the head;" "Children and fools speak the truth." The faithful, conscientious study of child nature eventually revealed the fact that these same aphorisms are

simply homely utterances of scientific truths, demonstrated through natural tendencies in the early years of life. We are beginning to realize and act thereupon, that the first natural development of the child, from the intellectual standpoint, is largely through the senses; and if we desire to aid in this early natural development, whether at home or in school training, we should follow this trend of natural law. Cultivating the intellect through the senses has a physical as well as mental bearing.

The ceaseless activity of children possessing reasonable degree of health, and the ravenous appetites that prove to be the "poor man's wealth *versus* poverty," are nature's methods for accommodating the capacity and proficiency of the body to the growing demands of its Master-tenant—the Soul.

Theorize as we may, we cannot set aside the fact, that during the entire formative period, through childhood and youth to the very threshold of maturity, the development of the body should keep steady pace with the development of the mind. Upon this depends the success of the individual. The logic of experience proves that if these draught-horses in human existence must pull unevenly in the early part of the race, the rein should be given to the physical rather than the intellectual.

The tendency of the age is to specialize. Even nations have been known to ride hobbies; while the trend of individuality on the part of the people leads, frequently indeed, to strange separations of what are really component parts, and incongruous connections of ideas and things that have no definite relation.

Through this individuality there is tendency to operate in tangents, rather than comprehensive circles defining planes of action. Even education does not escape altogether this tendency. Let us illustrate. If it were convenient, we would place before this audience the fairest specimen of American boyhood or girlhood that this country can produce, of the age when New York or any other State expresses, by law, its right to assume the education of the child in preparing it for citizenship under a free republic. We would next call to this rostrum the various bidders for the conduct of the education of this child, as they are represented in society at large: First, the physicalist, placing beside him the full-fledged gymnast or acrobat; second, the metaphysician, accompanied by the "book-worm;" third, the moralist, placing by his side the "dyspeptic religionist."

Each of these specialists in the line of education will regard the needs of the child through the lens of his own individuality. The physicalist, in making his bid, will discourse upon the wonderful mechanism of the human body, in its parts and as a whole, dwelling particularly upon the necessity for such a course of training as will develop all the tissues of the body, producing the fine physique so much coveted, whose harmonious operations will have reflex influence on the mind. The acrobat will be

ready to exhibit some results of cultivated muscle, in varied gyrations that have become to him the sum and substance of existence.

The metaphysician will, as a matter of course, dwell upon the importance of cultivating the intellect, setting forth the possibilities of the mind under systematic discipline; while the "book-worm," with his lank body and expressionless visage, will step forward with scholastic deliberation as a living example of how much one may actually *know* without corresponding power *to do*.

The moralist will weigh, measure, and estimate the conscience which God has implanted in every human being, conveying the idea that to be finely physiqued or intellectually proficient will be of small consequence in the day of reckoning which will surely come.

Now, it is true that the acrobat, the book-worm, and the dyspeptic religionist are extreme types of what these three systems of education will produce, if pursued exclusively. They, nevertheless, indicate the trend in each case. To train this promising child into an acrobat only, means activity without application. To develop him into a book-worm possessing all the lore that can be packed and crammed into one cranium, is of little value in a world where active intercourse is the true sharpener of "wit and wisdom," and developer of much-needed common-sense. It means cultivated intellect, hide-bound. To degenerate him into a dyspeptic religionist, as this is properly understood, perverts the higher purposes of life under the influence of a narrow mind and disordered liver.

These three special systems, imperfectly presented in these few sentences, are simply *parts* of the *great whole*. In their fullest interpretation these should, *together*, constitute the sum and substance of education, each with its modifying and harmonizing influence.

A cultivated brain supported by a lamp-post remains only a lamp-post. An educated body, with only sufficient brain-power to guide and control the movements of the body for the ordinary demands of life, is comparatively little more than a lamp-post, with added power of intelligent locomotion. A cultivated mind in a disciplined body, with uneducated or perverted moral sense, is to be feared in any community. The most daring ventures and atrocious crimes, involving deep-laid schemes, are perpetrated by intellectual villains. The records of penitentiaries prove this to be the case. *A sound mind in a sound body*, without a doubt, expresses, humanly speaking, God's conception of a perfect man. Analyze this conception in the fullness of the human utterance, and we shall find that it means vastly more than is attributed to it by the indifferent thinker. It involves all that is found in anatomy, physiology, and hygiene, with our most rational interpretation of psychology and theology. A sound body signifies every organ and part of the body working successfully in itself, and in harmony with each other. A sound mind signifies all the intellectual faculties in first-class existence and running order for action or

application, with "will-power" capable of belting every capacity of soul and body to the demands of life, regulated by a conscience devoid of offense to both God and man.

By a strange misinterpretation of the Divine Idea, man is, by many, regarded a dual being, composed of soul and body, but sustaining no graver relation to each other than that of house and tenant—the one to be lived in, and the other simply accommodated. If this were true, then the tendency to specialize in education would prove less detrimental to the success of human existence. We turn from the physicalist, the metaphysician, and the moralist, to the psycho-physicalist who regards the physical and spiritual linked together in the bond that recognizes the mysterious touch of the Divine Hand.

We have only to note intelligently the varied experience as individual life progresses, to understand how great help or hinderance the physical part of our existence can be to the development and prolonged usefulness of the soul.

To sum up, briefly, a great matter, the body is the medium of communication between the soul and the material world. The adaptation of the subservient one to the superior other involves the hidden process which we call *life*, but *know* only in name. We have physical eyes, whose optic nerves are lenses through which operates the soul-power *to see*. We have physical ears, whose auditory nerves are psycho-physical harp-strings that transmit vibrations from the outer world to the receptive inner being. We have nerves for execution, which pass from the great centers through the arms and hands, giving to the wonderfully constructed fingers the power to lessen the distance between the surging emotions of the soul and the keys of the instrument that simply echo higher, more subtle harmonies.

When accident, or growing years and waning force devitalize these ordained connections of the spirit with the material world, the soul-powers to see, hear, and feel remain entombed in the physical sepulcher until final dissolution sends the immortal back to Him who gave.

The marked unfolding of intellectual power during the years of natural development for the body, and its progress on through life, if under favorable physical conditions, together with the gradual *closing-in* of this developed power during the period when physical force is abating, certainly demonstrates two facts:

First, All soul-power in the individual has a physical basis upon which it rests absolutely in this material world.

Second, The greatest success of this soul-power is inseparably connected with the welfare of man's physical existence.

With these premises, it is easy to conclude that any system of education designed to develop the highest possibilities of the individual should provide for both mental and physical discipline.

Our forefathers built with wiser, deeper significance than was then known, when this Republic was based upon the education of the masses. The free-school system of America stands the safeguard of this nation, and its privileges for the individual have kept steady pace with increasing demands upon citizenship, from *the intellectual standpoint;* but if we place the curriculum as it represents the schools at large in these days, and as it sums up in results through the individual, beside the standard which nature has ordained, we are forced to read in unmistakable terms: "Weighed in the balance and found wanting." This is no new declaration to such an audience as this. Prominent educators have long recognized the lack of physical drill in our public school system. The action of a goodly number of large cities and a few favored towns shows there is tendency to correct this vital defect.

We learn from a published report, that as early as 1860, American educators, assembled at Buffalo in the same capacity as you are assembled at this time, declared that physical training should become, by law, a part of the public-school system. More than thirty years passed before this judgment was carried out by the first State. There is explanation for this neglect.

The public-school system originated at a time when the demands of pioneer life gave active employment to the majority of the people, producing such vigor of body as is not found in these days. As the country has become more densely populated, the tendency has prevailed to congregate in centers; while the manner of living, and methods of securing a livelihood, have materially changed. According to estimates by competent authority, more than one-half of the people are engaged in pursuits that do little to make them hardy. Even farmers, who rank as the most favored class in this respect, are to-day so relieved by mechanical inventions and appliances that they suffer, to an extent, from lack of suitable exercise in some directions. Then, too, our cities and towns, as they have extended their areas through increasing population, have trespassed upon the time-honored playground both as school premises and convenient fields for sport. The delightful hill for coasting, sooner or later, yields to the onward march of improvement; while the long-cherished pond, that was the croaking-ground of the frog in summer, and the skating rink for youth in winter, succumbs eventually to the same spirit of enterprise. As a consequence, young and old have, as a rule, been crowded into recreations and amusements that largely neglect physical needs.

During the earlier part of the century, log schoolhouses and backless benches with their forking legs were abundant accommodations in acquiring a fair knowledge of the three R's, during, perhaps, three or four months each year. In those days, a leap or two could carry the comfortably burdened student from the "master's" authority to the unrestraining, unbounded territory of recreation

With increasing demands upon citizenship circumstances have changed. In our cities and towns, where youth are educated "in bulk," the log schoolhouse began long ago to give place to beautiful edifices, stories high, through whose corridors and down whose stairs pupils must pass with noiseless step, under the critical eye of the teacher, even to the outer gate. Here the burly officer, duly suited and starred, virtually stands with authority in behalf of the public peace.

The three R's have lost their primitive personality under a system of education eight and ten stories high, with its apartments, corridors, bay-windows, recesses, and nooks, broadening, all told, into acres of intellectual privileges, over which, as the allotted years roll by, the average child must attempt to spread his mental capacity if he hope to receive the coveted bit of parchment. If the curriculum of the representative school is examined, you will find well-developed plans for mental discipline, while little if any effort is made to restore vitality sapped through the nervous strain of nine and ten months of steady application each year. As consequence of these changed conditions, the children of to-day inherit physiques showing the retrograde tendency. Improperly developed bones, flabby muscles, and, with all the intellectual advantages, in many instances still flabbier mental conditions, promise little under the exigencies of the period. What is the result of this unbalanced education? If truthfully answered, it must be admitted that many forms of nervous disease manifest themselves even in the early years of the course; and physicians tell us that constantly increasing mechanical demands, through the use of the pencil, are producing afflicted eyesight.

A very small per cent. of those entering the primary grade ever reach the high school. This is due to a variety of circumstances. It is, however, too frequently owing to debilitated physical condition, particularly true of girls. This exhausted state becomes more apparent by numbering and noting the students of the several years in this advance department. Boys drop out from various causes, permitting the girls to outnumber them in the graduating classes. Of the girls who do graduate, too many, indeed, are so seriously shaken in health that further intellectual pursuit becomes an impossibility.

Place a representative class of these advanced pupils, boys as well as girls, under the critical eye of a competent physical examiner, and you will hear reported—round shoulders, sunken chests, drooping heads, ungraceful carriage, uneven hips and shoulders, with frequent lateral curvature of the spine; while the prematurely dulled eye and sallow complexion tell of disordered digestion and imperfect nutrition.

Many of these girls pass from the graduating rostrum back to the schoolroom as teachers of the rising generation, poorly equipped, through physical disability, for the important duties laid upon them by the State. Too frequently these teachers are themselves unfortunate

object lessons to pupils, who ought to be trained to understand that physical and mental development should go hand in hand, if education produce the best results for the individual. And these girls who survive the strain of the schoolroom, going into mature womanhood, matching fair mental qualities with such imperfect bodily conditions, are to be mothers of coming generations. What dare we expect for the future of the nation if this trend is not changed? Even parents are seeking remedy, not alone to prevent the public-school system from falling under its own weight, but to protect the home from the calamities of general ill-health, that is stamping our high-pressure existence with low-pressure nervous prostration. This gradual, almost imperceptible, growing out of the old into the new order of things has not wholly victimized the philosophy of the people, and some conclusions may be drawn:

First:—A system of education which provides for mental drill, without corresponding physical discipline, is not only seriously one-sided in its *aims*, but equally one-sided in its *results*.

Second:—Under systematic progressive physical drill there is reason to believe the possibilities of the body may be made to keep pace with intellectual progress, so that, under ordinary circumstances, the graduate should step from the schoolroom in better health than her constitution perhaps indicated in the beginning of the course.

Third:—A part of education that seems not only so imperative physically, but promises so much from the intellectual standpoint as well, should not only be permitted, but put beyond the contingencies of unconcerned (because not informed) officials, onto the plan of unquestioned requirement. This means COMPULSORY PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN OUR SCHOOLS.

The question may be pertinently asked: What constitutes physical education? We will summarize, as suggested by various authorities:

1. It means the development of the body, particularly during the growing period, symmetrically and harmoniously, according to the best-known standard.

2. It aims to preserve and increase, or produce, bodily health, strength, and grace, through carefully devised and well-directed exercise.

3. It seeks greater brain and nerve power through increased and more healthful brain and nerve matter. We have long believed that exercise develops and improves muscular tissue; but people are only awakening to the fact that with this increased muscular development comes also brain and nerve development.

4. It creates and establishes in the body, through persistent drill, such possibilities as "activity, dexterity, and efficiency," that the individual may become the possessor of a rounded, well-balanced, efficient physique, through which a cultivated mind and soul may operate with the least possible hinderance. Occupations, trades, and professions show the power of training in special directions.

5. It develops will-power. This connects mental energy with physical activity. One prominent specialist defines physical education as "training pupils to make the body subservient to the will," adding, that this necessarily includes health, strength, activity, dexterity, and efficiency.

The history of physical education shows that early efforts were connected with military demands. In 1817, when the militia was undergoing reorganization, effort was made in Congress to provide, by law, for physical drill in all public schools, military tactics to become a part of the higher education. This failed. From that date until 1860 the whole subject was left to spasmodic efforts on the part of educators.

In 1861 a significant fact occurred. As soon as war was declared, South as well as North, the call went forth for troops. In both sections recruiting offices were established, and men of all ranks and ages, including boys scarcely out of their teens, marched up to these enrolling places, each writing his name upon the books. This meant a pledge to serve the country according to their best knowledge of loyalty. What happened? Immediately these raw recruits, in squads, were placed under a drill-master, and the "setting-up" process became the first order, and was continued with other drill through the war. What was this for? First, to get the body under better condition and command for the strain of warfare; second, to make these men more completely obedient to their superior officers, upon which the success of campaigns materially depended. Now, if getting men upon scientific base with true physiological poise was desirable for *killing* purposes, is it not good for *living* purposes? If bodily training made them more obedient soldiers, is not this same training good in making the individual more thoroughly subservient to his superior commander, the *will?* Physical education proposes this initial "setting-up" process in our public schools, commencing with the primary grade. We need not go far to-night to discover how few know how to stand, walk, and sit properly, and more than all how to breathe. We would teach the fundamental principles of success in human life, the "A" of which is *the largest possible breathing capacity.* This concerns girls as well as boys, and women as well as men. We have read recently an account of the effort made by Mr. William B. Fowle to introduce physical exercise in the Boston Monitorial School for girls, in 1825. After overcoming, with some difficulty, the prejudice of prim parents, he finally wrote to a friend interested in physical education the following: "I hope the day is not far distant when gymnasia for women will be as common as churches in Boston; and that our young men, in selecting mothers for their future offspring, will make it one of the conditions of the covenant, that they be healthy, strong, and capable of enduring fatigue, encountering dangers, and helping themselves." To this we say *Amen,* with the addition, that our young women, in accepting fathers for their children, will make it one of the conditions of the covenant, that they be

able to give purity for purity, with lives untainted by the drugs and weed which are to-day wrecking the manhood of this nation and cursing posterity through the relentless laws of heredity.

The only physical drill that I can now recall in my early school life, outside of vigorous applications of birch and ferule—which did get up lively circulation occasionally—was "toeing the line" in class. Sometimes it was a chalk mark; again, it proved to be a convenient crack in the floor, if the joiner's plans happened to be favorable. Yes, we were told to fold our arms, forward usually—a most unhygienic act, according to modern ideas. "Toeing the line," however, was the *sine qua non*, if we may judge from oft-repeated movements—*sui generis*. Under the new phase of education we are still "toeing the line"—an imaginary one—turned on end. We are not only toeing it, but breasting it as well.

With the opening of the civil war physical education revived, since which time it has steadily grown, until it is in the very air, waiting only for an application of public sentiment to connect it inseparably with the public-school system, where it properly belongs.

This introduces the vexing question of methods—a controversy which has had some influence in hindering the progress of the work in our schools.

The physiological laws upon which the development of tissue depends are called the foundation principles in physical education. The application of these foundation principles in different countries, or through individuals in the same country, has given rise to varying methods or systems. The ideas prevailing in the mind of those applying these principles determine the chief characteristics of special methods. The main point of difference concerns the use of apparatus, one faction relying upon it, and the opposing faction regarding it wholly unnecessary. One method discards music entirely, while no one regards it applicable in all exercises. One specialist places marked stress upon periodic measurements, basing exercises upon the same; while another fails to appreciate its importance. One considers a well-devised system of pulleys and chest-weights comprehensive and effective in results; while another, seemingly as successful, vigorously opposes them. One seeks health and strength; another adds precision in movement with promptness in execution. All plans promote the end sought, while none can yet claim perfection. The principal methods recognized are the German, the Ling (Swedish), and the American. Graduates from these various schools hold responsible positions over the country, and are realizing encouraging results. The unsettled problem which is agitating prominent apostles of this new education concerns the adaptation of these methods to our system of graded schools, with the limited facilities of the ordinary schoolroom.

It was a significant gathering of specialists that assembled in Drexel Institute at Philadelphia last spring. As usual, this question came again

to the front, each system claiming superiority over others. It was my privilege to be present. The one thought that impressed me at the close of that conference was the great wealth of plans, but dearth of application. That body represented the principal colleges of the country, Young Men's Christian Associations, private gymnasia, and a limited number of public schools. The burden upon the mind of one listener, at least, was the *uncared-for balance* of the twelve millions of children who to-day are in the hands of the State preparing for citizenship. Over in Ohio, just before the close of the last session, the legislature did enact a law making physical education compulsory in all cities of five thousand inhabitants and more. This is the first and only State to take such a step. Now, if this added tuition is desirable for the children in fifty-five cities in one State, why should not the same privilege be extended to all States, from the district school to the university? This involves outlay of public funds, as such instruction should be in the hands of able directors, not inexperienced makeshifts nor broken-down athletes. The end to be attained will justify all that it will cost. Adapting this tuition to the limited facilities of the schoolroom will accomplish much; but the best will not result until the pupils from each and every grade can be drilled at stated times under the director in a properly equipped gymnasium, which should be found in every school-building.

Every true method aims to promote: (1) Health; (2) Strength. This involves no controversy. Health is the condition of the body which permits one to live and work with the greatest possible ease, and this should not be sought as a condition of maturity only.

When a child is born, through the laws of heredity its possibilities are already determined. As another has expressed it, "The germ of perfectibility is there"—meaning the *best* of which the individual is capable. But to develop this germ certain conditions are essential, such as fresh air, healthful food, proper clothing and rest. The need for systematic exercise in producing the degree of perfection foreshadowed in the germ is not so well appreciated.

Exercise is muscular movement produced by muscular contraction, or the power to shorten the space between the extremities. Exercise breaks down tissue, and the nutritive system builds up. During the growing period, if conditions are favorable, the supply of new material exceeds the waste, so that the body increases in bulk—*it grows*. In restoring the reduced system to normal conditions, the same results. *Strength* depends upon the frequency of these changes. The quickened, more healthful action of the voluntary muscles quickens also the action of the involuntary muscles, producing corresponding and harmonious change. The results of educational exercise, in a strictly physical bearing, have been summed up by a prominent specialist as follows:

1. It increases the size and power of the voluntary muscles.

2. It increases the functional activity of the involuntary muscles.

3. It promotes the health and strength of the whole body, by quickening the circulation and increasing respiration.

Recreative exercise, such as games and sports, is sufficient to keep the body in good condition when fully matured; but it is not sufficient during the growing period, if we aim for the best that the individual can produce. After some weeks in a gymnasium, an English soldier was asked by the specialist Archibald Maclaren, what he thought of it. The soldier replied: "I feel twice the man I did, sir." When questioned as to what this meant, he responded, "I feel twice the man I did, sir, for anything a man may be set to do." This implied more than physical competency. Brain and nerve tissue is *matter* subject to the same conditions of change resulting to other parts of the body through exercise. Increasing the quantity and quality means all that brain and nerve tissue indicates in the body, so it cannot fail to result in quickened perception and increased intellectual ability as well as physical readiness. We do not quite indorse the utterance of the writer who declares that every sick man is a villain; but it is apparent that with added physical force can come higher moral tone, particularly if the natural trend is not in the opposite direction. It has been satisfactorily demonstrated that systematic physical drill in the schoolroom not only improves the physical condition and mental ability of pupils, but the government of the school more nearly and readily approaches the high ideal of self-control. It increases, also, self-reliance, courage, and we may add *patriotism*. The Greeks and Romans understood its value in promoting the qualities of good soldiers.

The consideration of this subject cannot consistently close without reference to a phase which has scarcely yet been given its place in the curriculum of physical education.

During the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia, in 1876, the great Corliss engine was the center of power in Machinery Hall. From the time when Watt first studied the steaming teakettle on to that culminating period, long strides had been made in harnessing this force for the demands of the time. Under the controlling hand of the master engineer, that giant engine became the thing of life for the vast area of industries whose machinery plied from early morning till night, showing to the passing countless multitudes what the inventive genius of man had wrought. If, for even brief periods during the day, the operations of any portion of the applying machinery were suspended, the connecting belts were slipped, and the unused energy remained, for the time being, a reserve force in old Corliss and its far-reaching connections. When wood, iron, and water are concerned, economy in expenditure is carefully studied, from the construction of the engine for the generation and transmission of force through its application. We turn from all this, the product of man's fertile brain and skillful labor, to man himself, as a machine, possessing

and applying nerve force in the exigencies of life. All the learning of ages has not yet fully comprehended the marvelous structure and design of this matchless body; and yet man, the divinely appointed keeper of this wonderful machine called self, involving such possibilities, uses less care and judgment in its management than he bestows upon his own material inventions. This is an age of great nervous pressure through mental activity, and high nervous tension through unnecessary and extravagant expenditure of nerve force. Spindles are kept whirring when the material is off; shuttles are kept flying when the web is not in, until, sooner or later, physical wreck tells of the disaster.

As a matter of economy and safety, engines are supplied with governors, safety-valves, and fly-wheels—this the applied device of man; but in the greatest, most subtle of all mechanism, which combines the service of *mind* and matter, the power is permitted to boom on, trusting that the delicately constructed machine will stand the pressure for the years numbering an average life.

The representative American does not even know how to rest, which is one of Nature's most imperative laws persistently violated; still less does he know how to economize vitality.

We have much to learn from children and the animal world on this point. The child knows how to yield its body to the bed or the arms of the mother. The child knows how to fall, or does fall, in a manner to sustain the least possible injury. The cat that purrs at the fireside, and the fierce animal that roams the forest or is caged for menagerie purposes, practically understand, through instinct, that constantly used power is abused.

After discipline for health and strength should come *training* for *action* and *training* for *rest.* As it counts in the purposes of life, this may be called applied gymnastics.

A symmetrical physique means the development of the voluntary muscles to their highest state of perfection, with organs correspondingly proportioned. To make these five hundred and more muscles so many fretting steeds, wearing the harness in season and out of season, is a perversion of nature's laws. The power to act should be balanced by the power to relax—*letting go the hold.* Simple as this may seem, we do not really do it. The perfect control of the body, however, depends upon this balance. The horse which has proved so faithful a servant is of little value until his magnificently developed strength and will are brought under complete submission to the will of his master; standing, if need be, docile and restful in the harness until the directing touch of the rein brings his strength to bear in the transportation of weight, or carrying the rider with fleet foot and rhythmic motion until commanded to halt. Man controls this faithful servant more successfully and completely than he manages himself.

How many of us know how to pursue a single subject of thought for

even a limited time, to the exclusion of all else that may concern us, save under the most favorable circumstances? How many of us are able to carry on mental effort without holding some part of the body in some kind of unnecessary strain? How many of us know how to use any one part of the body in its own specific work, without calling into service some part not at all involved save through sympathy, increasing the nervous demand? Will-power is the crowning characteristic of the mind. It is designed to be the throttle-lever that turns on and regulates the force; but, until we can bring our entire being in reasonable harmony with nature's laws concerning action and rest, as they are mutually related, will-power is prostituted. It is not the horse that frets in the harness before the rein is given that is likely to win in the race. It is not the engine that fusses and sputters, sending the piston with uneven tread in its bearing upon the great driving-wheel, that can be relied upon to carry the steamer freighted with human life safely across the Atlantic; but the finely constructed, well-balanced engine, whose equilibrium can steadily, persistently, and safely transmit the power, measuring distances at sea.

It is supreme consciousness of self that makes certain years between boyhood and manhood a period of such distressing awkwardness. Why is it so? Because, through deficiency in education, it is the period when nerve-power runs rampant in every part of the rapidly developing frame, with will-power an undisciplined, undisciplining force. The ease which comes through unconsciousness of self can only be acquired in these days of inherited tendencies and deficient education, by first becoming intelligently conscious of the existence and power of every part of the body, through exercise, and then learning to withdraw the power when not needed for action. This applying and withdrawing energy according to the "eternal fitness" of demand, disciplines the will and adds to our power of concentration.

Many of us, at this very moment, can call to mind individuals who are making woeful failure in life, simply because they lack this power of concentration, whether thought or action be involved. Training the mind to concentrate its power stands even ahead of training it to acquire knowledge, because upon it the success of the latter depends. The basis of mind training is muscle training; the natural development of the body proves this to be true. *Proper* muscle training involves deliberate relaxation as well as action. Under physical tuition as it prevails to-day, the will *is* brought to bear in producing action; but not so marked always is this discipline of withdrawing the power.

From training the body with this double motive in view, including the muscles, nerves, and senses, we turn the will-power upon the mind, training it to this power of concentration, without scattering of force. Upon this depends the greatest success in life.

When the developed body has reached the degree of freedom and ease

intimated, and the will has acquired not only the habit of application, but the habit of reserving all force not directly needed, then can the disciplined body, in its attitudes and movements, become the expression of the higher being.

This *art of expression* is founded upon *conservation of force;* but conservation of force, built upon preparatory physical training, has not yet been properly recognized in its educational bearing. To mention the name of the one who has given to the world the most significant utterances in this direction, may hold me liable to criticism. It is the *mis*representation and *mis*application of Delsarte theories which have given rise justly to some of these criticisms; but when the completed method for the fullest development of psycho-physical possibilities is in operation, the work of M. Delsarte will find place.

The utter absence of specific training to conserve nerve force accounts for much that grows out of the public-school system which is detrimental to both pupil and teacher. When students learn how to concentrate the mind during study, with power to fully relax mental effort when in recreation, there will be less cause for complaint about the demands of school and the strain of examinations. We may then be able to secure high grades for intellectual effort, with low per cent. of nervous outlay. It is *worry*, rather than work, that sends the pupils of any grade into the condition of sleepless nights, feverish pulse, and parched lips, with inclination to study long past the period when the mind receives clear-cut impressions—all this at the expense of what is being sought.

Education, then, as the summing up of possibilities, should mean:

1. *Developed* and *trained* physical force.
2. *Developed* and *trained* intellectual force.
3. *Developed* and *applied* moral force, adjusting properly the individual in his relation to God and man.

An illiterate workman upon the highway encounters a huge boulder partially imbedded in the ground. Scarcely knowing how to read, his occupation has educated him to a practical knowledge of laws which the scholar usually acquires only in the study of physics. The great iron crowbar is produced, and support is temporarily constructed which will furnish leverage on the weighty mass. He well knows that if the boulder is to be lifted a certain space, he must look to the height of the support, the length of the crowbar and its adjustment, as well as the force which is necessary to balance the weight under this adjustment. This is equipoise in physics.

In raising a human being to the highest possible standard, a similar adjustment is recognized—*disciplined intellect, disciplined moral force,* with *will-power* as a connecting lever, resting upon the fulcrum of *perfected bodily conditions. This,* the acquired result of systematic, comprehensive *education,* is *equipoise.*

TEACHING CURRENT EVENTS IN SCHOOL.

BY E. O. VAILE, EDITOR OF "INTELLIGENCE" AND "THE WEEK'S CURRENT."

HONEST and intelligent citizenship is the foundation of the Republic. It is the one thing above all others which we must have if we are to live and prosper as a nation, and we should congratulate ourselves on the number and activity of the forces which to-day are working to this end.

While it is quite possible, and a tendency has appeared on this platform, to exaggerate the power of the school to affect the intellectual and moral condition of the nation, there can be no mistake in maintaining that the school is an exceedingly important, if not the most important, element in solving the problem of intelligent citizenship.

Think of the number of homes existing all over our land in which the first elements of parental responsibility and of intelligent citizenship are entirely wanting—homes transplanted from all parts of Europe and filled with the ignorance and stolid indifference of the most stolid class of foreigners. Think of the number of truly American homes in which the mental and spiritual needs of the children, their needs as future citizens, are ignored. In comparison with the great mass, how small is the minority of homes in which the children receive adequate training and education with reference either to their own good or the good of the community. Surely the American school is the salvation of the American republic.

Now, what are these schools doing in the way of systematic training of our boys and girls for intelligent citizenship? I include the *girls* in the query, for I believe our girls should be educated for all the duties of citizenship just the same as our boys are, and I honor the girls who have the womanhood and the pluck to fit themselves for the same fields that their brothers enter. Yes, educate the girls for the responsible duties of citizenship. Train them to take intelligent interest in public matters. The investment will prove a good one.

To-day the elements of civil government and the Constitution of the United States are regular subjects of instruction in our high or grammar schools. But is this instruction adequate to furnish what our boys and girls will need when they become full citizens? The movement of the times answers the question. The conviction is becoming universal that our schools should do more than they have done in the past to fit our boys and girls to discharge the duties that are soon to devolve upon them as mature citizens.

How are they to have their minds set in the direction of the needs of good government? How is the spirit to be cultivated that will demand

honest officials, that will look after the primaries, that will stand up in the convention resolutely for what is pure and right, that will insist at all hazards that every voter shall have a chance to cast his vote, and that every vote shall be honestly counted? True Americanism means not only intelligence, it means right inclination, right determination, will to secure the rights.

Americanism of this type cannot be developed by a term's work in civics or in the Constitution. It comes as an attitude of mind, as a trained power of discriminating between what is right and what is wrong, as a habit of looking at questions from all sides, of candidly and intelligently weighing the pros and cons; it comes as a passion to see the right and the best prevail.

For cultivating this Americanism there is no way so effective as the systematic study of the affairs of our own day. It arouses the interest of our young people at once. It forces them to feel the economic and moral bearings of all political and national questions. There is nothing else which will so broaden and vivify the intelligence and exercise the judgment. Let any boy or girl consider the questions, international, financial, engineering, and commercial, involved in the Nicaragua Canal enterprise, and what a breadth of view it gives him! Suppose he—and bear in mind that "he" means "she" as well—has studied the cause, methods, and results of the late election in the United Kingdom. Could anything be more valuable as a comparative study in the matter of government, or in deepening reverence for the Anglo-Saxon principle of self-government? What an opportunity and what a necessity for sifting and weighing arguments and evidence is presented by the tariff question! There is nothing equal to the study of current events for giving a practical application and color to what has been learned from books. One cannot understand the past excepting as he understands the present. The reader of Dr. Arnold's life remembers how strongly he urges the teacher of history to use the present to illustrate and illuminate the past.

As a means for developing love of country, for enabling our boys and girls to understand and realize what our own institutions are and what they afford in comparison with the institutions of other countries, the study of current history is not only invaluable, it is indispensable. A true Americanism clearly requires not only a knowledge of our own country and its affairs, but a knowledge of other countries and their institutions. We can truly appreciate our own only by comparing it with others. The study of current history is constantly provoking these comparisons, and furnishing the knowledge which must be their basis.

This one consideration is sufficient not only to justify but to demand the regular study of current events in every school in which the children are old enough. But there are other weighty reasons which sustain the general judgment that more attention should be paid to this subject.

The proper study of current matters develops that much-needed habit in newspaper readers—the habit of discriminating, of deliberately shutting the eyes to what is worthless speculation or gossip, to what is sensational and demoralizing, and of instinctively giving attention to that only which is of actual value and profit. You can preach to ordinary readers until the crack of doom about the folly and harm of giving time to the record of the police court, divorce proceedings, social crimes and scandals, suicides, murders, and executions, which occupy so much space in the daily press. This is the kind of reading which the ordinary reader can most easily read and best enjoy. It is on a level with his intelligence and his curiosity. He will have it. It contains the sensational spice which is so essential to tickle the reading palate of a low taste and an inferior intelligence. No daily paper can omit this class of matter and hope to thrive, although ninety-nine editors in the hundred despise it and confess its demoralizing effect on the general mass of readers. Give to the ordinary reader of the daily paper a clean, wholesome sheet, free from the sensational and exciting, and he will soon weary of it and demand a paper that has "news" in it. In the first place, his reading vocabulary is not large enough to enable him to find ease and comfort in the mechanical work of reading such a paper. In the second place, he is not sufficiently familiar with the ordinary trend of subjects and discussions in such a journal to make him feel at home with it and enjoy its society. The fact must not be overlooked, that to be an intelligent reader of current history one must be in a measure trained to it. The person bred merely on the school scrap-book reader or on the sensational part of the daily paper will have little appetite for serious articles on the leading events of the day when he first undertakes to read them. For want of previous reading or explanation, he does not understand the plot, so to speak. But let him read in company with a well-informed person until he becomes acquainted with the situation, and then the discussion and progress of events will be to him matters of interest. Here appears the advantage of the school study of current history. By it a reading fiber and taste are developed in our young people which will insure the closing of their eyes in their future reading to the trashy and worthless stuff that everywhere entices them, a fiber and taste which will give them a genuine relish for, as well as an instinctive recognition of, things which it is worth an intelligent person's time to read. Give our boys and girls a taste for better things, and the daily press will soon find a constituency that will enable it to thrive upon a higher plane.

The study of current events tends more than most school work to train our boys and girls in the power of getting and retaining ideas by simple reading as distinguished from what, in school phrase, is called "study." In paying attention to current matters it is hardly possible for a class to pore over the written text, conning it by heart. Lessons in this subject cannot be assigned by pages. The pupils must do their studying not by

memorizing, but by reading—the only real way to study. In other words, they learn to read in the real sense, to get and hold ideas by simple reading with attention born of interest, instead of by conning.

The study of current events in school has a most wholesome effect in connecting school life with the home and the world. The school and all its work take on a new meaning when the pupils find themselves grappling the same topics and problems in the class-room which they hear discussed on the street and in the counting-room. The pupil's horizon grows. He feels a new stimulus to acquire knowledge. He finds new life in the schoolroom because he feels the pulse of the great world outside. Parents feel a strong added satisfaction in the school when they find their children better posted, possibly, than themselves in the affairs of the day, and intelligently alive to new developments.

Not the least of the beneficial effects of the study of current events is the effect on the teachers themselves. The lamentable ignorance of teachers as a class in regard to contemporary matters has long been a cause of mortification to all intelligent friends of our teachers and our schools. Doubtless most of you can recall illustrations that make you blush while you laugh. The sentiment is growing that teachers should be compelled to purge themselves of this disgrace. In the State of New York a knowledge of current affairs is now one of the requisites for a license to teach. In other States there are indications that a similar step will be taken before long. While it is humiliating to think that the great mass of teachers have to be compelled to thus qualify themselves, there is satisfaction in thinking of the added respect and dignity which the new acquisition will bring them. Whether in country or in city, the teacher who knows what is going on in the world has a hold upon the respect of the community which the mere book-informed teacher will long for in vain.

In addition, the regular school study of current events has a wholesome effect on teachers, by its tendency to force them out of the oracular, positive ways into which the hearing of text-book recitations is so apt to lead them. When it comes to considering a newspaper article, and the questions which it suggests, the person of ordinary good sense will be very cautious about dogmatizing. Next week he may find cause to radically change his opinion. It is a wholesome thing for the average teacher to have to consider with her class some subject which cannot be crystallized into formal text-book statements, and in which positive assertions are apt to lead to embarrassment.

Considering the value which the community now begins to place on this subject, and the importance to the teacher of not only being well informed, but of acquiring the broad outlook which comes from this study, it is surprising that in our normal schools and colleges so little attention is paid to the study of current history.

As a rule, normal school faculties seem to think that it is none of their business whether or not their students are readers of current history, and in very few of these schools is anything attempted in this line beyond a few comments now and then in general exercise, and the admonition, which is seldom heeded, to read the daily paper. In our colleges it is still worse. Considering their scholarly habits and tastes, it is doubtful if there is another community so ignorant or so indifferent on this matter of current history as the college community, including professors as well as students. In regard to both colleges and normal schools, the misfortune lies not so much in the ignorance which they tolerate, as in the habit of thought and attitude of mind which they foster. The mere information might be picked up quickly; but the habit, so essential to good citizenship, of taking an interest in all public matters, of interrogating the facts, of carefully weighing the arguments before coming to a decision, requires time to develop.

But little can be said in defense of that method of attending to current events which puts the daily paper into the hands of the pupils and requires them to pick out the news items of interest or value. For a young reader to look through the daily paper wastes an amount of time that he cannot afford to lose, and which no pupil should be allowed to lose. He has not the judgment and experience which by a glance can distinguish the valuable matters which he seeks from the worthless ones for which he has no use. Consequently he has to read through the entire paper with more or less care in order to make his selection. Not only does this consume his time without profit, it obtrudes upon his attention many things which no judicious teacher or parent would deliberately put before the eyes of a young person. It is the teacher's business to read the daily paper in order to separate the wheat from the chaff, and to prepare the bulletin of news. There are several weekly papers which now publish an admirable digest of the week's news, and which the teacher will find very serviceable.

Not much can be said, either, for the defense of the numerous attempts to teach current matters in the lower grammar grades. To study these matters with advantage requires no small stock of information to start with. Probably the seventh school year is as early as it is profitable to undertake this subject. To make a fad of it, as is the tendency in some quarters, is a misfortune.

Neither can much be said in favor of the plan of presenting to pupils the news of the day in the form of brief, scrappy items. Of course, every week items of interest and sometimes of importance go the rounds of the press, which should receive more or less attention. But in the main their value lies not in themselves, but in their suggestiveness. They form excellent texts or starting-points for conversations between the class and the teacher, in which the pupil's mental power of association is greatly

stimulated, and he is trained to be quick and alert in rallying all his resources of information and judgment on any point that may chance to come before him.

But the really significant news of the day needs to be treated more fully. It needs to be explained and interpreted, or it is of no value to the immature reader. Of what use is it to the pupil to be put in possession of the bare fact that Prince Bismarck came out of his retirement to visit Vienna and attend the wedding of his son? In that brief blackboard statement there is no value whatever for the pupil. But the interpretation of that simple fact and its accompaniments opens an important chapter in late German history. Hence the whole account should be given with some fullness of explanation. But this is only a single illustration of what appears in the news of every week. A mere tabular statement of events has no educational or culture value in current history or any other history. What our boys and girls need is not merely a record of current significant events. They need an explanation of these significant events, showing how one is connected with another, and throwing cross lights in all directions. If the teacher can furnish this commentary, all well and good. If he cannot, he should have at hand the papers that can. The large, rounded view the pupils should have, at all events, and they should not be turned off with a skeleton news bulletin of two-line items on the blackboard.

Some teachers complain that the language in which the press discusses the news of the day is beyond the range of their pupils; that so many of the words are new to them and have to be explained that it is hard or impossible to keep up an interest in the subject. There is undoubted ground for this complaint in the ordinary style of some writers. But it should be remembered that no writer can adequately treat of the events of the day and confine himself wholly to the vocabulary of the school. It is simply impossible, and no man of sense will attempt to write "down" on such themes. When a class takes up physical geography or any other science, no matter how common, they have to master a new set of terms. They find things coming under consideration for which their previous vocabulary contained no names. The only thing for them to do is to master the new words. So it is in current history. The words must be used that express the ideas, and it is one of the benefits of this study in school that it gives to our children such a familiarity with these ideas and terms that they afterward find it no labor to follow the serious discussion of the great topics of the time. It helps to furnish the higher class of newspaper journalists with a constituency which they must have before any decisive reform in the character of the daily press is possible.

So the only answer to the teachers who find this difficulty is, "Don't dodge, or allow your class to dodge, the new words. Face every one patiently and resolutely every time it occurs. Of course, you must not

expect your class to conquer it at the first encounter or the second. New words of broad significance do not plant themselves in our comprehension in that way. They grow into our vocabularies by degrees, by repeated settos with them. But inspire your class with patience and perseverance. In six or eight months' time you and they will be surprised at the extent to which the difficulty has disappeared, and the ease with which they read articles that before were nearly impenetrable."

To be sure, some writers lumber their sentences by the needless use of words that do not belong to the working vocabulary of young people, or even of the adult mass. But choose your language as carefully as you will in discussing current events, and you cannot avoid such terms as *finance, local government, socialist, anarchist, absolutism, paternalism, reciprocity, free silver, free gold, free trade, protection, tariff reform, municipal reform, tariff for revenue,* etc., terms which every reader must master before he can hope to find meaning or pleasure in any genuine discussion of the leading topics of our day.

The complaint is also made that the subjects are often too hard for school study. This is to be expected when the pupils are too young for the study, as they often are. With this exception, it is doubtful if the complaint is ever heard, unless the teacher is too lazy or too weak mentally to handle this department. To be sure, there are questions in regard to which light, or what is thought to be light, is breaking very slowly on our best intellects. The silver question and the tariff question are among these. But these questions are with us. We cannot escape them. They will have to be settled by the citizens who are boys and girls of to-day, if their fathers and mothers do not settle them. But the world is not ordering its movements with regard to what people, young or old, can read and understand with ease. The editor cannot assort at will his array of topics. He has to take things as they come, and it is hard to see how the teacher and her pupils can do otherwise.

However, this ought to be borne in mind: It is never wise to pursue anything too far, particularly a hard newspaper article. The subject of current history can easily be maintained as an interesting and appetizing subject, and where it is anything else the presumption is strong that it is because the teacher does not know where to stop.

It is hard to realize how few things of importance come up in our country which are not tinged with partisanship. Our press and our people take sides on most of our domestic matters before they come up in the schoolroom. Now, your genuine Republican and your genuine Democrat have very thin skins if you chance to drop opposition suggestions into the minds of their children. But the thinnest skin, by all odds, grows on the mugwump, and for him you must be constantly on the watch. This is the secret of the difficulty in treating adequately in school of American affairs. Our own affairs are the ones that our children ought to study the

most, and yet they are the affairs which it is the hardest to touch except in the most barren way. You can safely tell your class, or you can have them read, that a certain political convention met in a certain city on a certain date and nominated certain candidates. But of what benefit is that? To go beyond it, however, is perilous. We all agree that it is not the province of the public school to help make Democrats, Republicans, or mugwumps, but to do its utmost to make good, honest, conscientious, intelligent, patriotic American citizens. But to become intelligent citizens our children must understand the questions upon which our political parties differ. They must see all sides of each question, and the arguments that bear upon it. This it is the business and duty of the school to accomplish. In his schoolroom the teacher must not be a partisan, nor must he be a cowardly or indifferent know-nothing on the party issues of the day. He must speak of all parties with respect, explain their tenets and arguments with clearness and candor, holding his personal convictions in quiet so far as his relation as a teacher extends. Fair play is a part of true Americanism, and no teacher in any enlightened community need fear criticism of his explanation and discussion of current American affairs if he has due regard to fair play. If the Republican platform has been read and discussed in school, as it certainly should be, see to it that the same time and attention are given to the Democratic and to the Prohibition platforms. Treat free trade and protection in the same way, and all other disputed questions. Outside of good morals, good character, and supreme loyalty to the stars and stripes, and all they stand for, allow yourself in school to be the champion of nothing, but the expounder of everything that the course of events makes prominent in the thoughts of the people. So shall you escape criticism and contribute to the making of intelligent, truth-loving American citizens.

DISCUSSION.

O. F. PRESBREY, editor of *Public Opinion*, Washington, D. C.: No subject of greater importance than that suggested by the paper just read will engage the attention of this great gathering of educators. Solomon wisely said, "Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it;" and Wordsworth declared, "The child is father of the man." Milton phrases the same truth most beautifully: "The childhood shows the man as morning shows the day." If these declarations are true as to the individual child, how greatly their importance is intensified when we remember that there are 12,728,419 children in the common schools, 753,972 in private, and 737,182 in parochial schools. Think of this vast army of 14,219,571 persons of school age now under the instruction and guidance of 420,000 teachers.

These youths comprise nearly one-fourth of our present population, and within the next decade three-fourths of them will have crossed the threshold of their majority, and entered upon the duties of active life and responsibilities of American citizenship.

The future destiny of this nation is soon to be controlled by these millions, now under instruction in our schools and colleges. There are many portentous clouds hanging over the horizon of our beloved country at the present time, and philanthropists are asking, What of the future of this favored land? What shall prove a solvent potent

enough to calm the troublous tides that flow athwart the pathway of our national life? What can bridge the chasm that seems to lie wide open between capital and labor? How are these millions of foreign-born children and those born of foreign parents to be so educated and molded as to become in an all-rounded sense patriotic American citizens? These are important questions, and it remains for us to answer them wisely. Is it not becoming more and more apparent that the ordinary curriculum of school instruction falls far short of preparing students to enter as loyal Americans upon the responsibilities of citizenship and the active duties of life? No man can be an ideal citizen who is not in close touch with the world in which he is living, and familiar with its daily occurrences and topics of thought. Why, then, should these students in our schools and colleges be confined to a course of instruction which makes no provision for the study of political, social, financial, economic, and other important questions which they will be confronted with in their majority long after the routine work of the schoolroom is forgotten? The ordinary English branches and the languages are important, but the study of American history and current events and the discussion of acknowledged facts and achievements in the material world, the growth of social and political science, the expansion of religious thought, the history of different nations and people, their trials, failures, and successes, will furnish the student with a vastly better equipment for the battle of life and the obligations of loyal citizenship. There are thousands of students who have passed through the public and private schools and spent ten years in preparatory, collegiate and professional studies, and have graduated and entered upon life's responsibilities with a very narrow range of intellectual vision, because the ordinary course of study failed to keep them constantly in touch with the passing events of everyday life. They had no opportunity to take part in the discussion of important questions affecting the growth and permanency of our institutions, which demanded attention during the many years they were shut out from the great world with its critical culture and its multiform activities.

This is an intensely practical age. The thoughts of to-day become the germinating power of new vital forces to-morrow. Every new question that arises, whether in politics, religion, or sociology, is subjected to the sharpest criticism. Ignorance of the current history of one's own country may be tolerated in a monarchy, but in our American republic, where every man is a sovereign, it is all important that the young man in his student life should be so instructed as to widen his intellectual vision, and enable him to form opinions as a patriot and a loyal citizen after a careful examination of all sides of every question. The student whose reading is confined entirely to a party paper will pass out of the schoolroom into the business world an ignorant partisan, while he who critically examines opposing views on every question, and weighs the arguments on all sides, will be an intelligent, patriotic citizen.

There are many who believe that intense partisanship endangers the perpetuity of our national life. The noble band of educators of America have it in their power to avert and dispel all such threatening dangers by introducing into every school the study of current events, and requiring each student to carefully examine and critically analyze all phases of every political and other controverted questions. These millions in our schools and colleges are hungry readers. They are charmed and captivated by the passing events noted in the daily press, and a careful inquiry as to the character and interest taken in such reading would doubtless surprise many teachers and philanthropists. The rapid increase in the number of public journals in the last few years is conclusive proof that not only those of mature age, but the young, are hungry readers. Since 1871 about 14,000 new journals of various kinds have been established, making a grand total of over 20,000, and it is estimated that two new ones are added to the list every day. Could all the presses used in journalism in the United States and Canada be brought together in the Columbian Exposition, the grounds would be more than covered, and a hundred monster engines would be required to set this vast mass of machinery in motion. The press is Argus-eyed in its pursuit of current happenings in our own land and in the whole world. No new discovery in electricity, mechanics, science, or art escapes its notice. It lays down at the hearthstone of every home its printed pages, bearing the fruits of the indefatigable labors of its untiring agents, who explore every country, learn its climate, resources, history, and laws. There is no enterprise on this continent or in the remotest portion of the globe where these knights of the quill are not sent to search out its history and progress. Continents are crossed, ocean beds are fathomed by wires that pulsate with a language freighted with the onmoving currents of thought and events in every land in the known world. The press is a vast text-book of current events, a syllabus of the thoughts and experiences of all people, an encyclopedia of their material growth and advancement, and a library filled with conceded facts and recorded achievements. The press is the most influential and

exhaustive text-book of the age ; and in these millions of homes—the nation's great American university—there is none so much studied, so wide in its scope of instruction, and so potential in shaping character and molding public opinion, because it gathers and focuses the thoughts of the world, and photographs its important events, and discusses critically all questions growing out of and attendant upon their occurrence.

Is it not time to break down the barriers which now prevent the scholars in our schools and colleges from studying with a keen intellectual relish all these great questions so closely connected with our own national life not only, but with the marvelous progress and material advancement of the whole world? This great army of students in our schools and colleges should be kept, by constant study, in close touch with all current events during their entire course of instruction, that they may be enabled to leave the schoolroom and enter upon their life-work with opinions that have been formed by the fullest discussion of all sides and views of every subject demanding public attention. At no period in history has the teacher held so honorable and important a position as to-day. The schoolroom is the birthplace of influences which are to control society not only, but the future character and destiny of our Republic. Narrow views and ideas are no longer in harmony with our rapid growth and the material progress of our country. The intellectual character of our entire nationality is improving with every passing year. Creeds are being so broadened as to embrace the universal brotherhood of man. All these changes emphasize the importance of keeping these millions of students in close touch with the real world, that they may be educated in the widest sense, and fully prepared, with ripened judgment and patriotic devotion, to enter upon the responsibilities that await them as citizens of this glorious Republic. The one great need of our country in this the four hundredth anniversary of its discovery is, that these millions in schools and colleges shall be fully educated and equipped to determine and settle great problems that are constantly arising, and to meet these responsibilities as loyal, patriotic American citizens, that the work begun by the founders of this Republic shall more and more become magnified as the years go by, so that our country shall truly occupy in all the future the highest position among the nations of the earth.

R. H. Beggs, Denver, Col. : As my views upon the subject under discussion will perhaps seem to you narrow and illiberal, I trust you will pardon me for stating, in self-defense, that circumstances with me, for some time past, have been unfavorable to the formation of unbiased opinions upon this topic. I have been teaching in a school in which there appears to be less need of things to teach, than of time to teach them well. The regular teachers complain that no subject has the time necessary for its satisfactory treatment, while every special teacher is in a state bordering upon despair on account of the insignificant space allotted him upon the daily programme. The director of music maintains that thirty-three hours per year is a beggarly allowance for so grand a subject ; the director of gymnastics asserts confidently, that six minutes per day for half the days in the year cannot be so employed as to develop fully and symmetrically the human form divine ; while the supervisors of drawing and of German find themselves treated no more generously. This constant demand, in every quarter, for more time for the subjects already in the curriculum, almost necessarily predisposes one to look unfavorably upon the claims made for any new addition to the course.

However, an examination of the published courses of study in other schools convinces me that the state of affairs in our city is not exceptional in this respect. Indeed, I almost blush for our own meager course when I read the imposing array of topics treated in many other schools, in all parts of the Union. These courses usually include paper-cutting, paper-folding, weaving, modeling, color study, primary geometrical forms, reading, botany, anatomy, physiology, hygiene, writing ; the physiological, psychological, and ethical effects of the excessive use of narcotics and stimulants ; drawing, hydrostatics, hydraulics, pneumatics, mechanics, gymnastics, geography, acoustics, pyronomics, optics, spelling, electricity, magnetism, meteorology, grammar, elocution, Delsarte, history, an elaborate course of manual training for boys, a still more elaborate course for girls, drawing, civics, patriotism, zoölogy with special emphasis upon entomology and conchology, type-writing, stenography, and current events. And now an influential school of reformers is urging that more time shall be given to amusing the dear children ; while from the prairies of Illinois, the forests of Michigan, and the classic halls of Massachusetts there comes an imperative demand that the time of completing this course shall be shortened, and that the course itself shall be enriched by the addition of algebra, geometry, Greek, Latin, and a fair assortment of modern languages !

But the crowded condition of the common school curriculum is no argument against further additions. It is far easier to introduce a dozen "ologies" now, than it was to

add the fourth subject to the alliterative three of half a century ago. Indeed, the expansion of the school course appears to be like the inflation of a toy balloon—the farther it is carried the easier it becomes. Some of the veterans in this room remember what years of courage and perseverance it took to introduce language study into the primary and intermediate grades; while within the last two years, a few smooth-tongued canvassing agents have, in New England alone, introduced type-writing into more than two hundred schools, and a writer in June *Education* informs us that the manual training course for girls has been successfully enriched in at least one excellent school by the addition of a full course in dry-goods shopping. I admit that my last illustration is hardly fair, as shopping comes under the head of manual training, making its introduction easier; since it is a well-known fact that all manual training simply stimulates mental activity, serving, as the electrician would say, to convert the intellectual currents of low tension into those of higher voltage.

But while the congested condition of the graded school course may not be urged as a reason for refusing to assign current events a place on the daily programme, it would appear at first view that this part of the child's education might more advantageously be undertaken by the home. Statistics show that between the ages of six and twenty-one less than one hour out of twenty is spent in the schoolroom, or, making deductions for sleep, about one hour out of thirteen is given to the school. The average home does do this work to a greater or less extent, regardless of what the school may do, and children in sixth, seventh, or eighth grades will be found wide apart both as to the amount and the character of the information they possess, and consequently wide apart as to the quantity and character of that which they can assimilate. The instruction that will have real educational value for one part of the class will be practically worthless to the majority. That which meets the wants of the best informed will possess little value for minds practically destitute of related facts. The boy who has read "How I Found Livingstone" and "Through the Dark Continent" will be interested in Stanley's political campaign, and through this personal interest in one candidate may acquire some general notion of the present political outlook in England; while to others in the same class a paragraph concerning the African hero's candidacy would have neither interest nor value.

On the other hand, instruction adapted to the wants of the one possessing the least general information will be simply threshing over old straw for others. The child who knows nothing of the fabled Atlas, or of England's relations with her colonial possessions, must have these explained to him before he can understand the reference to England as the "weary modern Atlas," and while this explanation is made the remainder of the class are idle.

But should I suggest leaving this work to the home, I should be met with the undeniable statement that some homes do not and cannot do this work, and far be it from me to disparage that generous sentiment that prompts one to search all day in the desolate, coyote-infested arroyas for the one lost sheep, while the ninety and nine securely starve in the dusty corral! No: we cannot shirk the responsibility; one-thirteenth of the child's available time is given to the school, and who will dare question that this entails upon that institution the entire responsibility of equipping the citizen for the satisfactory performance of every duty he owes to himself, his family, his neighbor, his country, his God, and the newspaper!

If, then, current events should be taught, it is ours to assume the task. But should they be taught? Of course, every skillful teacher will make use of such events of the day as have a more or less direct connection with the assigned lesson. If ventilation is the subject, and by an accident a number of men have been imprisoned in a not distant mine, and have died of suffocation, an account of the catastrophe will take the place of the story of the Black Hole of Calcutta. But the teacher of current events would make the incident the subject of independent consideration, and, if it happened to have some bearing upon the regular lesson, might perhaps call attention to the relation. To follow the first plan would be wise; to follow the second would be otherwise.

As to disciplinary value, little can be claimed for this subject, while in most important respects its effects are injurious. The mind should be trained to associate new acquisitions with related facts previously acquired; but this study, by filling the mind with unrelated and undigested facts, begets the habit of receiving without assimilating. Again, no other power of the mind is more valuable, or should be more assiduously cultivated, than that of sustained and concentrated attention; but this study, by presenting a kaleidoscopic succession of subjects to the child's mind, tends, in no slight degree, to weaken and impair this power.

As a means of acquiring information which shall have either practical or culture value, it is a delusion and a snare. It is true that society demands of the man or the

woman a knowledge of what is transpiring in the world, but it makes no such demand upon the child. And bear in mind that when we teach the child the events of to-day, we are filling the mind of the adult with facts that have lost all interest to the world at large. It is giving to the dead past a prominence due only to the living present. The contents of to-day's paper are worth to-morrow about as much as a collection of second-hand Chinese door-plates would be to a Hibernian charity society. By sending the boy home with his head full of anti-Chilean bluster or *modus vivendi* jargon, we may win a little cheap applause from the unthinking; but, while this may make the unskillful stare, it cannot but make the judicious grieve.

If the study be defended upon the ground of cultivating a habit of reading newspapers and periodicals, the sufficient reply is that the habit needs no cultivating—it already prevails to a hurtful extent. Whether the man of to-day reads anything else or not, he reads the daily paper. In a well-considered article upon "What to Read" Canon Farrar uses these words: "Avoid the habit of promiscuous reading. The indiscriminate devouring of newspapers, magazines, and periodicals has much to answer for. It wastes our time; it dissipates our energies; it distracts the attention; it vulgarizes the soul; it weakens the memory; it fills the mind with undigested or half-digested scraps and fragments of knowledge which have little or no relation to each other, and which give the semblance of information without the reality." During the last meeting of the superintendents' section of this Association, while discussing the subject of school libraries, Superintendent Coy is reported as declaring it to be his opinion that "newspapers and periodicals furnish the most serious obstacles to good reading," and no dissent from this opinion was recorded. Bearing in mind that reading matter for young people was the subject under consideration, the opinions of these men deserve serious consideration, if not unqualified approval. It will be noticed that they deplore not the quality, but the promiscuous, desultory character of the matter read; hence it cannot be claimed that the study of current events in school tends to the formation of correct habits in this respect. The essential character of the subject-matter almost necessarily leads to the strengthening, rather than to the correction, of an aimless habit of reading.

It is true that a little may be done in developing good taste in the selection of matter, but only a very little. What one selects depends upon what he is, and one strong wholesome book will do more to mold the character and create a taste for the best in literature, than tenfold as many pages of the most carefully selected chapters of current history. Even for supplementary reading, stories from the ancient classics—stories that all must know, to read the best literature of to-day with profit—and the biographies of American pioneers, the representatives of our own heroic age, are to be commended on stronger grounds than can be claimed for current events.

Miss Morris, New York: *Mr. President, Ladies, and Gentlemen:* Mrs. Stowe makes Christopher Crowfield say to his wife: "Mrs. Crowfield, that remark is as good as though I had made it myself." So I say of the papers which have preceded me. They are good, they are very good; yet the American boy and girl will read the newspapers—they are reading the newspapers. Now, how shall the teacher of the American boy and girl direct that reading? May I give a little out of my own experience? It will be pardonable, I trust. Let me say how we use the newspaper in our school. Perhaps you may find some better way. Let me take a concrete example. Immediately after the assassination of President Garfield, I used the daily papers of New York and Brooklyn, that the boys and girls in the grammar department might feel in touch with the story of President Garfield's sufferings. Immediately after the opening exercises there were a few words read from an editorial, usually from the New York *Tribune*. At the close of the sad story the papers were gathered up and put into a large portfolio. We used also the illustrated papers of New York, and those were put by for future use. That was the study of current history.

I may take also another illustration. At the time that our eyes were turned toward Emin Pasha, illustrated papers from across the water were brought into the schoolroom. Maps and pictures were used. They were hung in the corridor. Very little time was taken from the school hours, but all these maps and pictures were placed where free access could be had to them. At the close some little papers were written. One little fellow became so interested that the superintendent, when he examined the school, seemed much delighted with what this little fellow had gathered from these pictures and papers. We made great use of the editorials in the *Youth's Companion*. There we got a colorless statement of current events, put in a brief, plain way, for boys and girls. In the higher class we also made use, at times, of the *Christian Union*. I remember one evening after school going into the corridor and hearing a little fellow say: "Eh?"

I said, "What is it?" He said: "Why, the *Christian Union* and the *Youth's Companion* don't say the same thing about Emin Pasha." I had read both articles myself and hadn't noticed any contradiction; he had noticed more closely than I.

Now, a boy or girl accustomed to the best reading, or the use of such papers as the *Youth's Companion* and the *Christian Union*, will in later life read those same papers. I believe there is a large possibility in this direction.

The bright things that I should have said I cannot say, as my time is exhausted.

MR. VAILE: I have but little to say; but I do want to notice some of the objections presented by Mr. Beggs. I realize fully the demoralizing effect of miscellaneous periodical reading: it has a very injurious effect. What our children need in the way of newspaper reading is well-digested matter, and that the average newspaper does not give. Take the dispatches; how many times you read over the same thing in the same paper, only coming from different hours of the day, perhaps only a few minutes apart. Yet we all read a whole column of dispatches on the same subject. If our newspapers would only digest the matter and give us the substance of the news, and let us be done with it, I think that would meet much of the objection which my friend makes to periodical reading.

Another point: this newspaper reading of current events is not so much for the purpose of forming an opinion as it is to put the boy or girl in position to be able to form an intelligent opinion on current events, which should be its main object, and which is its only legitimate purpose in the schoolroom—to put the pupils in position to form their own opinions, to draw their own conclusions on great questions which they must face in the future, and which we are facing now.

LITERATURE FOR CHILDREN.

BY PRINCIPAL GEORGE E. HARDY, NEW YORK CITY.

RECOGNIZING what experience has so amply demonstrated—namely, that any scheme of education which does not provide for the moral development of the child is radically defective, and contains within itself the germs of its own ultimate destruction—let us consider whether under existing conditions there is any instrument of ethical culture available whereby we as teachers can teach the child its duty, which, as Immanuel Kant has truly said, is the obligation to act from pure reverence of the moral law.

It is not a task of great difficulty for one who is gifted with any insight into child nature, or any sympathy with child life, to enlist a twelve-year-old boy on the side of nobility, self-sacrifice, and right-doing. But when this ingenuous period of child life is past, in what way can we in our daily work inspire our pupils with lofty ethical ideals, and plant them firmly in the rugged path of duty?

LITERATURE AS AN ETHICAL AID.

It is my conviction, based on the observation and results of ten years' work in this direction, that under our present limitations this most important and vital part of our work can be accomplished only through the continued reading and study by our scholars of the best literature. In

view of what I have already said, I cannot now be misunderstood as advocating the doctrine that in the study of literature will be found the regeneration of mankind: nevertheless, accepting the definition of Professor Laurie, that "literature is the universal medium for the expression of the whole range of man's nature under the impulse of the beautiful," it has seemed to me that in presenting the beauties of our noble English literature to our children we are training them in higher aspirations, and both by precept and example silently guiding and advancing them in the spiritual life. Plato in his "Republic" has said "that the words of truth and beauty are the best garrisons of souls whom God loves," and although mere æsthetic training can never take the place of training in morals, yet, as an introduction to the beautiful, it can, through the medium of literature, be made the stepping-stone to a loftier conception of life. Certainly it is most probable that an intimate acquaintance with the purest and best of our literature will call into existence the spiritual life in many a child who, for one reason or another, is beyond the reach of any higher formative agency, and with it will bring to him an elevation of character, which in itself is a development of moral strength.

THE TRUE FUNCTION OF THE READING LESSON.

The great problem of the schools to-day is not to teach our pupils how to read, but what to read. The true function of the reading lesson is to stimulate and control the child's imagination, to fill his mind with the highest thoughts of the best men, and to create for him an ethical ideal which shall dominate his entire being and be at the very center of his consciousness; and it is our bounden duty as teachers to supply such inspirations to our pupils at every stage of their intellectual life, by presenting them the best of our literature that they can appreciate and understand.

If we fail to do this, and content ourselves with giving the child the mere mechanical ability to read, we are leaving him in the possession of a power that is equally potent for evil as it is for good. For nowadays a child who can read, must read; and, if we do not lead and direct his taste, the enemy, who is ever lying in wait for poor, faltering humanity, will give the child abundant opportunity to taste of the knowledge of evil; and this evil, whose knowledge is death to the soul of any pure boy or girl, is crowding us at every turn and corner of life.

In what way can we save our little ones from such contamination? My answer is, by making it impossible from the very beginning for them to like such literature, and by filling their minds from their earliest years with great thoughts, so that by constantly thinking of them they will become like greatest men.

But, you ask, where will such important work be commenced? Every intelligent teacher is agreed nowadays that English literature should be

substituted for the modern graded reader in the upper grades. Not every intelligent teacher, however, is prepared to agree with me, I venture to say, when I state that a child should commence the reading of real literature when he has acquired the mechanical power of reading—in other words, when he has mastered the primer.

OUR USELESS GRADED READERS.

Apart from the novelty of this statement, there can be no other real objection to it. To discard the graded series of readers with their trivial and commonplace reading matter, and to substitute real literature in their place, is neither the burdensome nor hopeless task that it appears to be at first sight. We are not called on to make literature : it is lying at our very doors. For real literature commences in the nursery with Mother Goose, and continues onward through the folk and fairy tales unbrokenly, till it reaches up to the greatest masters of our tongue. We will find it everywhere among the classics of our language, in the works that have stood the test of years, "the books of all time" as Mr. Ruskin calls them.

OUR TASK AS EDUCATORS.

Our task is but to select and arrange ; to grade and adapt. Reading from the great masterpieces under the careful direction of his teacher, the child will often form for himself unconsciously a correct standard of the true and the good ; and, acting under its influence, he will reject the false and the impure. In the course of time he will become possessed of a conscious ideal of life, which, while not rising to the highest, will yet serve him as an ethical touchstone to which he can safely refer many of the problems of life. In the possession of even such a standard he will refuse to accept phrases as principles, turgid sentiment as virtue, and jingling words as measures of right living. If we can thus advance our pupils upward in the path of right living, we shall have attained the highest results that teachers in our schools can hope to attain.

THE TEACHER HIMSELF.

Having made our selection of literature so as to bring it within the sympathy and intelligence of our young charges, there remains little to be said ; for if the teacher's nature has not "been subdued to what it works in, like the dyer's hand," and he fails to bring the growing minds of his scholars into sympathetic relations with the thoughts and aspirations of the saints and the sages into whose company he has admitted them, then no discussion by me of the rules of method or procedure will avail him. He, too, like our present scheme of public instruction, will have failed in the most vital part of the great work of education.

LITERATURE FOR TEACHERS.

BY HAMILTON W. MABIE, EDITOR OF "THE CHRISTIAN UNION."

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen : I should not stand before you to-day in this place if I did not agree with Matthew Arnold that in what we call literature consists the greatest educational force available to man. This is an extreme statement, but I begin with an extreme statement in order that you may see how radically I propose to express my own views.

You have listened to an admirable paper on the importance of the study of "Literature for Children," approached, I may say, from a somewhat novel standpoint. I want to speak to you about the importance of literature for ourselves; if you will permit me, ladies and gentlemen,—avoiding as I shall any attempt to discuss this question from the technical side,—to class myself with you as a teacher; for surely the office and functions of the teacher are not confined to the class-room, but belong to all those who, whether with the pen or voice, attempt to guide, instruct, and inspire public opinion.

There is behind every special aptitude a general force. There is behind every intelligent energy, constantly and successfully put forth, a deep and rich nature. It is this which, it seems to me, literature is eminently qualified to deepen and enrich. If I understand the special perils of the teacher, they are the danger of routine and the possibility of loss of zest and interest. It has been my good fortune to be under several eminent teachers. I have observed that their special quality was not so eminently scholarship—though adequate scholarship is of course always necessary—but something personal, intimate, and individual; something not to be had from books or from other men; something which they possessed, and in a sense they alone possessed. And that which gave them their influence and their power, was the impartation of this personal quality by contact between the individual teacher and the individual pupil. Now, how to get this richness and fullness of life? In all great leaders, whether teachers or otherwise, in all great artists, this characteristic is noticeable, that what we call work becomes play; for when tasks pass so far onward that the nature becomes adapted to them, accustomed to the doing of them, and enters deeply into the spirit of them, they cease to become work and they become play. For the distinction between the two is obvious: work is forced, work requires the action of the will, work is a means to an end; play is spontaneous, play is free, play is a joy in itself. Now, the great poets, and the great painters, and the great orators, and the great writers, and the great teachers have so mastered their themes and are so possessed by them, that these themes, through the whole expression

of their thought, become the natural overflow of a full-tided nature; become not severe task work, but the gracious, easy, lawful, natural outgoing of the tides of power within. Now, it is this vital, this life quality that we find in the great writers. It is this quality which literature offers us. I might say that there is no body of material in the world superior to literature for the teaching of information, of fact. But that is not its great quality, or the distinctive quality of the greatest writers, of Homer and Dante and Shakespeare and Goethe. The distinctive quality of these writers is not the body of thought or compass of information in them. It is the life quality, the vitality that pulses through them and makes their works refulgent with this force. You remember Milton's definition of a great book. He says: "It is the life-blood of a master's spirit." So it is with all the books of the writers I have named; and, for the purpose of which I am speaking to-day, they are just as available in translation as in the original. This quality of vitality is the supreme quality in each and every one of them. A man who really knows his Shakespeare; knows him, that is, not in the academic sense,—for I have known men, who know Shakespeare in the academic sense, to be as dry and dull and dusty as the country highroads in summer—a man who knows Shakespeare not in the academic sense only, but in a vital sense, in the literary sense, cannot be either a dull teacher or a dead teacher. There is a quality of life in Shakespeare which has the power, the faculty of imparting its power to our life. The wonderful thing about any group of plays which you may take—as, for instance, Antony and Cleopatra, Julius Cæsar, or Henry V., these three contrasted plays by way of example—is not the thought, the quality of genius in expression, so wonderful, so rare, and so fine at times that there is nothing beyond it except nature itself. It is not this which is so wonderful; but it is the quality of life in each one of these plays. For when you study them to the bottom, when you get at the spirit of them, you feel that you have three different streams of life flowing in upon you. You have Oriental life, you have Roman life, and you have English life. Each play, to the very heart of it, the last detail of it, corresponds, illustrates, and conveys the life which it represents. There could be no more beautiful or perfect contrast in art than between the richness and splendor and languor of Antony and Cleopatra, the clear-cut architectural solidity, completeness, and distinctness of outline of Julius Cæsar, and the vital, manly power, the individual courage in Henry V. There is something here more than art, my friends, something here more than the touch of the great man; it is the impartation of life through another great life.

And what is true of Shakespeare is true of Homer. The teacher who knows his Odyssey can teach the real significance of the ocean—I mean, can convey to his pupil an idea of the ocean as one of the sublime features of the natural world, one of the great features of the natural land-

scape, and as a great international highway in history—infinitely better than he who knows every physical quality and fact about it. And so is it with Dante. I do not know whether Dr. Harris is here, but I agree with Dr. Harris in thinking that if we had only Dante, and we knew him to the heart, we should be educated as very few of us are educated to-day, for in Dante there is the pulse of the life of a thousand years beating for him who can put his finger upon it. This is true also of Goethe, one of the greatest sources and fountains of education. However we may differ from him in some of his ideas of life, however we may differ from him if we choose to regard him as an ideal of character, we are agreed when it comes to the substance of education, the comprehension of life, the perception of thought, and the broad sympathy and insight which makes the man a master of his time and interpreter of it; certainly there is none greater than this greatest of the modern minds.

These great leaders, as I have said, are vitalizing. They are great because they were so full of life, not because they were so full of fact. Great historians were full of fact, full of information, but you may run the eye over the long list of their forgotten folios in any university library. But the distinctive quality of great writers is that they were so full of life that there were few dull moments in the lives of any of them. They were so great because they were so full of life, and so freely imparted it; because thought did not become commonplace to them, nor experience become commonplace, and the great world did not lose anything of its charm and its power. They have the power of inspiration, because they touched life at first hand, and they have preserved it in fathomless fountains for all those who choose to go to them.

There is one other quality in these great leaders of which I must speak to you. If I spoke out of my own experience, I should say that the teacher above all men needs constant education in the larger truths; needs to get away constantly from details; to climb, as it were, out of the valley and out of the dusty highroad, and stand as often as may be on the heights overlooking the whole landscape. The greatest things men have ever done have been the interpretation of their own lives, through symbols in art. These are the supreme achievements of the race. These are the things to which all other knowledge is secondary, and to which all other knowledge contributes. Any change of knowledge—and it is significant—involves ultimately a change in our conception of life. The recent advances in science have compelled a revision of our view of life; and so, ultimately, every bit of knowledge that goes to the foundation of things reaches these finer conceptions and modifies them. They are the supreme achievements of the race, to which all other achievements mount and climb, and in which they are expressed more beautifully and more enduringly. Now, these supreme achievements, these great interpretations, are found in art, and chiefly in literature. They are found

especially in the great writers whom I have named, and I take these names not exclusively, but because they stand for the whole company and for the first and the greatest.

If you want to know what the Greek thought of life was, go to your Homer: you will find it there; and you will find it not merely as a reflection, but as a vital thing.

Open your Dante: you will find again the life not only of the mediæval times, but of the ages behind them.

Open your Shakespeare, and there is another conception of life. Open your Goethe, and there is still another.

Now, these great thoughts of life are the things for which education exists; it is for the creation of these things that education exists. Not that we may gather facts with it, not that we may become informed simply, but that we may press knowledge on to truth, that we may press from every fact the general law, and at last come face to face with the universe and understand what it is and what our lives are in it.

Let me say, in closing, that I wish we understood a little more the practical use of poetry. We think of it as an idle thing. I think of it as the supreme expression of life. Do you remember Wordsworth's definition of poetry? "The breath and finer spirit of all knowledge;" "the impassioned expression on the countenance of all science." When truth mounts high enough and becomes general enough and broad enough, it passes on out of science into poetry.

Now, there has been one great age that was educated on poetry, educated on a single poet—the Periclean age. You know what the Athenian education was, and how in a hundred years they produced supreme masters in half a dozen different directions. It is true, race had something to do with it, but education must have had something to do with it. How were those boys trained? To what school did they go? I do not need to tell you that Homer was their Bible, their text-book; that every Athenian boy knew that book, and by that knowledge was nursed at the breast of his race. He did not depend upon text-books; he was nurtured by great myths, he was taken straight to the history of his race. He learned it not abstractly, but in its great stories, its great poetry, its great characters. And I cannot help thinking that there was something vitalizing in that education; that it was no accident that the drama, that architecture and art and eloquence had their supreme illustrations and examples in the age that was nursed upon poetry. There was, I believe, a direct connection between this education and the splendid fruitage of Athenian life. There were two qualities in this education which are always present in great intellectual movements; it was vital, and it stimulated the imagination. It did not deal with mere records of fact, it held up constantly heroic men and their deeds; it did not content itself with imparting information, it conveyed great truths of

life as they were understood at that time, and conveyed them not abstractly, but concretely, by living example. There is nothing to be said against the education which informs and instructs; it is good as far as it goes, but it does not go far enough, and there is something beyond it. In some form education must possess and impart the quality of inspiration. It must furnish motivity as well as material for mental action. Now, inspiration springs not from the fact, but from the perception of the truth to which the fact ought to lead. And this truth receives its finest expression and its noblest form in poetry.

Therefore, I urge you, as I constantly urge myself, to the study, the companionship of these great writers who have this power of life, and, through a constant companionship with these supreme conceptions of life, to get out of the dreariness of detail, and out of the bondage of fact, into the larger liberty of truth and into the great world of ideas and force, which can inspire and elevate the life of drudgery and toil.

REPRESENTATION OF EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS AT THE WORLD'S EXPOSITION.

ALBERT G. LANE, CHICAGO.

1. In February, 1890, the department of superintendence of the N. E. A., at its meeting in New York City, very fully considered the question, "What shall be the character and scope of the American Educational Exhibit at the International Exposition of 1893?" Valuable suggestions and outlines were presented by Hon. John Eaton, James H. Canfield, Aaron Gove, James MacAlister, William E. Sheldon, C. W. Bardeen, Dr. Butler, and others, which very fully covered all departments of educational affairs. In addition thereto are the circulars of information and directions for the preparation of exhibits which have been issued by the chief of the Department of Liberal Arts and by the various State Superintendents or special committees representing State Teachers' Associations. These schemes have been carefully examined, and exhibits are being prepared in nearly every city, town, county, and State in the Union in accordance with the instructions issued by the various State departments. The special characteristics of each State system will be prominently set forth. There will be of necessity much that is duplicated, and repetition must be expected.

2. A brief summary of information furnished by Dr. Peabody shows that nearly five acres, or two hundred thousand square feet, of space have been given to the educational exhibit, which will be placed at the entrance of the building assigned to the Liberal Arts and Manufactures. This

building is the largest in the enclosure of nearly six hundred acres, fronts the Grand Central Avenue, and has a total floor-space of forty-two acres.

It has been stated in the public press that there is not room for the foreign exhibits, that the space on the main floor which has been assigned to Education is urgently needed for Manufactures, and that the Department of Liberal Arts will be obliged to occupy the galleries. I am informed that no action of this kind has been taken by the management; but, if it should become necessary, the construction of the great building is such that the galleries constitute the lightest and finest position for educational exhibits.

Let us still hope that the appropriation asked from Congress may specially provide that at least $350,000 shall be devoted to the construction of a separate building for education.

3. The exhibits will be arranged by States and Countries in parallel sub-divisions extending north and south, and by grades or classification according to the age of the children whose work is presented, from east to west. By this arrangement the exhibit of a State may be examined as a unit, or the grades of work from the kindergarten to the university may be compared or traced through all the States.

4. The very complete reports of the educational systems of the States and of foreign countries, published by the Bureau of Education, show an approximate similarity in the classification of children, as follows:

1. Kindergarten, 4 to 6 years of age.
2. Primary, 6 to 10 years of age.
3. Grammar, 10 to 14 years of age.
4. High school, 14 to 18 years of age.
5. College, 18 to 22 years of age.

This classification will practically cover the different divisions, and the number of years in each division will indicate the grades of work in our own and foreign countries. Comparisons must be made upon the work done with children within certain limits of age.

5. It is difficult to determine when the first educational exhibit was ever held. Not, however, until 1867, at Paris, did education receive special attention. Since then, at Vienna in 1873, at Philadelphia in 1876, at Paris in 1878, at New Orleans in 1885, and at Paris in 1889, the educational systems of various countries have been partially represented in material exhibits.

The United States has not been adequately represented at any of the foreign expositions. The educators of this country, however, have carefully studied foreign educational systems, and have introduced, experimentally, special features into American schools, such as the kindergarten, manual training, sloyd, sewing, cooking, etc.

The relation and value of each of these special subjects to a general education are still topics for discussion and controversy. The efficacy of

true kindergarten instruction for young children has been demonstrated after twenty-five years of testing in this country. It is gradually becoming an essential part of our educational system. Primary teaching has been materially modified by it.

Manual training is seeking a legitimate place in our schools, and slowly it is being introduced. Sewing and cooking are demanded in the great cities. Trade schools have been introduced from foreign educational systems. These indicate the problems of education that must be solved in dealing with the children in the great centers of population. The demand for the practical in education is a cry for only the training which will enable children to become bread-winners.

A high ideal of education must be maintained, and the introduction of manual training in its varied forms must be made to enlarge, strengthen, and make efficient the mental, moral, and physical development of children.

If the exhibits of foreign nations which have fostered a system of trade schools and have made manual training valuable in education, if the sewing, cooking, wood-carving, and other forms of hand-work, show increased mental power above purely intellectual training, then the evidences of broader thinking, better discipline, and higher culture will be manifest in their exhibits.

6. Systems of education have been formulated in courses of study by a few leaders. Courses of study have been copied or have been determined by the text-books in use.

The text-books have been mighty agents in diffusing the best educational methods, and at the same time have placed limitations on the power of the teacher. The text-book has been the measure of the child's growth, and examinations have been used as the measure of a pupil's power. Unskilled teachers have made the system a burden and a hinderance to mental growth.

7. A reaction in favor of the skilled teacher as compared with the drill-master has come. The new in education opens the world of things, with their differences, resemblances, uses, form, color, a field for observation limitless, inviting the child to explore and to express his observations in his own language. His effort to learn new things offers the opportunity for presenting the symbols of his thought while his interest is intense, thus making reading, writing, and number aids and helps in the representation and expression of thought. Geography and history become the means of interpreting conditions about the child, and ultimately those beyond his sight. The world of science, the phenomena of nature, life, and growth are studied with reference to the unfolding of an exact knowledge and a right relation to all things.

8. The text-books in use will constitute a very important and valuable feature in the exposition. Every device or special method in teaching

that has any merit will be accorded a suitable place. Every map or chart illustrating any part of the whole scheme of education must find its proper position. All that pertains to apparatus, furnishings, plans, and construction of schools, heating, light, and ventilation of buildings, must be presented.

9. The most effective agents in educational growth are the normal schools and departments of pedagogy in our own and foreign universities, the educational publications, the institutes for teachers, the libraries, and the reading circles. They have all combined to make our systems of education vary in the different States according to the degree or extent to which these means have been employed.

The normal schools have been the experiment stations where ideal plans could be thoroughly tested. The educational magazines have become potent factors in the education of teachers—clearing-houses for educational ideas. The institutes annually gather one hundred thousand teachers to study the best ways of teaching. The libraries are silently broadening and mentally enriching the American people. The reading circles and university extension lectures are agents in making teaching the equal of any other profession.

Compulsory education is so prominently before the American people at the present time, that all items of information which will give the requirements of the laws enacted, and the statistics showing the reduction of illiteracy in States and countries where compulsory laws have been enforced, will be of great value.

The establishment of night schools in the cities, their courses of study involving work from the beginning of the common branches to business forms, architectural drawing, stenography, and typewriting, demand attention, and should be properly represented.

10. The Exposition of 1893 will represent all these and other phases of the educational problem. The exhibits from the several States will make an immense representation of the visible products of our school system. The special features which will indicate the result of original investigation, the application of some principle in education, or the elimination of needless work from the course of study will be found, provided sufficient time is given for investigation.

11. The leaders of educational thought have outlined and discussed the ideal systems of child training. No one place has incorporated all these ideas. We have had several mass exhibits, and there is now a demand for a selected exhibit, graded, related, and unified, showing the status of the best in our varied systems.

By way of illustration, St. Louis might be selected to represent the kindergarten, St. Paul the primary grades, Washington (D. C.) the grammar grades, Toledo the high-school grades, Albany the normal schools, and Michigan State University to represent higher instruction. Manual

training, color work, science in elementary schools, drawing, physical culture, improved laboratory systems, would all be represented in the exhibits of these schools.

The organization and scheme of work in our rural schools might be illustrated by the best selections which could be made from Illinois, Indiana, or Wisconsin, which were the first to adopt a uniform outline of study for all rural schools in the State, and to provide institutes for the instruction of teachers in the method of carrying out its provisions.

This National Educational Association would render an invaluable service to thousands of teachers, would honor itself, and greatly advance the best interests of education throughout the world, if it would authorize and collect such a special exhibit under the direction of Dr. Peabody.

12. The proposed world's educational congresses will afford opportunities to use the material exhibit in the illustration of ideas and principles which may be the themes of discussion.

Certainly it will be possible to show many forms of educational work in active operation; not in the crowded public thoroughfare, but in some of the smaller assembly rooms, which will be arranged for illustrative exercises in manual training, laboratory work, physical culture, etc.

Wherever it is possible to properly represent a system by a working class, there should be the active exhibit.

There are many great problems relating to capital and labor, economy in foods, dress reform, storage of power, waste of materials, that are demanding the attention of thinkers throughout the world.

Opportunity must be given for the fullest consideration of these topics in discussion and in material expression where possible. Such questions are of the utmost importance to the welfare of this and other nations. Far more important and above every other interest that may find representation in the great Exposition of 1893 will be the problem of determining the best methods and means of developing a perfect physical being, of unfolding symmetrically intellectual faculties, and for the training of the moral nature in its growth, so that children may be brought to a perfect use of all their powers, may live in right relations to their fellowmen, and thus honor God and their country. The source of power is in those who control education.

"The people which has the best schools is the first people: if it is not so to-day, it will be to-morrow."

THE WORLD'S CONGRESSES OF 1893.

BY HON. C. C. BONNEY, OF CHICAGO, PRESIDENT OF THE WORLD'S CONGRESS AUXILIARY.

THE aim of this address is to convey as much information in regard to the World's Congresses of 1893 as can be given within the allotted time.

The educational advantages of the international congresses, to be arranged and conducted by the World's Congress Auxiliary in connection with the World's Columbian Exposition of 1893, can best be shown by a plain statement of their plans and purposes.

It may, in a preliminary way, be said that these congresses are planned to constitute a world's summer university, in which may be studied the progress of mankind in all the departments of civilized life. That the exhibit of human achievements in material forms will be a magnificent success is already known throughout the world.

But what is the World's Congress Auxiliary? What is its relation to the World's Columbian Exposition? What is its relation to the Government of the United States? What is the scope of the proposed World's Congress scheme? What has actually been done in the execution of that scheme? What still remains to be accomplished, and by what means does the Auxiliary expect to attain the desired results?

The world has become familiar with the idea of international exhibitions, and the tremendous influence which they have exerted in advancing the civilization of the age is universally recognized. The Exposition at London in 1851, at Philadelphia in 1876, and at Paris in 1889, confessedly marked new eras in human progress.

"The spiritualization of thought" in France, wrought by the magic power of the last Exposition at Paris, is of such a remarkable character that it has justly excited the surprise and admiration of those who watch with solicitude the important events of the age.

It is safe to say that no recent event has excited more wide-spread wonder than the selection of Chicago, the youngest great city of the globe, as the site for the proposed quadri-centennial celebration of the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus. We naturally look to the older centers of civilization for the highest displays of human genius and aspiration, and it almost seems as though some mighty and mysterious power must have intervened to so change the common course of events.

As soon as the location of the Exposition was fixed at Chicago, it was felt that no merely material exhibit would answer the demands of the time. The intellectual and moral forces of the nineteenth century have become so

potent and active that there at once arose a demand for their proper presentation in connection with the proposed Exposition.

A formal proposal of a series of world's congresses soon followed, and the evolution of that proposal has steadily proceeded until the present time. The primary idea of the project was that many of the leaders of human progress will naturally come to the Exposition of 1893, and that it is due to them that some arrangements be made under which those of similar tastes and callings from different countries may form the acquaintance of each other and engage in friendly conference on matters of common concern.

This primary idea developed into the secondary thought—that to increase the benefits of such acquaintance and conference, and to enlarge the attendance at the Exposition, a reasonable effort should be made to induce a general attendance of those who have taken an active part in any of the great fields of human endeavor.

This secondary idea speedily developed into a third—that instead of leaving the intellectual and moral administration of 1893 to occupy a merely incidental relation to the material exhibit, a proper organization should be effected, an adequate and comprehensive plan devised, and a persistent and well-directed effort made to crown the Exposition of 1893 by a proper presentation of the achievements of human genius in a series of great assemblies to which the chief apostles of progress in all countries should be invited, and by the formation of a series of world-wide fraternities to promote the future welfare of mankind.

With these ideas, a committee was formed to make the preliminary arrangements. The general proposal was received with so much favor that the necessity for a separate and relatively independent organization soon became manifest, and the World's Congress Auxiliary was accordingly organized. It consists of the usual general officers, a local membership divided into various committees of organization and direction, advisory councils to assist these committees, and general honorary and corresponding members. The committees of organization are necessarily local, to enable them to attend committee meetings and execute the details of the necessary arrangements. The advisory councils constitute the nonresident branches of the various committees. The members of such councils are selected from different countries throughout the world; and such members are expected to coöperate actively, by means of correspondence, with the committees to which they are adjoined. The general honorary and corresponding members constitute what may be called the advisory council of the whole Auxiliary.

Although originally authorized and supported by the directory of the World's Columbian Exposition, and subsequently by the Government of the United States, the World's Congress Auxiliary has, nevertheless, always had the independent control and conduct of its own work.

The Auxiliary was, soon after it entered upon the execution of its plans, formally recognized by the Government of the United States. The original announcement of the World's Congress scheme was sent with the President's invitation and other documents to foreign nations. An act of Congress was passed making an appropriation for the support of the Auxiliary, recognizing it as the proper agency to conduct the proposed series of international congresses. Subsequently the Senate of the United States, in acting on a report of the Committee on Foreign Relations, formally declared that the World's Congress Auxiliary so far represents the Government of the United States, in respect to such international congresses, that any further action on the part of the President of the United States or of Congress is unnecessary. In pursuance of the action thus taken, the foreign ministers of the United States have been instructed to invite the governments of the countries to which they are respectively accredited to select and appoint delegates to all or any of the proposed world's congresses, in addition to the representatives who are expected from the various institutions and societies throughout the world.

The organization for the proposed world's congresses has been developed to meet the needs presented from time to time. The committees are not of any fixed number. Each committee is formed according to the circumstances of the case, and an addition to its membership may be made, for cause, at any time. While the committees of organization are generally of small numbers, the advisory councils may consist of any convenient number, located as they are or may be in all parts of the world. No committee has been appointed except when the occasion for it arose. If the committees are numerous, the demand has made them so.

The idea of a series of separate and disconnected conventions of various learned societies has never been entertained by the Auxiliary. On the contrary, the leading idea from the beginning has been to bring the highest and best representatives of all the departments of human progress together in a series of harmoniously arranged and closely connected conventions to occupy the whole six months of the Exposition season of 1893. It is obvious that if a large number of independent organizations should attempt to meet in Chicago next year, and each hold its own separate convention, it would be impossible to provide adequate places of meeting, and the value of the proceedings would be seriously impaired by the repetitions and duplications which would be inevitable. For this and other reasons it was very early determined that all the learned institutions and societies which should respond to the invitation to participate in the world's congresses of 1893 should be asked to merge their papers and discussions in appropriate world's congresses in which all should have just recognition. At the same time, it was seen that such societies should be afforded an opportunity to transact any necessary business without holding an

additional meeting at any other time and place. Arrangements will therefore be made for brief sessions to enable the various existing organizations to transact such business.

It is also expected that arrangements will be effected to secure the publication of the proceedings of the whole series of world's congresses; their distribution by the Government of the United States to foreign governments, libraries, and other institutions, and a supply of the proceedings of all or any of the congresses, at cost, to all persons who may desire to obtain the same.

The arrangements for the various congresses cannot be understood without a clear idea of the places of meeting which are in course of preparation. The Art Institute of Chicago and the Directory of the World's Columbian Exposition have united in a plan which will secure the completion, in time for the use of the world's congresses, of a magnificent building called "The World's Congress Art Palace," located on the Lake Front Park of Chicago. This building will contain two audience rooms capable of accommodating about three thousand persons each; also more than twenty smaller rooms with a seating capacity of from three to seven hundred persons each. In these smaller rooms the meetings of the various sections of different congresses will be held. These places of meeting will enable numerous bodies to hold simultaneous or alternate sessions during a given week or longer term of the Exposition season.

The World's Congress work, as thus far organized, consists of seventeen departments, subdivided into more than one hundred general divisions, in each of which a congress will be held. Each of the sciences, for example, has its appropriate division, and will of course have its own congress. The popular sessions, for the presentation of subjects in which large numbers of persons will be interested, will be held in one or both of the large audience rooms; while the meetings of the chapters or sections of a division will be held in the smaller rooms, which will doubtless be sufficient to accommodate those who will desire to attend.

But how will the various congresses be constituted, and under what regulations will the proceedings be arranged? The first public official act of each committee is to issue its preliminary address, to be sent to persons interested throughout the world, to inform them of the general plans and purposes of the proposed congress, and to invite their suggestions of persons, themes, and modes of proceeding to be utilized in forming the programme of the congress.

The World's Congress Auxiliary expressly disclaims the idea of organizing and conducting a series of world's congressss without the coöperation of persons interested, in all countries. The Auxiliary therefore defers the formation of any programme until such persons shall have had opportunity to furnish the desired suggestions. With such opportunity the managing

committees will form the appropriate programmes, and with due advice from the advisory councilors will finally settle and promulgate them.

The world's congresses of 1893 will not seek to do everything. If they should attempt to do this, confusion and failure would result. Their work will be limited to certain specific objects which are believed to be capable of attainment. They will endeavor to present in every department a summary of progress down to the date of the Columbian Exposition. They will also endeavor to present in a graphic and comprehensive manner the pending problems of progress, the difficulties which impede their solution, and the means by which those difficulties may be removed. It is obvious that there will not be any time or opportunity for any prolonged debate over any of the great themes which will be presented in any of the proposed congresses. The papers for the congresses of 1893 are not to be submitted to the passing decision of those who may happen to attend, but to the deliberate judgment of the enlightened world. Themes will not be selected to suit particular persons; but, the proper subjects having been chosen, the persons believed to be best fitted to make adequate presentation of them will then be chosen. It is expected that each selected writer will be given at least half a year for the preparation of the paper assigned to him. The regulations in regard to papers and discussions will all be fixed with reference to the proposed publication, and not merely with reference to the oral presentation during the congress. The Auxiliary committees will trust their advisory councilors throughout the world to give them good advice in relation to themes, persons, and modes of proceeding, and hope that, on the other hand, it will be believed that they are both willing and able to follow the good advice so to be given.

Very obviously, a well-considered World's Congress scheme would not only embrace, but largely depend upon, the coöperation of existing societies and institutions of the various participating countries; and it was therefore provided that such societies and institutions be not only invited generally to attend and participate in the various congresses, but that they be also asked to appoint Committees of Coöperation to represent their respective organizations and take an active part in connection with the committees and advisory councils in arranging plans for the various conventions to be held. By such committees of coöperation, existing organizations may not only have proper recognition, but may also be given opportunities to participate more actively than would otherwise be practicable in the arrangements in which they are concerned.

The administration of the several congresses will be such as to present to the attending participants the largest practicable number of the leaders in the department. Distinguished representatives will be invited to preside at different sessions, or at different parts of the same session, of a given congress. While controversial debate will be excluded, arrangements will be made for remarks by eminent specialists in elucidation of a

subject which shall have been presented. The utmost pains will be taken to economize the time at disposal, and secure the most useful and lasting results. The aim will be to make such a presentation of the actual state of education, literature, science, art, government, labor, agriculture, and the other departments of progress in the different countries of the world, as will be a worthy and enduring memorial of the Exposition of 1893.

But of all the benefits which are expected to flow from the world's congresses of 1893, none can exceed the advantages of mutual acquaintance and the establishment of friendly relations among the leaders of mankind from various countries. For such acquaintance and relations will be sure to advance the peace of nations and the general welfare of all peoples by promoting the reign of moral and intellectual forces throughout the world.

The dates for the various congresses have not yet been definitely fixed; but the list as it now stands, subject to needful changes, is as follows:

WHEN THE WORLD'S CONGRESSES WILL BE HELD.

I. May 15, Woman's Progress.
II. May 22, The Public Press.
III. May 29, Medicine and Surgery.
IV. June 5, Temperance.
V. June 12, Moral and Social Reform.
VI. June 19, Commerce and Finance.
VII. July 3, Music.
VIII. July 10, Literature.
IX. July 17, Education.
X. July 31, Engineering.
XI. July 31, Art, Architecture, etc.
XII. August 7, Government, Law Reform, Political Science, etc.
XIII. August 14, General Department.
XIV. August 21, Science and Philosophy.
XV. August 28, Labor.
XVI. September 5, Religion, Missions, and Church Societies.
XVII. October —, Sunday Rest.
XVIII. October —, Public Health.
XIX. October 16, Agriculture.

With this presentation of the nature and work of the World's Congress Auxiliary, the educational advantages they will offer can readily be seen. Each congress will be a summer school of the subject committed to its charge. If this shall be so, an attendance on the series of congresses, or any considerable number of them, would manifestly involve such educa-

tional advantages as in the natural course of events would not be offered twice in a lifetime.

So much distinguished coöperation has been promised, that the general success of the World's Congress scheme is now regarded as well assured. A day would not suffice for the presentation of the commendations received from leaders in various countries.

A passing glance at the different constellations catches the familiar names of King Oscar, Lord Tennyson, Lord Coleridge, Henry Drummond, Emilio Castelar, Cardinal Gibbons, Archbishop Ireland, Bishop Brooks, Washington Gladden, Lyman Abbott, Josiah Strong, Philip Schaff, Edward Everett Hale, John G. Whittier, Oliver Wendell Holmes, George William Curtis, Andrew D. White, William Dean Howells, James McCosh, William T. Harris, Charles W. Eliot, James B. Angell, D. C. Gilman, William E. Gladstone, Max Müller, Sir Edwin Arnold, James Bryce, Georg Ebers, Francis A. Walker, Carroll D. Wright, Seth Low, E. B. Andrews, Francis Wayland, George Dana Boardman, Bishop Vincent, Seymour D. Thompson, among hundreds of others who will do what may be in their power to promote the world's congresses of 1893.

These congresses are planned, not so much for specialists as for the people. If the illustrious names in any department are few, there are nevertheless multitudes who have such knowledge and appreciation that they will be eager to see and hear the leaders they revere. Those leaders will therefore be asked to speak to the people, as well as to each other, in the congresses of 1893.

THE EDUCATIONAL CONGRESSES.

On this occasion it will be expected that some more specific information in relation to the Educational Congresses will be given. The state of education throughout the world will, as far as practicable, be presented in those congresses. The achievements of the past, and the improvements demanded by the future, are the leading themes proposed for consideration.

The educational authorities of all countries are invited to meet in a World's Congress to consider the relations of the state to the education of the people.

The faculties of the colleges and universities of all lands are invited to meet and consider how they may best coöperate to extend the blessings of higher education throughout the world, especially among the masses of the people, that genius, wherever born, may find a helping hand to guide it to the heights of human service.

The business and commercial colleges and allied organizations are invited to convene for the purpose of elevating the standard and extending the influence of education among all those by whom the business of the world is conducted.

The apostles of the new education—the kindergarten, manual and art training, physical culture, the scientific instruction of the mechanic and the farmer—are asked to come, and in the light of the brilliant successes already attained consider how the principles they advocate may be extended and enabled to exert their benign influence on all systems of education.

The leaders in the musical education of the people, and in the various other educational specialties, are invited to meet and consider how the benefits of the work in which they are engaged may be more widely extended.

The wonderful progress made in recent years in philanthropic education, such as the instruction of the deaf and the instruction of the blind, will also be suitably portrayed.

In response to repeated applications, arrangements are in progress for appropriate congresses of students. It is proposed that there shall be not only a congress of college students, somewhat like that which convened at Paris in 1889, but also a congress of representative youth drawn from the public schools of all countries under the direction of the ministers of education or other appropriate officers. These congresses, if properly convened, will have a peculiar charm. They will bring to Chicago selected representatives of the rising generation, to witness for themselves the events of the quadri-centennial Columbian Exposition, and be able to bear witness thereof when the leaders of our own generation shall have ascended to what the greatest of orators called "the clear upper sky" of enduring renown.

Educational authors and publishers have not been forgotten. They also have interests peculiar to their own relations, and should be given an opportunity to consider and present the important subject of educational text-books and the immense advantages which would result if substantial uniformity could be secured in similar grades of all countries. The well educated in any one country ought not to be "a stranger in a strange land" in the educational domain of another.

But these alone would not meet the requirements of the occasion. It still remains to make all the departments of education one, in a General Educational Congress, in which each will have its appropriate place and part, and in which their reciprocal relations will be considered, and their common interests advanced. This General Educational Congress has been committed to the charge of the Hon. William T. Harris, Commissioner of Education, and the executive committee appointed in this behalf by the National Educational Association.

For the distinguished coöperation and aid thus secured, I cannot do less on this occasion than express the thanks of the World's Congress Auxiliary to this Association, as the largest and most powerful educational society in the world; and also to the eminent educational leader who now honors the office of commissioner of education, and who, by reason of his

high personal qualifications, as well as on account of the magnitude and importance of the interests administered by him, deserves to be the secretary of a department of education, with a seat in the President's cabinet. With this adequate provision for the General Educational Congress, the educational committees of the Auxiliary will be able to give more efficient attention to the special congresses of which mention has been made.

Such are the opportunities which the world's congresses of 1893 will offer to the educational world. If these opportunities shall be improved, as there is every reason to believe they will be, the practical benefits which will result to the peoples of all countries will be so many and so great, that the genius and art of the orator, the poet, and the historian will be taxed to do them justice.

THE DUTY OF THE STATE IN RELATION TO THE KINDERGARTEN.

BY SUPT. ANDREW S. DRAPER, OF CLEVELAND, O.

Mr. President, and Ladies and Gentlemen of the National Educational Association: In all the bewildering multitude of newly discovered facts in the history of Columbus which the approaching celebration has caused to be placed upon the market, I have observed the statement that while he was pursuing his idea, a petitioner at the court of Isabella for the means to sail unknown seas in search of other lands upon the faith of his belief, the children were wont to follow him through the streets with derision, and tap their heads in suggestive inference that he had lost his reason.

When the invitation to address the National Association upon the kindergarten came to me, the first effect was to call up in memory the remark which a word of mine, favorable to the kindergarten, once provoked on the part of an ex-president of this Association—a genial, knowing, self-possessed man, quick in wit and effective in speech, whom we shall all and always delight to honor. Tapping his own majestic brow in a very inferential manner, he consigned my word to the deeps which are dumb, with the exclamation, "Another good man gone daft!" Remembering that one should not be altogether and forever discouraged by an opinion and an expression bred in an inflated atmosphere away up in the top notches of the Rockies, I accepted the invitation and assignment, with full knowledge that there would have been more wisdom in giving it to any one of other thousands, but in the hope that I could make some advance toward the repossession of my old place in the good opinion of my friend, even though I could not hope to discover or explore a world, or provoke a fair on the shores of Lake Michigan, or contribute to the aggrandizement of the city of Chicago.

For obvious and imperative reasons the comparison with Columbus will be pursued no farther.

DUTY OF THE STATE CONCERNING EDUCATION.

"The duty of the state in relation to the kindergarten." What is it? It is worthy of remark, that the query suggests and assumes that the state has *some* duty in relation to education.

And what do we mean by "the state"? Manifestly that organized aggregation of individuals which exercises sovereign authority over all, for the good of all, pursuant to established rules and according to the determination of the greater number.

Under our plan of governmental organization, that sovereign authority upon one subject is lodged in one place, and upon another subject in another place. So far as our coinage, a tariff upon our imports, or our relations with other powers, are concerned, it is with the Federal Government at Washington. So far as public provision for the education of the people is concerned, it is with the governments of the several States. It has never been given over to the United States. Of necessity it could not remain with the hamlets and villages and townships after State governments were organized and alone became possessed of the right to exercise sovereign authority.

There are those who continue to maintain that a town meeting, which may be, and frequently is, ignorant, impoverished, filled with caprice, torn with contention, which has neither original nor final authority to make an order or enforce its observance, is the only power for determining the scope and supervising the operations of such system as it may choose to provide for general education. So there are those who fail to see why a great city, the center of wealth and intellectual activity, should give of its information and its means to the education of a remote and impoverished district, even in a State where the impoverished district helps make the laws, and even under a system the corner-stone principle of which is that "the property of all the people is pledged to the education of the children of all the people."

But the greater number, indeed nearly the entire membership of this Association, do not hold to these views. In their opinion, ample authority to do an unmixed public good is not dangerous to human liberty. They are loath to believe that school officers and teachers are liable to become tyrants. Seeing the rapid growth of both Federal and State authority, imperatively associated with the wonderful increase in population and the development of the resources of the country, discerning the dangers of the future, profiting by experience, they would promote educational activity everywhere and through all instrumentalities. They would employ local agencies for local administrations, but they would hold the

power which makes and administers the laws responsible for the existence of schools within reach of every home; and not of schools only, but, so far as practicable, of such schools as will hold out to every child educational advantages equal to those enjoyed by any other child of the commonwealth. This is the unmistakable trend of public opinion, and ought to be. The safety of our system of public schools and the security of our plan of government are cornered upon it.

Nor are the American people likely to find fault with the public educational system, or the wide range of subjects it covers, or the cost it may involve. Childless wealth may here and there protest, theorists may speculate; but that irresistible public opinion which is wiser than any individual, and which carries all things before it, says, and will continue to say, "Stay not your hand, go on with this work to the uttermost, but have care that the people get the worth of their money, that you reach every child, that your education makes good, sensible, and substantial American citizens."

Because of this general sentiment concerning public education, our educational system has come to have a broad basis, and its operations have a wide scope. With conscious pride we are accustomed to assert that it includes all branches and grades, from the kindergarten to the university. But there is very little of the kindergarten in it. In rare instances, it has been taken up in earnest. More frequently a town tries the experiment in a half-and-half, unscientific way, which is barren of results. Everybody talks in favor of the system, but it mostly ends in talk. An accomplished woman, who is at once an object lesson and an inspiration in herself, travels across the country to address a national meeting of superintendents upon the kindergarten. They admire the woman, they feel the force of what she says, but they also know enough of history to be aware that radical experimentation is frequently the price of superintendents' heads. So they settle with the woman and with their own consciences by passing commendatory resolutions and dropping the matter until the next annual meeting. The less they expect to do, the more effusive and vehement the commendatory resolutions.

KINDERGARTEN AND PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

It is not for me to discuss the merits of the kindergarten work or attempt to reënforce the lesson of its importance. If that were needed to be done, the task would fall upon others. We have passed that stage, however. In the presence of the National Educational Association, it would certainly be a work of supererogation. The responsibility which the occasion presses upon me is that I shall present and promote the determination of the question whether the kindergarten is worthy, in its own right, of a place in the American public-school system. Not whether it

is deserving of the efforts of a few noble women with missionary propensities, but whether the school system stands in need of influences and results which it alone can bestow, whether it is feasible to make it a component part of the system, and whether it is worth the effort and the cost involved in attempting to make it such. We ought to carefully consider and determine, not alone whether it is a good thing, not alone whether we can afford to have it, but also whether we can afford to go on without it. When a determination is reached, let us act upon our determination. When we come to a conclusion, let us stand by our opinion. If we come to believe in it, let us go about making a place for the work in our system; and, when we undertake it, let us make the conditions so favorable that it may have a fair chance for its life.

In approaching the discussion of this particular question, we must not do so from the standpoint of the mother too weak to meet the responsibilities of motherhood, nor from that of the maiden aunt who must always be deemed competent to instruct the mother, nor from that of the trained kindergartner who is charged with having a fad and riding a hobby, nor from that of the general teacher whose habits are fixed and whose action is limited, nor from that of the speculative psychologist who soars away from mundane and material things, nor yet from that of the college professor who disagrees with every other college professor and seems to think that the main business of the public schools is to prepare students so that his particular university may the more easily make philosophers of them.

The kindergarten must stand the test of general utility, or go to the wall. Its philosophy must materialize, or it must fail. It must meet a practical necessity, or it cannot last. The plain man of affairs in his office or in his shop, the plain woman of sense at her fireside, must see that it makes better schools, which more thoroughly promote health as well as grace of person, mental alertness as well as gentleness of disposition, love of kindred and of country, or it must end in overthrow. If the makers of public opinion see that it makes more trusty American citizens and promotes the public security, it will endure.

IMPORTANCE OF PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

We cannot too often emphasize the importance of the best primary instruction. It reaches all who ever come into the schools. The greater number get no other. It prepares the way for what follows. It is what the base is to the mountain, what the foundation is to the building. If the child is entitled to anything in this life, if a self-governing state is bound to bestow anything, the one is entitled to receive and the other is bound to give the best elementary education which means can provide, and which human experience and ingenuity can devise.

Yet, if there is indefiniteness and uncertainty, lack of plan and of scientific treatment, anywhere in our American public schools, it is in the primary work. Nor is this all, nor is it the worst. There is visible interest and improvement everywhere else; there is little or none here. The teachers are, as a rule, the weakest and poorest of the whole system, for the upper grades absorb the best. Each one is a law unto herself. She works for small pay, and without competent supervision or definiteness of plan and purpose. Attendance is irregular. Commonly she is overworked because she works at a disadvantage. The Prussian or the French primary teacher, a skilled and disciplined person with the whole power of the government behind him, and working to a fixed plan which rests upon a scientific basis, is confronted with the problem of producing definite results in a given time, with full and regular attendance, and without any danger of interruption or outside interference. The American primary teacher, with attendance when it suits the will of the parents, if not the will of the children, and drifting without pilot or chart, is confronted with the problem of showing indefinite results in an undefined time, if irate parents, or disgruntled petty officials, do not in the meanwhile destroy her.

What American educational work most needs is a decided movement, initiated and supported by the best thought of the country, in behalf of primary education. In two governments which I have just incidentally mentioned, the best statesmanship and the highest wisdom are not above the problem of insuring for all the people the best elementary education which is attainable. Nero fiddled while Rome burned, it is alleged. The Christian Church discusses and divides about whether unbaptized infants will be allowed in heaven, while the grog-shops are sending full-grown men to hades by a limited express. There is no doubt about that. The educational Sanhedrim of America to-day discusses such delightful, cool, and refreshing subjects as "The Failure of Scientific Pessimism to Establish Cosmic Suicide as an Adequate Solution of the World-drama," "The Results of Psychological Psychology for Education," and "The Validity of St. Anselm's Proof of Divine Existence;" while illiteracy increases, and grave public apprehensions multiply as to the practical efficiency and the stability of the public schools upon which the security of the Republic rests. There is no trouble about finding logical ground upon which to rest high schools and universities. But the subject which presses upon the United States to-day is the elementary education of *all* her children. Insure so much, and all the rest will take care of itself easily. To insure this, there must be a decided movement in a new direction, which must be led by the scholars, by the men and women of educational force, throughout the country. Such a movement must have a topic and a rallying point. What better than the kindergarten for such a purpose and such a result?

THE KINDERGARTEN THE BASIS OF NEW EDUCATION.

We have changed all our educational theories in recent years. We have changed our methods to suit our theories. We are unquestionably right in both. In the logic of the old education, the human mind was a vessel to be filled ; in that of the new, it is a magnificent engine to be fired and used. The object of the old was to read and remember ; that of the new is to see and to do. The old was for information ; the new is for power. The change in theory has displaced and overthrown the book as the chief instrument of education. Things themselves, not characters representing things, claim the attention. Original investigation is the order of the day, and the opinion of another is of weight only when it stands the test of scrutiny and of thought. Every object is fruitful of suggestions which light the fires of intellect and set the mind's wheels in motion. Nor is this all. The new education is not mechanical or materialistic. It is real life. It appeals to the emotions and the affections, to faith, hope, love, reverence, conscience. A writer in last week's *Christian Union*, treating of this subject in an able manner, quotes Dr. Roswell D. Hitchcock's definition of greatness in these words : "He only is great of heart who floods the world with great affections ; he only is great of mind who stirs the world with great thoughts ; he only is great of will who does something to shape the world to a great career ;" and adds, "The object of the new education is to confer something of this greatness—to give the pupil power to flood his world with a great affection, to stir it to great thoughts, and shape it to a great career. The old education told its pupils about the great feelings, the great thoughts, the great deeds of the past, and trusted that the information would kindle life in them. The new education aims directly to create life—to endow with that power."

The old plan of operations was entirely ineffectual to carry out the new theory of education. The differences between the old methods and the new need not be discussed at length here. The difference is complete from the beginning to the finish, even more materially and consequentially so at the beginning than at the finish. The old plan commenced with the alphabet and the book; the new plan commences without either, and before either can be practically employed. It takes the little one before he can be taught to read and becomes a fascination and a joy to him. While it gains his interest, it exercises his muscles, sharpens his observing and perceptive faculties, and starts the habit of inquiry and investigation ; it arouses his emotions and directs his affections ; it trains his eye and his hand ; it develops his reason and stimulates his moral sense. This is the beginning which is imperatively necessary before there can be any advantageous prosecution of the new system of education. Then the state has a duty in reference to it. And this is the work of the kindergarten.

INTELLIGENT DEVELOPMENT.

The essential principle of the new plan for intellectual development is the habit of observation and of original investigation. It is perhaps too much to say that if this habit is not acquired in the kindergarten age it never will be acquired at all. It is undoubtedly within the fact to say that it never will be acquired in the same degree of strength or of usefulness. Then, what is the necessity or the utility of this line of reasoning at all? When a six-year-old child sees a stone of unusual appearance, when he is looking for the difference in the leaves of the maple and the elm, when he is talking about the appearance and the habits of the sparrow and the robin, we know that he is not only acquiring a love for nature which will make him a better man, but he has acquired a habit of investigation which will make him a stronger one. The habit will not desert him. It will rule his life, and he will quicken continually in intellectual alertness and grow in intellectual power. So far as the mass of American children is concerned, where and how is this habit to be acquired at all, if not in kindergartens which are an organic part of the public schools?

SHORTENING THE COURSE.

Throughout the land, particularly at the centers of population, we hear the demand that the course of study be shortened, and that the competent be not held back to suit the convenience of the slow. As great cities multiply and grow, as the population becomes more dense, as competition becomes more close, and the struggle for livelihood more severe, this demand will become more imperative, and it must be listened to. How can it be met so effectually as by gaining time at the beginning of the course, and by augmenting and wisely directing intellectual strength from the start?

PHYSICAL EXERCISE.

The physical development of our children claims interest, and well it may. The subject is receiving the attention of the schools. Calisthenic exercises afford relaxation in the schoolroom. The extent to which they promote the development of the body is probably not great. The gymnasium trains athletes. It reaches but a small number of persons, however. When the physical development of American children is general, it will not be purely mechanical. Outdoor life, activity, love of nature, fondness for open-air games and sports will inevitably lead to physical health and strength. Cultivate a disposition for these things if you would have this kind of life among the people. A boy who has no fondness for games before he is ten years of age will never have it; a girl who has no music in her soul before that age will never have it. Then

commence early to arouse and direct an interest in these things. Let little children know that grown people believe in them, and they will love them. It is nature's tendency. It can be trained and developed more easily than it can be repressed. Develop it, and there will be no lack of physical exercise. The songs and games of the kindergarten rest upon this theory and are strong instrumentalities for promoting this end. If we could give all American children the advantage of this influence and this training, I am confident that it would give them a new interest in outdoor life, a new love for nature, increased activity, better health, and stronger bodies.

INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT.

The decisive educational movement of recent years has been toward what will be readily understood as covered by the term "manual training." Public sentiment has insisted that our schools must prepare children for the practical affairs of life, for manual as well as intellectual pursuits. The demand has been for eyes that are accurate, and hands that are deft. Schoolmen have been trampling over one another, trying to meet this demand. But how? Here is a great, beautiful, busy city with a population of many thousands of souls. It is clouded with the smoke of manufactories, and the hum of machinery is heard upon every side. Its people have eagerly demanded, and cheerfully paid for, the best schools they could get. It has primary schools and grammar schools and high schools in imposing array. But these schools are cultivating the intellectuality alone; they must cultivate the mechanical instinct, they must help the shop as well as the office, they must dignify manual labor, they must promote the industrial growth of the city. To be sure, they should. The demand is the logical outgrowth of the situation. It is not only a demand from the people, but it is a reasonable demand, and it must be met. How is it met? It is met in measure so inadequate, with a plan so ineffectual, that it may truthfully be said that it is not met at all. A room is secured, a mechanic employed, and one boy out of twenty in the high school goes puttering around two or three hours each week in heroic efforts to saw a board on the square, and make a stool that will stand up; and the public schools of the city are said to be sprouting and training the mechanical instinct of the city. In the expressive language of a friend, it makes one tired to contemplate it. What becomes of the ninety-five children out of every hundred who never go to the high school? What becomes of the nineteen out of twenty high-school children who do not go into the shop? Indeed, what becomes of the one-quarter of one per cent. of the entire number in whom the mechanical instinct is neglected until the high-school age, and then ministered unto in this feeble way? How long at this rate before the school shop will add skilled mechanics, improved machinery, and new enthusiasm to the industrial equipment of

this city, to an extent which will be appreciable ? If the last generation had depended upon this reed for its material prosperity, where would it be now ?

But the problem is not fictitious : it is real and it is pressing. It is thrust upon the schools, and the schools have undertaken its solution.

Circumstances are changing, have changed. The men who have produced the industrial prosperity of the present generation were boys before manual training schools were established. They had their training in the schools of experience and necessity. Many of them were country boys who broke steers and mended harness and made their own sleds ; in the cities, they came from homes where poverty was the inspiration of industry and ingenuity, and they came by way of the factory and the shop. In either case, they were in contact with things, and they had to use their hands. There are such boys in this generation, and there will be in the next. But the conditions are not the same, the demands are more exacting, and the proportion of such boys in such circumstance is not as large. The unprecedented growth of this country in the last twenty-five years has of itself produced a false conception of the foundation upon which industrial progress must rest, and a thoroughly unsound and highly unfortunate estimate of the most honorable or most promising road to individual success.

It would seem that if the schools are to attain any measurable success in the solution of this problem, they must put children to doing things. They must reach not a few but the whole number. They must commence in the first years of school life, or they will never commence at all. They must germinate the mechanical tendency when it may be germinated, if they would train it when it may be trained. They must give all an equal chance, and they must reach the multitude, so far as the multitude will be reached.

Here is the field and the necessity of the kindergarten. In piling blocks, in cutting and folding papers, in weaving mats, in modeling clay and molding sand, under competent supervision and instruction, there is more to develop mechanical interest on the part of the new generation, and more to carry industrial power to the next generation, than through any other work which can well be related to the public schools.

If this work is followed by form-study and industrial drawing through the primary and grammar schools, the public will be doing as much for hand training on the one side as for mind training on the other, in the elementary schools, and the foundation for the manual training school and the technological school will be laid. If the foundation is not laid, it is idle to attempt the superstructure. If the foundation is well laid, it is likely that the child who deserves to get on will get on, whether the public helps him farther or not. In any event, the public is bound to help impartially, and to do what will most promote the public interests.

It must not maintain high schools and colleges to help those who tend toward the professions, with the inevitable inference that this is the best or the only road for youth to travel, without also maintaining special schools which will attract toward the manual industries, which will put a premium upon skilled hand labor, and which will promote and direct the industrial development of the country.

THE ARTS.

Art is struggling to get upon its feet in the United States. Music and painting and sculpture find difficulty in doing so. The artistic taste is growing, but it is not strong among the masses. The impression may not be justified, but certainly it is strong, that works of art of large value are not being produced in this country. Wealth seeks its art treasures in the foreign market. But art treasures of large cost, which only find their way into the homes of the wealthy, are of comparatively small consequence in cultivating the artistic taste and increasing the demand for art products among the people.

We are doing much better in the way of industrial and decorative art. How the demand for these products has strengthened in recent years, and how the taste has improved! How architecture has grown, and how sound and discriminating has the household taste become concerning interior furnishings and decorations! All this is one of the most gratifying and encouraging proofs of sound national progress and healthful national life.

We do not know, or we fail to remember, the debt of gratitude which that art which makes the homes of the people brighter and happier owes to the irregular and voluntary kindergarten work which has here and there been inaugurated. Nor can we have any appreciation of the aid which the good cause of home culture would gain from the general introduction of this work into the public schools.

CULTIVATION OF THE MORAL SENSE.

Thoughtful men are thinking, and they have occasion to think, of the moral training of American children. Patriotic men are solicitous, and they have occasion to be solicitous, about the influence of sectarianism upon the public schools. And churchmen are apprehensive about the influence of the schools upon denominationalism. The whole trouble pales and disappears before the spirit of the kindergarten. And what is the spirit of the kindergarten? It is not for me to undertake to describe it. The task would be too much for a non-professional—perhaps too much for a trained and accomplished kindergartner. It may be felt, but it is doubtful if it can be described. But read, for instance, that book by Miss Elizabeth Harrison, of the Chicago Kindergarten Training School, on "The Study of Child Nature," with its wealth of sound principle

and new gospel, of incident and illustration, and you will gain a new realization of the obligations which adult life owes to child nature, and a new conception of the way to train childish instincts if you would strew the pathway with flowers, while you grow men and women who will be loyal to their own consciences, and whose character will make the character of the state. Instill the intelligence and the spirit which breathes through every line of that book in the mothers and teachers of the land, and you will go a long way in the solution of the problem of moral culture in the United States, for you will apply sound principles in a realistic and natural way, so that they will not be repelled, but find lodgment in the soul.

THE SPIRIT OF THE KINDERGARTEN IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

And the spirit of the kindergarten is precisely the spirit of which the public schools stand in need. An understanding of the developing processes of child nature, a scientific method of treatment, individuality, freedom, pleasure, enthusiasm, real life, and natural ways in the schoolroom are what this materialistic age demands of the public schools. I cannot see how the kindergarten spirit is to be brought into the schools unless the kindergarten is made a part of them. Commence the course with this kind of work, and teachers must be prepared for it. Brought in at the foundation, its atmosphere will be carried up through all the grades, and its fragrant perfume will permeate every room and reach all the recesses of the whole institution. Of alleged teachers willing to work for four hundred dollars a year, the supply exceeds the demand. Of real teachers worth a thousand or two thousand dollars a year, the demand far exceeds the supply; yet the life of the schools depends upon meeting it. Churches languish because the people care more for real life than for theology. Tell me that it is a restless and vicious age, and that the people are all wrong. Perhaps so; perhaps not. I do not think so, but never mind. It is an established fact, and might as well be accepted. The people care more, they will continue to care more, for life than for dogma. They care little, and they will continue to care little, for theology which always soars and never lights. Churches must have preachers who are in contact with affairs, who are broader than doctrine, who are in touch with life, who are animated and alert, or they will languish. The old way will not do. The same thing is true of the schools. They must have a teaching force not only grounded in scholarship, skilled in pedagogy, and at home in any center of culture; but one that is broader than technical scholarship, in touch with the activities, and awake to the demands of the country. If not, they will languish.

ASSISTING NATURE.

And these teachers must act in accord with nature and not in opposition to the divine laws which are irresistible. The old way of training chil-

dren by frowns and whips has happily gone. There is a new way, and the person who does not know it has no place in the schools.

The efficacy of this principle is now very generally recognized in the training of dumb animals. The old way in training horses was to let the colt run wild, without any restraint whatever, until three or four years old, and then catch him and harness him in an intolerable fashion, and maltreat him in a most inhuman way, until his spirit was broken and he submitted from sheer exhaustion. This was the universal plan only a few years ago, but it is universally discarded by all intelligent horsemen now. The new plan is to handle and fondle the colt from birth, halter him as soon as he can stand, put a bit in his mouth and light harness upon him and drive him loosely by the side of his mother before he is old enough to leave her. Colts which promise speed are driven by the side of trotting horses when only a few months old. And so they are taught gentleness, given confidence, become more reliable, and answer all the good ends for which colts live, without so much fuss and trouble about it. If modern horsemen were presumed to know about psychology, I should say that they were acting upon psychological principles. They have learned the lesson not in the school of philosophy, but in the school of experience.

And if this is the best way in the case of dumb animals without reasoning faculties or a moral nature, how vastly important that it shall be universally recognized in the training of children!

This is the controlling principle of the kindergarten. It must be a vital principle of the future public school work of the country, if that work is to meet the demands upon it. Therefore, with no original predilections in favor of the kindergarten, with no right to represent it now, I may say that I have slowly, and perhaps reluctantly, come to the conclusion that it can do for the American school system what it most needs, and can do it more readily and completely than any other instrumentality.

IS IT PRACTICABLE?

If this is so, then the duty of the state is clear. If the kindergarten is vital, if its influence will lead in the very direction we need to go, then we not only can afford it, but we cannot afford to do without it. If other things are predicated upon it, and it should become necessary to choose between this and those other things—as it probably will not be—then it would be wisdom to take this even at the expense of letting some other things go.

In bringing it into the system, however, there are two or three points which ought to be borne in mind.

There is quite a disposition on the part of superintendents to compromise upon the subject. If unable to establish pure kindergartens, they will start schools which have a little of the kindergarten and more of

something else in them. This is all wrong. It is cruel to keep children of the kindergarten age in school unless they are treated with purely kindergarten methods. Again, these half-and-half schools do not succeed because they do not rest upon a scientific basis, and are not in hands that are properly trained. When they fail, the people imagine that the kindergarten has failed, although it is something else that has failed. If there is to be any diplomacy exercised in getting the kindergartens started, let it be in starting a smaller number of schools than are needed, but make them pure in their methods, taught by a thoroughly trained kindergarten teacher. One such school will succeed, and in doing so will demonstrate the practicability of the system, and win the support of the people.

Again, there is something of a disposition on the part of the kindergarten enthusiasts to get into deep water. They live with their work and magnify it. They meet in convention and discuss ways and means of improvement. I heard a company of kindergarten ladies, this afternoon, speculating upon philosophical conundrums in a way which would have thrown even Dr. Harris in the shade. Then there is too much of a tendency to unnecessarily increase the expenses. If a word to them from an outsider who has much interest in the general introduction of their work would be welcome, it would be this: Keep closely to the original plan, maintain the work in its simplicity, and operate as economically as possible. Don't reach after the unattainable. Don't grope around for the unfathomable. Don't ask for all the costly furnishings and appliances which dealers are anxious to sell to school boards. I am confident that the observance of these principles will greatly promote and facilitate the general recognition of the kindergarten as a component and necessary part of our American public-school system.

LEGISLATION.

If the state has a duty in this connection, its only way of discharging that duty is through legislation. Legislation is seldom spontaneous. Legislatures pass laws, but they seldom frame or prepare them. It is rarely that they act at all except when they are moved to action. Then let the friends of the kindergarten and the friends of the school system prepare legislation which will give the sanction and approval of the state to the kindergarten, which will make it the duty of state school authorities to aid its advancement, and which will modify the school age and otherwise open the way for its general introduction. This, with womanly tact and persistence in a good cause, will lead to action by the lawmaking powers of the several States, and this in turn will give the system recognized and authoritative standing; it will arrest the attention and engage the interest of the people, and it may lead school officers and teachers to more thoroughly understand its importance and act with the courage of their convictions.

THE HARMONY BETWEEN CONTROL AND SPONTANEITY.

BY INSPECTOR JAMES L. HUGHES, TORONTO, ONT.

YON Scotch lad is controlled by his father's iron will. His duty in childhood and youth is unreasoning submission to law. There is power even in such discipline. In the boy's soul, dread of parental authority becomes in time a solemn veneration for the majesty of law; and reverent submission to the human father rises into devout subordination to God, and forms the granite in Scotch character individually and nationally. Such training makes men strong, but narrow. It places law above liberty, and recognizes the power of the Creator more than his love. It values individual rights more than individual growth. This is control without spontaneity. In too many American homes we find spontaneity without control. The results are usually disastrous. Control alone is better than spontaneity alone for perfecting strength of character; better even for the development of productive spontaneity. Untrammeled spontaneity would be the ideal educational condition if all natural tendencies were toward truth; or if all children had from their earliest years enlightened conscience, developed wills, and a recognition of the rights of others so clear as to make them unselfish, and so strong as to be a controlling force in their lives. Unfortunately uncontrolled spontaneity often means unbridled evil and moral anarchy. The true ideal is the perfect unity of law and liberty; and the greatest unsolved educational problem is, how to secure harmony between control and spontaneity in the training of the race.

Control and spontaneity have been regarded as antagonistic forces in the development of the child. They are really twin powers that should work in harmony. Truth can never be at variance with other truth. There are no irreconcilable contradictions, no chasms that clearer insight shall not span. Man cannot always see the harmony between principles that appear to be in conflict; but Infinite Wisdom sees the mutually strengthening inter-relationship of apparent contradictions. Nature rejoices in the equipoise of opposing forces. As man grows consciously toward the Divine, he sees harmonies more clearly, and the revelation of new harmonies between the controlling laws of the universe makes the sweetest music that ever lifts his soul to higher joy. After the battles of past ages, the veterans who fought for opposing principles have joined hands in loving unity, when they have climbed through the clouds of error; and clearer, wider vision has dispelled illusions, and shown the essential oneness of truths which partial insight had supposed to be at

variance. Each party saw a single truth, and in the brighter light of the hill-top the two truths were blended into one.

Rightly understood, control and spontaneity work in perfect harmony. Spontaneity does not mean freedom from law, but freedom through law, in accord with law. Productive spontaneity cannot be at variance with law; it can exist only in conformity with law. Law and liberty are indissoluble. They are giants whose union produces life, and growth, and happiness. The "law of liberty" is the perfect law. David spoke wisely when he said, "So shall I keep thy law continually for ever and ever, and I will walk at liberty." "To the truly free man freedom coincides with control." Spontaneity is the essential condition of individual development; law defines the relationship of the individual to the universal; control is the application of law. There is no wrong to the child in the exercise of wise control by parents and teachers. Such control is absolutely essential to the full development of character. We should control childhood in order to define respect for human law, and reverence for Divine law. The perfect work of Christianity will be accomplished when all mankind is consciously, reverently, responsively, coöperatively submissive to the Divine will. This condition can never be reached until the child in the home and in the school lives a life of coöperative obedience to its parents and teachers, and is thus qualified for conscious coöperative submission to the authority of the state, and beyond this to a cheerful recognition of Divine authority and the glory arising from co-working with God. Rochefort was more philosophical than usual when he said: "I rebelled against my nurse in the nursery; I rebelled against my parents at home; I rebelled against my teacher at school; I have rebelled against the government of my country; and, if I ever go where there is a God, I will rebel against Him."

We should control children because the wise and definite control by a superior will develops the will power of the child, and qualifies him to direct his own life when he reaches maturity. If unchecked, the feelings and passions of a child sweep in an unrestrained torrent over his undeveloped will; lack of control becomes habitual; selfishness and self-will act automatically, and character power is lost. More than half the energy of humanity is dissipated. Character energy must be controlled and directed by an enlightened will in order to become an executive force for good. The child's will is neither sufficiently strong nor sufficiently enlightened to guide his activities and control his powers. Uncontrolled forces lead inevitably to ruin and disaster. It is a saddening fact that so much of nature's physical force remains yet unmastered, but the saddest sight in the world is an uncontrolled soul.

But, while control by a superior will is essential and natural, it should never prevent the full development of spontaneity of character. It is not necessary to dwarf a soul by controlling it. The child's individuality

cannot be weakened without fatal consequences. Each child has an individuality of his own. It is a sacred power intended to grow forever. It is the Divine in the child. It cannot be marred or misdirected without interfering with God's plan. I have no right to try to make a pupil like myself. He is God's child, not mine. I should help to make him his true self, not a reproduction of me. One of most of us is enough. God's will is never a substitute for man's will; neither should the will of the teacher be in any way a substitute for the will of the child. The teacher's will may direct the child's will, but never safely act in its stead. The teacher's personality should never intervene between the child and the light.

The relationship between control and spontaneity may be established on clearly defined laws.

1. Control by external agencies should last for the shortest possible time. Self-direction should be our aim for our pupils from the first.

2. Control should never degenerate into coercion. Plato said: "A free mind ought to learn nothing as a slave." There is no life-giving power in coercion. There is no growth in mere negation. God meant our characters to be positive, not negative. "Well, Tom," said a father on his return home one evening, "what have you been doing to-day?" "I haven't been doing anything," said Tom; "I've been don't-ing for mother all day." Poor Tom! How small are his opportunities for real, true development! When shall men and women learn that doing is a thousand times more destructive of evil, and a million times more productive of good, than don't-ing? Coercion may repress evil, it never eradicates it. It can only repress the wrong for a limited time, and in doing so it restricts the good. Coercion never made a child creative, and the growth of his creative power is the central element in his education. Coercion does more than restrict the power of a child; it corrupts his ideals. The common and unnatural dread of Divine authority arises from the degradation of human authority into unreasoning, unloving coercion.

The terrorism of the unknown is the most dreadful form of coercion. Attempts to secure passive submission by threats of punishment by the mysterious interference of imaginary monsters, either fiendish or sacred, have done as much as any other cause to destroy the true spontaneity of childhood. It is impossible to conceive the fullness of the evil influence of such threats at a time when the child's imagination is most active. The imagination itself is perverted and often becomes a corrupting instead of a purifying power. The child's activity becomes passivity; his instinctive interest in the great unknown dies out, and his spiritual development is thus prevented. The unknown land should be filled with angels, not demons. Many parents and teachers degrade even the Father of light and love into a sort of goblin to terrorize their children. With

sacrilegious impudence they dare to say to children, "God won't love you," till the child gets its little heart filled with misconceptions of God, and irreverence for him; and these false ideals often keep out the truth forever. A little girl in Boston, whose mother said recently, "God will be very angry with you," replied, "Oh, well, he's always getting mad about something!" Poor child! She was not responsible for the conclusion.

3. The child should not be conscious of the restraint of external control through the personality of the teacher. The assertion of the personal will of the teacher inevitably leads to conflict and conscious resistance on the part of the child. This is the root of great evil. Through unconscious responsiveness the child should grow to conscious recognition of authority and obedience to law; and up to the highest condition of human culture, perfect self-control and self-direction. The Divine will guides our wills in many ways that we do not understand or even recognize. Our control of childhood should be like Divine control in this respect.

External control that reveals its personality to the child inevitably weakens its self-control, as external aid given unwisely necessarily destroys its self-reliance. Most children are injured by being helped too much. The child whose foolishly fond mother rushes to pick it up when it falls is usually hurt by the picking up more than by the fall; so the child who looks to parent or teacher as its only controlling agency will never fully develop its own self-control. Self-control develops in the same way as all other powers of self-expression or self-direction, by regular and progressive exercise. The child should be led to feel his individual responsibility, for a child's duty not a man's, as early as possible, and allowed to direct his own powers toward the accomplishment of his own purposes, limited by the law defining the rights of others. Reverence for the majesty of law is a mightier force in character building than yielding to the will of a teacher. Submission to law is an element of true manhood; mere subserviency to a human being is a characteristic of a slave. The child who is forced to submit passively to the personal domination of his teacher can never have true conceptions of liberty and individual responsibility.

4. Human control, like Divine control, should be prompted by love, based on love, and executed by love. Human love is man's strongest controlling force, as well as his greatest life-giving power. Divine law is often necessarily restrictive of wrong, but it is lovingly restrictive. It is stimulating and growth-giving, never destructive.

5. It is utterly degrading to give pupils the idea that they are naturally expected to do wrong, and that the teacher's constant duty is to check their natural tendencies. The father who said to his wife as he sat down to tea: "Well, Maria, what mischief has Tom been up to to-day?" is a

type of a large class of parents and teachers. Have faith in your boys. They deserve your faith, and, if they do not, you make them worthy of trust by trusting them. Let a boy understand that you expect him to do wrong, and he will usually fulfill your expectations. Boys love the right better than the wrong. They prefer the true to the false. They like to do good (not to be lectured about doing good) better than to do evil. They would rather produce than destroy. They love activity because it gives life ; they hate passivity because it leads to death. Even if a boy is bad, inspiration is a grander controlling force than coercion. The most complete belief in the depravity of a child's nature does not justify the destruction of its spontaneity. We should aim to control its depravity, not its spontaneity. Natural tendency may not always be toward the Divine ; natural power is always Divine, and may become the controlling agency in correcting wrong tendency. Bad tempers and evil dispositions are defined in the consciousness of a child by criticism and coercion. Such defining is necessarily evil. The wise teacher is never saddened by the exhibition of strength and force by a child, even if they are manifested in selfish forms. The child with most power for evil should become the strongest angel with wise training. The teacher's skill is shown by transforming power, not by destroying it. We should remember that when the child comes to school he is in an advanced stage of his training. Human agencies, by improper control or by equally improper freedom, or usually by a dreadful mixture of both, have been destroying the true spontaneity of the child.

6. All control is wrong that attempts to fetter the child with a man's thoughts, a man's motives, or a man's creed. Herein lies the greatest danger. It is a fatal blunder to rob a child of his childhood. We interfere a thousand times too often with a child's spontaneity by checking its plays or by rousing it from its reveries. Remember that what would be folly or indolence in you may be absolutely essential for the highest development of the child physically, intellectually, and morally. You may injure a child morally by stopping his play with the sand on the seashore, or his ramble among the flowers, or his apparently idle dream as he lies looking at the clouds, to force him to listen to religious exercises he does not understand. The music of the birds and bees is more likely to arouse his spiritual nature than the music of the organ. "I guess that fellow never was a boy," said a little boy when his teacher had unreasonably interfered with a game. There are few of us who do not give our scholars reasons to come to a similar conclusion every day. He is the best teacher who most clearly remembers the feelings and thoughts of his own boyhood.

You cannot force maturity on a child in feeling, motive, thought, or action without making him a hypocrite, and you can make nothing worse out of him. The darkest hour in a child's life is the hour when it draws

a curtain over the windows of its heart to shut out mother or teacher, and deceit usurps the place of honest frankness. It is easy for a child to become a monster when those in authority over him make him a hypocrite, and turn the life-producing waters of his free, responsive nature into a stagnant pool. Evil habits are poisonous growths springing from the trunks of decaying powers and nourished by the sap intended to develop holy aspirations. Many people blame Satan for making monsters of their children, when they are themselves accomplishing the terrible work of character destruction so thoroughly that it would be a work of supererogation for Satan to interfere. The motives of men and women are not those that stir children's lives to activity. The child rises from high to higher motives if properly guided.

Oh, how narrowing and restrictive and destructive of power creeds have been! How they have prevented progress in thought! How they have checked spiritual growth! How they have imprisoned love, that should have gone out freely to help humanity! How they have shut out the Father they should have revealed! Dr. McLeod told of an old lady in his congregation whose creed he attempted to broaden. Finding his efforts ineffectual, he gave up the attempt with the remark: "Why, Janet, I fear that you believe nobody will be saved but you and John." "Ah, doctor," she replied, "I'm not so sure about John!" Dear, poor, old woman! She was only a little narrower than the great majority to-day. She was earnest and logical, and pure in motive, and a lover of the truth, but she was creed-bound. Creeds can never be made plain by words. Love grows when it is lived out in loving deed. We should lead our children to see truth in our own lives, and to live truth themselves, and we should train them to recognize the beauty of God's nature in the flowers, his sweetness in the bird-song, his perfection in the marvels of the speck of brown fernspore as shown by the microscope, his majesty in the mighty mountain, his vastness in the wide sea, his power in the transformation of the little seed to the sturdy oak, his wisdom in the rhythmic harmony of the movements of a million worlds, and his love in our tender, unselfish, self-sacrificing love for them, not merely when they are good, but especially when they are wayward. If we allow the young soul to have the proper conditions for unconscious growth toward God, there need be no anxiety regarding creeds. Infidelity is impossible to a being whose heart and mind have been filled with God as revealed in his works. Too often the attempt to control children by the motives and creeds of adults makes them skeptics as well as hypocrites. When our creeds are revealed by our lives, they become wings, not bonds, to our children.

7. Growth cannot be forced, and the attempt to force it checks spontaneity and weakens individuality. Teachers often try to be power for their children, instead of guiding powers already existing in the pupils. They try to force growth or to restrict growth, instead of providing the

best conditions of growth and reverently allowing growth to proceed in accordance with Divine law. They try to improve the flower queen by opening the rosebud instead of strengthening the rose-bush. How grandly nature's laws act! The sun never commands the flower to grow; nor does the rain say chidingly, "Drink, or you shall not grow." The rain falls gently, the sun shines brightly, and the flower becomes strong and beautiful.

Yonder is a man throwing water upward with a syringe. He is trying to form clouds, but his clouds will never refresh the earth with rain, nor show to a single human soul the joyous message of the rainbow or the many-colored glory of the sun's farewell in the evening. There are, even yet, squirt-gun teachers who think they can shoot the souls of children upward through their little syringes. Of course, a squirt-gun teacher, illogical as he is, is better than the mere word-grinder, or fact-giver, or thought-crammer so often misnamed a teacher. Pity that so good a word should be so degraded! Greater pity that soul-growth should be so retarded and misdirected!

8. In the training of self-expression, self must not be sacrificed to expression, or spontaneity will be lost.

The methods of training all self-expression of the pupil, adopted by the schools in the past, have prevented the development of true spontaneity. "My pupils write so much alike that you can scarcely see any difference between their copy-books," says the proud teacher. Empty boast! If it be true, then you have dwarfed every pupil in your class. Writing is more than better formation and shading. A free hand moving automatically in harmony with a free mind should be our ideal. We have trained our pupils to draw letters, not to write. We have sacrificed freedom to form, and vainly hoped for the freedom that never came. We have restricted spontaneity by limiting lines, by direction lines and by faint letters to be traced. We have cramped the fingers and confined the free movement of the arm, and the cramping and restriction have reacted on the souls of the children. We have made our pupils slow copyists and slavish imitators of writing; we should have given power to express thought rapidly on paper. The two elements in good writing are free, rapid movement and accurate letter formation. We have striven for the second at the expense of the first, and in doing so have weakened the character of the race. Copying head-lines tends to make a race of copyists, of unreasoning imitators who live and die in bondage to those who assume the right to do their thinking for them. The time must come when there shall be no more mere copying in learning to write; when writing shall be, in mechanical execution as well as in thought expression, the representation of conceptions defined in the mind of the child, not of form conceptions defined on paper by some other person. Copying subordinates the individual and prevents the true conception of the independ-

ence and responsibility of the human soul. All conscious imitation, even of good, is weakening. "All children imitate naturally," you say. 'Tis a pity that your statement is true to a certain extent. But it is not fully true. The strongest do not imitate. Some are strong enough to resist the uniformly modeling process of the schools. Poor fellows! They used to have a hard time. They still have to suffer at the hands of teachers who have not learned to reverently respect the individuality of the weakest child. As the human race rises to higher planes, it loses the tendency to imitate. The schools should help men to rise by climbing, not by holding on to some one else. Do not be satisfied with any teaching process based on imitation. The true test of writing is not the writing done while the mind is concentrated on the writing itself, but the writing done while the mind is filled with original thought which has to be expressed in written form.

It is equally true that freedom should precede form in all other methods of self-expression through the hand, such as drawing, painting, modeling, and wood-working. It is wrong to try to force the child to express our matured conceptions of the form of any object. It should express its own mental picture, not ours. Its power to express by hand, or tongue, or face, or gesture is weakened every time it tries to express what it does not clearly conceive. Its power to express its individual self is weakened every time it attempts to express the conceptions of anybody else. Such a course destroys the harmony that should exist between conception and representation, and loss of harmony always means loss of power.

The crude lines made by a child to represent a bird, a worm, a flower, a man, or a horse may suggest no picture to your mind, but they are realities to the child who made them. A line does for a man at first. That painting of a fish made by a five-year-old girl looks as much like a log as a fish to me, but it represented life to her. She will scarcely believe at fifteen that she ever made that for a fish. Let us examine her book of sketches now when she is fifteen years old. She has been expressing her own conceptions with her brush for ten years; and now her flowers, and worms, and insects, and birds are nearly accurate enough, both in form and color, for illustrations in a work on natural history. She became free first, and her growth toward definiteness kept pace with her development in intellectual clearness. Her efforts to express herself, not some other person, defined her conceptions, and clearer conceptions gave greater power of expression. Oh, what growth is possible to humanity when natural processes are not reversed! Natural conditions should often be changed, but natural processes never. Little children should draw at first on blackboards, so that they may have free scope to represent their conceptions in large form. They enjoy a wide sweep, which they cannot get in books or on slates, and this wide, free sweep of the arm defines the conception of freedom in their minds.

The fettering of real spontaneity by bad methods of teaching oral expression has been more destructive of individual power than even the methods of training in hand expression. Both in public schools and in schools of elocution self-expression has been divorced from expression. No one can ever regain his grandest power to speak his own thoughts who was forced into formalism by oral reading when a child. There can be no method by which young children can be kept for years expressing the thoughts of others in the language of others without reducing the power of self-expression and weakening character. It is amazing that the abnormal process we call oral reading should have been tolerated in the schools so long. We should have more reading in the schools, and infinitely more training in oral expression than we now have, but none of the paralyzing process we call oral reading. I do not refer merely to the oral droning that all teachers ridicule, but most teachers develop; I include the best oral reading done in any school in the wide world. Even the best is relatively unproductive, and is weakening to self-expression and character. Reading is thought extraction, not thought expression. Oral expression is a natural power; ability to get thought from visible language is an acquired power. We should never destroy a natural power in acquiring a new power. Oral expression should be an ever-growing power. It would keep pace with the growing soul if it were trained as self-expression, not as the expression of the thought and language of others.

There must, however, be definite, formal training of all forms of self-expression. There should be special practices to develop freedom of movement and proper position of hand and body in writing and drawing; the child should use the wood rasp, saw, and plane to gain power to rasp and saw and plane freely and definitely before it has to work to a line with these tools; there should be dictation lessons in color, and size and form, and symmetry and relationship, to develop and define these conceptions in the minds of the children; there should be preliminary gymnastic processes in voice culture, in emphasis, in inflection, in gesture, and in the differentiation of the feeling, in order to qualify each individual for his highest success in oral expression. But unfortunately these special practices and preliminary processes are usually the end of school work, instead of means of preparing each pupil for creative activity along the lines of his grandest powers. The wise kindergartner gives her little ones formal dictation lessons in the gifts and occupations, that by the use of material to produce certain effects new concepts may reveal themselves naturally to the child. But her lesson only begins with the formal process in which each child does the same work. In the real lesson each child uses the same material to work out his own purpose. This is a type of all true teaching, in which control and spontaneity are in perfect, productive harmony. There are frequent discussions regarding the relative values

of formal physical exercises and unrestricted play. The latter is infinitely better than the former for the development of the complete nature of the child, and no system of physical education is worthy of consideration that does not include the entire being in its aim. But formal exercises are essential to prepare the body for its best work under the guidance of the child's own uncontrolled will.

Fellow-teacher, if your writing-books are really "copy-books" and no more, if one drawing-book or color-book is a type of the books of the whole class, and if all your pupils always make the same things in clay and wood and paper, then you are making automatons instead of men and women. The worst schools are those in which there is least self-activity in working out realizations of original conceptions by the pupils. No teaching should be allowed to end with the acquisition of power. Power should be applied. Control should be exercised by the teacher in the production of the varied powers that enter into the characters of all well-trained men and women; spontaneity should be unrestricted in the use of these powers by each individual in the execution of his own plans. In the development of the universal, the trained teacher finds his true place; but in the unfolding of individual character, the wisest and most loving teacher should reverently stand with uncovered head to watch the development of the Divine. The teacher may cultivate power and may stimulate effort by supplying the conditions of growth, but independent activity alone can give life, and vigor, and progressive expansion to individual character.

All methods of developing self-expression from without are barriers to real spontaneity. In elocution or oral expression, for instance, the almost universal plan of giving mechanical rules for emphasis and inflection, and the tones of voice or gestures to be assumed to represent the feelings, or facial expressions to be made to simulate passions, develops formalism and hypocrisy, not soul growth. The soul should dominate the body, and the attempts to make the body respond to, or suggest, the thoughts or feelings that have no real existence in the individual consciousness helps to destroy the real power of body, mind, and spirit. The body may be made erect, graceful, active; and the voice may be made full, rich, elastic, pure, by careful training; but by far the most important training is that which cultivates the mind and heart, and accustoms them to their natural control of body and voice.

All kinds of training in self-expression are wrong that devote attention directly to the expression more than to the self of the pupil.

9. Spontaneity may be restricted by school programmes.

Programmes have been too narrow and too abstract, especially in primary classes. The programme should be wide, because there can be no learning without attention, no attention without interest, and no general interest can be awakened and sustained without a variety of subjects for study and

work. All children are not interested in the same subjects. Attempts to force a child to be equally interested in all subjects weaken both the temper and the power of attention. The programme should be wide enough to stimulate each child to interested effort on the lines of its highest individual power. It is only when so working that man's growth is as definite, as rapid, and as harmonious as it should be. "Blessed is the man that hath found his work," said Carlyle; "let him ask no other blessedness." When a child's life runs along the channel of his greatest individual power, all the other springs of power in his being flow into that channel, and his life becomes broader and deeper, and its current stronger, as the years pass away. A marsh is a stream without a proper outlet for its living waters. There should be no human marshes. Each child should be a pure rippling stream, growing ever deeper and wider by fresh rills of knowledge and thought power, and gathering force by the exercise of executive power, till it becomes at length a glorious river turning some of the mighty wheels of human effort, and bearing on its breast the white sails of onward progress. The child acquires knowledge more rapidly, more definitely, and more permanently before it goes to school than it does afterward. God did not limit its range of study. Man always makes a pitiable exhibition of himself when he attempts to prove that God has made a blunder.

The truest educational progress of the ages has been toward harmony between control and spontaneity, guidance and freedom, obedience and independence, submission and liberty. Freedom is the only basis broad enough for a system of education. Individual freedom and individual responsibility are the grandest lessons taught to the world by Christ, and the emancipation of the individual soul is the noblest work of the centuries since Christ. We must have free growth; not the wild growth of the wilderness, but the free, assisted growth of the best cultivated garden. "No man is free who is not master of himself," said Epictetus; and we may reverse his aphorism without altering its truthfulness—no man is master of himself who is not free.

The Baroness von Bulow wisely says: "Childhood's unconscious lesson to us is that what is undeveloped can without guidance never be free, but, left to itself, must inevitably fall into caprice. Guidance capacitates for freedom. It is a dominant error of our age to demand freedom where the capacity for freedom is still lacking."

We should prepare our pupils for fruit-bearing at maturity, but we should never try to make them bear to pattern as Dr. Blimber did; nor should we dare to destroy their spiritual wonder power as did Mr. McChoakumchild. Whatever there is of beauty, of purity, of holy aspiration in the child's soul, should be helped to grow. Soul growth must be from within. Emerson was right in saying: "Though we travel the world over to find the beautiful, we must carry it with us or we find it not."

The child is full of holy aspirations. Lead these aspirations out, and everywhere in the wondrous world they will find corresponding beauty, whose enjoyment will prepare them for the appreciation of the supernal glories that throughout the universe await the recognition of a higher spiritual insight. Each young heart in your class has a thousand strings that should pour forth enrapturing harmony forever. Break none of the strings. Dare not to play on the wonderful instrument yourself. No other hand can reveal its melody, but the hand of the child who owns it.

Control the child, but your control should consist in letting in the sunshine to its life, that it may stir to action, and through action grow to greater life.

TO WHAT EXTENT CAN A PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM BE IMPROVED BY LEGISLATION?

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Of what does a public school system consist? Of territorial divisions called school districts or school townships, of schoolhouses, of a system of raising a school fund, of text-books, of courses of study, of an army of licensed teachers, sometimes of supervision. What is legislation? It is the supreme direction of school districts, raising revenue, schoolhouses, text-books, courses of study, teachers. Legislation has already busied itself with these elements of a school system. It has foisted upon us a cumbrous, illogical, and wasteful system of school district organization; has provided a method of raising revenue; has intrusted the selection of text-books and courses of study to pedagogic tyros; has taxed the people for the erection of schoolhouses in accordance with designs dictated by caprice and ignorance; has provided a more or less efficient system of training and licensing teachers; has established common schools, high schools, and universities without articulation, each standing out in its weakness. In other words, this public school system has received a legislative armor, close-fitting and unyielding, which in a short time so cramps its organs as to produce deformity and prevent growth. The hoary past has rained these unwelcome conventionalities upon us, and legislation has congealed them about our limbs. Shall these active, growing limbs remain forever bound by the armor of the past, or shall the same artisan that forged the armor shatter it to pieces and forge anew? Then, let us not be alarmed by the cry of *Laissez faire* (Let alone, let alone), but let us attempt no legislation that has not been carefully conceived and framed by a competent committee appointed by the State Teachers' Association, or by a commission authorized by law.

Then, first, what is the best school territorial organization, that our

millions of expenditure shall not be in vain? Is it our weak, irrational, independent school district organization? A thousand times, no! Day after day there come pouring into my office, from all parts of the State, letters bearing these messages: "I am three miles from the schoolhouse in my district, and only a mile from the schoolhouse in the adjoining district." "I am separated from the schoolhouse in my district by an impassable stream." "Our district is too small and too weak to hire a competent teacher, or to have a sufficient length of term." Shall our organization not rather be school township organization? Not a municipal township, nor yet a congressional township, but a school township, composed of about nine independent school districts, as far as possible, formed around towns and villages as centers—the eight encircling schools to teach a common-school course of study only; the central school to teach, in addition to the common-school course of study, a secondary course of study of from one to four years; this school township to be under the control of one board of education, and to have one rate of taxation. Glorious change! No more forlorn letters telling of distant schoolhouses, swollen streams, and animosities engendered at the annual district boundary contests, for each pupil would be assigned to the district most accessible. No more complaints of short terms, weak districts, and weaker teachers, for the weak schools would be abolished.

The school fund—what direction shall legislation take upon this subject? As previously shown, the school rate should be uniform not for a school district only, but for a school township at least. The day is coming when a uniform rate of taxation will leap not only the boundaries of school districts, but of school townships and counties, and be uniform for the entire State.

> "For a' that and a' that,
> It's coming yet, for a' that;
> That man to man, the warld o'er,
> Shall brothers be, for a' that."

Again, shall legislation touch the articulation of the different classes of schools—the common schools, the secondary schools, and the universities? Is it possible that effective articulation has been so long delayed? Is it possible that in four-fifths of the common schools of this country teachers are attempting to teach everything, from the primer to geometry and rhetoric? That not only most of our academies and so-called colleges, but a large per cent. of our State institutions have an elementary department? The common schools teach the fourth reader and geometry; the colleges, geometry and the fourth reader. When a State champions an educational system at an annual outlay of millions of dollars, will it pay that State to employ the same organization and division of labor that obtains in all successful business enterprises? Did I say business enterprises? Is a public

school system a business enterprise? We had almost come to believe it a charitable institution for the benefit of the friends and relatives of the members of boards of education.

Why not adopt school township organization?—confine the tributary schools of the township to a common school course of study; teach in the central schools a secondary course of study of one or two years in the smaller towns and villages, and of three or four years in the larger towns and cities; legislate the elementary work out of the State institutions, and either legislate or frown it out of the colleges and academies, leaving nothing for the State universities except specialties and original investigation? No business enterprise managed as loosely as our public school systems would pay a dividend of one per cent. No argument is needed to prove that it is not profitable for a taxpayer to provide for teaching a common-school course of study in the local district schools and in the State institutions also, and that it does not pay a parent to squander money on his sons and daughters at private and State institutions before they are reasonably well equipped in the school work at their own homes, where board, lodging, and tuition are free. Some of these times the taxpayers and doting parents will refuse longer to be humbugged, and will rise up in their might and require their talents with usury.

Again, should legislation prescribe courses of study for common schools, secondary schools, and universities, and require them taught, or shall all these be left to local boards and inexperienced teachers? What I have said on articulation answers this question. But what shall be the character of the common-school course of study? Shall it cling to the effete past, or shall it be shaped in accordance with the world's advanced thought? Shall it take for its model the tallow dip and the stage-coach, or the electric light and the lightning express? Why is it that conservatism runs riot and worships the dry bones of the past? Shall the course of study be left to caprice and ignorance, or shall it be conceived and shaped by a competent commission after mature deliberation? Shall the pupil be doomed to wrestle year after year with compound numbers, or shall the great metric system become the heritage of English-speaking peoples? Shall we burden our courses of study with common fractions, proportion, arithmetical and geometrical progression, and the hare-and-hound problems, or shall we let the decimal system reign supreme, abandon the artificial and improbable hare-and-hound problems, and lay our arithmetic close to actual life? Again, shall we cling to parsing *ad infinitum, ad nauseam*, or shall we nail to the masthead, "Language for Expression and Thought-Interpretation," and tack as close as possible to this line?

Then, there are geography, history, and the natural sciences. Geography, and especially the geography of location and boundary, like Aaron's rod, has devoured everything in sight. History is postponed to grades seven and eight, and natural science to the distant high school. In a log-

ical course of study the natural sciences would begin in the first year of the child's school life, and end in the last. History, in the form of folk-lore, fairy tale, and legend, would begin in the first year and end in the last. Geography would be made to disgorge three-fourths of its isolated contents. The fundamental truths in geography are, man on the one hand with his multiplied needs, and nature on the other to supply those needs; man, through the magic of commerce, laying under tribute the occupations and productions of all individuals and climes. And then there is our delightful and logical system of orthography, by which the word *scissors* can be spelled fifty million different ways. Must the children of the United States forever groan under this outrageous system?

Shall we have legislation upon text-books? Yes, until teachers can teach subjects with any and all text-books. Shall we have district, county, or State uniformity? Shall this uniformity be attained through contract, State publication, or district ownership? I do not know. These are all vexed and comparatively new questions, requiring clear heads and honest hearts.

In every State legislation has intrusted the examination and licensing of teachers to authorities more or less competent, usually less. The examining authority should be a board and not an individual, the most competent and least subject to local pressure. This would rule out the county commissioner or county superintendent as an individual, for he is not only not a board, but he is subject to every species of local influence. The county board should be ruled out because of local pressure. Then, what constitutes the most efficient examining authority? A board, composed of one local member—the county commissioner or county superintendent—and of two or more able non-resident members; the former as authority upon character and actual schoolroom work, and the latter (assisted by the former) upon scholarship and theoretical professional ability. But to secure able non-resident members costs money. Missouri secures them, without extra expense, by making the annual county institute boards of instructors also the examining and licensing boards. Missouri's town superintendents and principals and the county commissioners, in the capacity of boards of institute instructors and examiners, pass upon the qualifications of teachers at the close of the annual month's county institute. The institute boards, in a month's instruction, are able to estimate all those finer qualities which go to make up the successful teacher—tact, address, courtesy, persistence, self-sacrifice—these in addition to scholarship.

Again, there is the schoolhouse, a very important educational factor. Shall its construction be left to incompetence and rule-of-thumb, or shall it be constructed in accordance with the latest deliverances of architecture, pedagogy, and hygiene? Were plans and specifications furnished school officers by the State, they would be followed in most cases without

compulsion. What railroad system would be indifferent as to the construction of its track, its rolling stock, its shops? *Laissez faire* is, indeed, paramount when the giant hand of the State takes millions from the people's pockets for school-buildings, but refuses to give a single direction as to the character of the buildings to be erected; when this same strong hand takes other millions for the payment of teachers, but refuses to provide an efficient system for training and licensing them; refuses to give us efficient school territorial organization, articulation, county supervision; a rational course of study.

Again, shall legislation provide for county supervision? Yes, unless we wish to violate the economic principles obtaining in all great business enterprises. What would we think of a steamship line, a factory, or a railroad without a head? What kind of supervision shall legislation give us? Efficient supervision, *with* a professional qualification, but *without* politics or religion. In many States, legislation has provided a system of supervision wofully inefficient—election, by the people, of a resident of the county for a specified time, thus introducing the "push" and "pull" of politics. County superintendents should be elected as town and city superintendents are elected—by boards of from six to twelve members chosen by the people. Think of a town being obliged by law—by that quintessence of wisdom—to confine its choice for town superintendent to its own residents for a specified number of years. Think of learned and dignified professors being told that they must submit their claims to a vote of the people. Yet are not the positions of town and county superintendents identical in all essentials? The demagogue cries, "Undemocratic." It is the same representative democracy that employs teachers through boards in town and country, and legislates for municipality, State, and nation. With election by the people, it is comparatively easy for a demagogue to defeat an able and devoted teacher. With election by the people, first-class salaries will not always secure first-class superintendents. For proof, compare your town and city superintendents with your county superintendents. When county supervision comes for Missouri, let it come divested of politics, religion, and sex.

But, finally, when will these reforms, or such of them as commend themselves to the thoughtful world, be inaugurated? Not soon, if State associations still continue to beat the old straw of schoolroom methods and glittering generalities. In the reasonably near future, it is hoped, if State associations learn their high mission to inaugurate and push forward educational reforms through committees and commissions. While the necessity for reforms exists at the bottom, their inauguration must begin at the top with State and national associations, with commissions, with legislatures.

You ask, Are all these reforms to be inaugurated at once? No sane person would attempt all these reforms at the same time in the same State.

Which reform should be attempted first? One in my State, another in yours. Each State will attempt the reform lying nearest the last reform and most urgently needed. The furrow to be plowed is the next one.

Legislation is an order from above. Were I to see a team hitched to the side of a wagon instead of the front, dragging the wheels instead of rolling them, I would say unhitch and hitch right. Were I to hear the commander-in-chief give an army orders to march backward, I would say revoke the order and issue another. In like manner, when I see a great school system paralyzed by an illogical course of study, wasteful school district organization, want of articulation, I say revoke the legislative order and issue another. To leave the pupils and the rank and file of inexperienced teachers to wrestle with courses of study and organization is like leaving an army without orders.

But says one, "All this about articulation, organization, and improved course of study is visionary." Visionary?—to organize the educational interests in which this country invests hundreds of millions, when every great business enterprise of the world is thoroughly organized? Visionary?—for the fifteen thousand teachers of Missouri to join hands in coöperation, when the soul of all civilization is the clasping of hands across the continents and down the centuries? Suppose a certain State was about to undertake, for the first time, a system of education at public expense. Suppose that you, as representative of a great syndicate, had just closed a contract with the State to furnish, for a specified sum, schoolhouses, apparatus, and teachers, and to equip all the youth between the ages of six and twenty in the common branches, and to give secondary and university training to such as should desire it. Suppose, further, that the State was to appoint an examining board to pass upon the results of your work. Do you suppose that you would tolerate our effete course of study, extravagant school district organization, want of articulation and supervision? If you did, your syndicate would not pay running expenses. Oh these conventionalities of the past! How they hamper and impede! They come to us as inheritances, but they weigh down and handicap. Oh for power to sweep them away! It would be a proud day for my State, could I in reality, as I do in imagination, sweep from it every schoolhouse and every district boundary line, and redistrict and rebuild. These inheritances of the past are found in every pursuit. But the hotels are being remodeled; gas fixtures are being replaced by electricity; the railroad tracks are being reballasted, and new and improved coaches placed upon them. Everywhere there is improvement. Every other occupation faces the future, and faces it squarely. When will the educational column squarely face the future and keep step to the drum-beat of progress? With me these are not mere words, but words to be backed with determined, organized effort. I would not presume to present a theory that I do not believe in. I believe the future holds a mighty work for the coming

educator. Our school system is but in its infancy. The sun has but fairly risen upon the day of universal education at public expense. It will not be given to us, or even to our immediate successors, to see high noon of this day. But let us so act that those who do witness the coming splendors will commend our action.

Even though you do not accept a single solution I have given, my attempt to solve these great problems will tend to cause others to attempt their solution. The mighty army of teachers actuated by an honest, courageous purpose will yet solve the last of these vexed questions. Many valiant warriors will go down, but their places will be taken by others. Oh these mighty on-moving floods of reform—the home, the Church, the school, and the State! The million tiny rills singing gently in their distant mountain homes go to make these four principal tributaries, and these in turn the father of waters, ever seeking the infinite sea.

DISCUSSION.

Supt. D. J. Waller, Jr.: The question indicates that legislation is not regarded as a catholicon, and yet that it may be a valuable remedy. It recognizes the fact that the communities constituting a State cannot be directly elevated to an ideal standard of education by legislation. Legislation in our land depends for its efficiency upon the approval of the people. It is the servant, not the parent, of improvement. Though it be an embodiment of ideas approved by a majority of the general assembly and by the chief executive, its vitality will depend upon the people's appreciation of the benefits to be derived from it; or, in other words, upon its adaptation to their situation. The closer the fit the better the law is likely to be executed. Legislation can improve a school system as far as it can secure a close adaptation to local needs, and this can only be by a large measure of local control, but it can advance rapidly along this line by offering conditional aid. A large general appropriation distributed to districts complying with prescribed terms will secure a given standard as to the qualifications of the teachers, the studies to be pursued, the length of the term, and even the salaries of teachers. Manifestly this standard will be the minimum standard, the least that will be countenanced anywhere within the commonwealth, but it can be raised, improved, as rapidly as public sentiment will permit.

The general appropriation may be so distributed as to deepen public interest in education to the verge of enthusiasm. It is deep public interest—enthusiasm, if you will—that is all important for the improvement of a school system; and this enthusiasm, not on the part of a few professionals, but pervading the people, is inseparable from local control; it may be made both general and intense by an appropriation of money sufficient to insure active educators for annual county institutes. Legislation may, while allowing to localities, to townships, boroughs, and cities, the largest liberty, provide for authoritative supervision by specialists; the county, city, or borough superintendent, a man of literary and scientific acquirements, and of skill and experience in the art of teaching. He, with power to grant and to annul teachers' certificates, by visitation of the schools becomes the professional adviser of directors or committeemen, and of teachers, and gives direction to the public desire to improve the schools, or stirs up by county and by local conventions those who desire no improvement. The legislation, then, that can improve a school system must include provision for a systematic and an efficient application of the general laws. It must give the largest liberty consistent with system to localities. It must include authoritative local supervision by specialists, and a system of local and of general teachers' certificates. It must include the means for arousing systematically the interest of the general public.

This is really the answer to the question propounded, given by the system in operation in Pennsylvania since 1854, under which she is distributing annually a general fund of five millions of dollars, the largest in the United States.

SUPT. W. H. ANDERSON, Wheeling, W. Va.: Since the free school system is a creature of the law, an offspring of legislation, it is quite natural and proper that we should look to our legislators with great expectations. The able paper to which we have just listened has covered about all the ground in sight, and has taken advanced ground, ground which is beyond the range of the common observer. In every State the school system should be something more than a name. It should be a systematic system, complete and unified, as is suggested by the paper just read.

Commencing with the primary grades of our public schools, there should be an attractive graded course through grammar and high schools, and end with a course in the State university. This system should comprise city, town, and country schools. From these high schools there should be promotions to State normal schools. These schools should be located in different parts of the State, as is the case in many instances in our country. After completing the curriculum in these normal schools, about two years in the State university should complete the course.

There is a conflict in the minds of the people as to how much the State should do for the youth to prepare him for citizenship. Those who look on the subject through the glasses of the unwilling taxpayer think that the State should do little or nothing, while others think there is little or nothing that the State should not do.

The way in which this matter is regarded is, to a very great extent, a matter of "habit in education." A good many years ago, when Church and State were a little mixed in New England, religious zeal led the people to support the pastor, and the pastor was teacher for all on the first day of the week, and a school-teacher on other days. In after years the work became too great for one man, and the people naturally, from the force of habit, were willing to contribute to a fund for the instruction of their children. In other parts of the country this was thought to be a very unfair thing to do, and was voted down time and again one hundred years later.

The world moves, and as it moves people are moved to look on questions in a way different from the manner in which their fathers viewed them, or in which they themselves once did.

While we shall be compelled to wait awhile for legislators to favor all that Mr. Wolfe's paper proposes, yet the proposition must precede the realization. In my own State the free schools are very popular in counties which voted down the proposition to establish free schools when we belonged to Virginia; my own county, Ohio, being the only county in the State to establish a system of free schools.

The State can make no better investment than to furnish a good education to its future citizens.

One of the annoyances and obstacles of almost every school is the failure on the part of some of the parents or guardians to supply text-books. These books should be supplied by the State. The object of the State in incurring the expenses of the free schools is to fit the pupils for good citizenship. The object is not secured as it should be unless pupils are "thoroughly furnished for every good work" of school. If this is not the case, the expenses of the school will, so far as it is to benefit many pupils, be money spent in vain.

In a great measure, the cost of these books comes out of the same pockets, whether bought by the school officers or the individual patrons of the school. In the aggregate this would be a great saving, because the books would be bought at a lower price when bought in large quantities, and would be better taken care of than when held as the personal property of the pupil, giving him, in his opinion, an unquestioned right to destroy.

Each school should be a home for one teacher, and should afford him a way of supporting himself and family.

In many instances it is almost impossible for the teacher to find a boarding-place, and often board can be found only at a place remote from the schoolhouse. To obviate this there should be a comfortable house and two or three acres of ground belonging to each country school, just as a parsonage often belongs to a church. A part of this ground should be planted in fruit and part of it left for a garden. In case the teacher is unmarried, he or she should be provided with board by such tenant as is allowed to occupy the premises belonging to the school.

Since the subject has been treated so exhaustively in an affirmative way, it seems that it should be treated negatively. In my own State the free school system has been in existence about thirty years. The law was modeled after the school law of several other States, and was thought to embody many of the very best features of those models. Since that time it has assumed many different phases. It seems that most of the legislators have some time during life attended school. It seems, also, that the indelible impressions of younger days still remain, and the one thing which they know

much about is schools. So it is that each separate legislature gives the kaleidoscope a turn, and a new form is presented. We have had it in every conceivable shape. At one time a State board of examiners, at another this dispensed with and all State certificates revoked. Again, the same thing is instituted. We have had at one time three trustees to manage each sub-district, at another but one, and again no trustees at all, but the whole matter left to the commissioners of the district or township. The regulations relating to the county examining boards have been multifarious, as well as those relating to the certificates issued by our State normal schools.

So much change is very objectionable and quite a hinderance to the successful operation of the system. A faulty law, well understood and well executed, is better than so many changes that by the time school officers and teachers learn what the law actually is it becomes something else.

I conclude by saying that the efficiency of the school system in any State depends not only on what legislation does for it, but, in addition to this, by how well it is let alone by legislative bodies.

SUPT. J. R. PRESTON, Jackson, Miss.: Mr. Anderson said he believes in public education, and that his State believes in it better than any State in the South. Mine comes next. The people in his State put up seven and eight-tenths mills, and in my State seven and one-tenth mills for education. My State is really the poorest State in *per capita* wealth in the United States. I am really ashamed to say that; but I am proud to say that, in proportion to her ability, she puts up to-day twice as much for public education as the great commonwealth of Massachusetts. We believe in public schools down there. We have taken hold of public schools down there, and we are building them up for the town, and for the country, and for the black man and for the white man. We are willing to submit to taxation, and to do all we can to push the law out into every community, so that in that beautiful State, in the land of flowers, and where the roses in mid-January are in full bloom, we are trying to shed the light of intelligence into the intellects of the rising generation.

We have had something to do, too, with legislation, and what legislation can do for a public school system. I am a great believer in local management of things; but a public school system is a thing of the State, and I do not believe that local management should go too far. But I do believe in this, that the State ought through intelligent legislation to know what should be done to make an effective system of public schools, and that she ought to enact that into her law, and that then she should have a legislature that would urge that upon the people. Now, how to get legislation is a very difficult thing. I have wrestled now with four different legislatures and with a constitutional convention; and when I tell you that one of them was an "Alliance legislature," some of you will know what I mean. I tell you that in order to get proper legislation you have to resort to all sorts of caprices and tricks and circumvention and dodges in order to get what you are entitled to. Well, we did it down there. In our very last legislature it was impossible to get the necessary school legislation passed, on account of the new constitution. Our entire school law was abrogated by the new constitution, and we had to get an entirely new law, and we had to get it out of an "Alliance legislature," and we got it, too. I saw from the Committee on Education in the house, that it could not be done if it had to go through the house, and consequently I had to have it delayed, run it into the senate, and had the seventy-five amendments put on to the school law in the house killed in a body through the committee in the senate. Then we put on some proper amendments, sent it to a conference committee of the house and senate, and passed the law, and it is a good one. It is the strongest law we ever had. It has superintendence, supervision, it has the district system, it has county teachers' institutes, it has uniform examination, it gives to the State Board of Education power to adopt a course of study for the common schools, for the public schools of the rural districts, and makes it the duty of county superintendents to enforce the courses of study. We do not answer the politician. We do not deal with politicians down in our State. That feature has not got into our schools yet, and may it never come.

Besides, we have great difficulties there in dealing with the two races, and that is a problem which I think has never been appreciated in the North. I know pretty well how the question is looked at; but I tell you, my friends, if you were there dealing with that proposition, where five white children are to be educated along with seven colored children, and where the white people own ninety-three per cent. of the property, when you come to consider the question of taxation, you would begin to know what a difficult problem it was. But we are dealing with the proposition honestly, and Mississippi to-day, under her new system, maintains her new schools from beginning to end, throughout the State,

by State taxation, for four months in the year. And that is not all, for we give to the localities, in the county, the power to levy an additional tax to maintain their schools an additional time; that is in the law, too.

It is going to take time to get all our problems worked out, to get our people worked up to the mark; but I believe, with the law properly framed, it is capable of great growth, as it has grown wonderfully in the last ten years. With a law that reaches out on proper lines and gives proper power, I believe we can, by building up public sentiment, carry out the law through the remotest districts. I believe in that law which provides for the greatest degree of local enterprise. I believe such a law will give the greatest stimulus to local interests. I have a firm conviction that such a law can be carried into operation with the support of the teachers, and that under such an enactment there can be aroused the greatest enthusiasm in the hearts of the people for public education. I believe in a good law, and then in pushing that law, through your teachers, through the educational influences, and all the powers that can be brought into it

THE address on "The Relation of Education to the Economic and Industrial Conditions of the Time," by President James MacAlister, of Drexel Institute, Philadelphia, Pa., is omitted at the request of the author, who has been prevented by illness from preparing the same for publication.

THE SCHOOL AND THE CRIMINAL.

BY SUPT. L. H. JONES, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

THE full treatment of my theme would require an analysis of four heads; viz.: 1. The school as it is; *i.e.*, the actual school. 2. The school as it should be; *i.e.*, the ideal or possible school. 3. The criminal as a product of definite factors. 4. The criminal as possible subject of remedial agencies.

My brief time makes it necessary to treat the first hastily, and to omit the fourth entirely. My chief effort, therefore, shall be to show the possible school to have in it the power to prevent the production of the criminal.

Of the actual school, then, I can only say in passing, that it is poor enough to justify almost anything said of it by its enemies; or, at least, so it would seem when compared with the ideal school. When seen by itself, however, or compared with the other actual institutions, it assumes a perfection quite gratifying to its friends. At least, it needs to be defended against but one of the charges made against it by its traducers; viz., that it is a factor in the production of criminals. An appeal has been made to statistics to prove this assertion. This attempt has given good reason to supplement the old adage, "Figures will not lie," by a newer one, "Liars will figure." To make the statement appear reasonable, statistics have been so manipulated as to leave the impression upon the mind of the reader of two classes of population—illiterate and educated—without any definite conception of the disparity of the numbers in the two classes. Then, with a flourish of trumpets, it is shown that the greater number of criminals come from the educated classes.

Dr. Harris, as you know, has exposed the fallacy by showing that, in order to compare the numerators of two fractions, the fractions themselves must be reduced to a common denominator; and that the appropriate comparison is between ratios, and not between numbers in mass. You are familiar with these results, so I need not state them further than to say that illiterate population is thus shown everywhere to produce from eight to twelve times its proportionate quota of criminals.

But my purpose is not really to defend the actual school, but rather to arraign it because it has not become a larger factor in preventing the pro-

duction of criminals. When the actual school has been transformed into the ideal one, it will be so.

A study of the criminal as a product of certain agencies will show us how to make the school the best possible preventive agency against crime.

Society creates its own criminals. I mean this in a new sense. In a primitive state there are no criminals, because there are no laws; there are no laws, because there is no quickened public conscience out of which the idea of law can grow. As mankind emerges from barbarism, the laggard becomes the criminal. He is one whose practices offend the public taste and conscience, and who becomes amenable to the formulated expression of the taste and conscience of the upper stratum. As fast as institutional life becomes possible, the force of these institutions is turned upon this same laggard to civilize him, if possible, to a degree which makes companionship with him possible; but, if he is not sufficiently developed to be lifted into communion with his self-appointed censors, these same institutions are called upon to separate him as a criminal from his fellows. So on throughout the evolution of institutional life, the rising culture of taste and conscience marks off an ever-increasing number of actions as beneath the low-water mark of social propriety or the public sense of justice; and so it happens that the country of greatest enlightenment will in general exhibit the largest list of criminal offenses. Thus the criminal in any civilization is he whose taste is low, whose nature is coarse, whose perception is dull, whose selfishness is in excess, as judged by the standard of the average of the community in these respects as it has crystallized itself in belief, custom, law, and institution. And the enumeration just given includes all except one class; viz., those whose wills are too weak to enable them to withstand even a mild temptation to fall below the common level of morality.

Now, the value of the school in this matter depends on its ability to develop in these laggards of society the quick perception, the finer taste, the view of truth, the proper relation of self to society, and to strengthen the weak will.

It is necessary here, then, to say a few words of the possible school, in order to prove it the capable instrument for the prevention of the growth of criminals. The school, like all other institutions, is an evolution. In order to understand it, one must study its embryology. The science of biology has made such rapid strides in recent years, because it has been willing to study the embryology of plants and animals, and has followed each through such metamorphoses as belong to its nature.

An institution has a life and a development peculiar to itself. It is an association and organization of ideas. Since ideas grow, institutions do likewise.

The process of development may bring new names. The naturalist knows a butterfly as a developed caterpillar. But not all men are

naturalists, and some people do not know a caterpillar from a worm. And it is peculiarly difficult to see the different stages of development of those abstract ideas upon which an institution is founded.

The school, then, properly considered, is an organized institution, with its parts, forces, and agencies acting together for the realization of a purpose—that of the proper development of the pupil. It is necessary to see that the school is for the pupil. It is not for the parent, the teacher, or even the state directly. It is for the pupil. He comes to the school a bundle of undeveloped possibilities. These possibilities are to be developed into realities. If the school shall do its perfect work in him, he will leave the school with his nature so developed that he will be fitted to live with his fellows in the other institutions—the state, the Church, the family, and civil society.

The parts of the school are originally two—the parent and the child; but in time, the progress of evolution, the parent, for good reasons, transferred his powers and duties to the teacher.

The teacher and pupil (or pupils) are then the two organs (or parts) of the school. The forces of the school are such as lie in the spiritual nature of each, and such increase and transformation of these as come from the increase of the number of pupils, and by the association of teacher and pupils. The powers of the teacher are the power to know, to feel, and to do. Those of the pupil are the same; but always the powers of the teacher are those of a developed person as against the undeveloped powers of the pupil. Certain peculiar powers arise, also, in the interaction of these developed powers of the teacher with the undeveloped mind of the child; laying a foundation for sentiments of respect on the part of the pupil for the teacher, which could by no means arise between persons of equal development. A new force arises, also, in the association of a large number of pupils under the same organization—a force called the influence of numbers. The nature of a pupil is changed when, no longer the only pupil, he is one of forty. The action of developing mind upon developing mind is peculiar and powerful.

Now, the pupil has in him the germ of all that is good, and the negative possibility of all that is evil. The school should nourish the germs of character and starve the negative tendencies to evil.

If the child is to be saved at all, it is to be through the development in him of character; and this development comes through action and reaction of teacher and pupil.

The first action and reaction of teacher and pupil arise when they first meet, and have reference to the regulation of conduct. But no regulation should be made that is not required in the interest of the pupil, and only in a secondary sense can the teacher or parent be considered in this connection.

Each regulation of the school must defend itself on the ground of its

necessity to the well-being and normal development of the pupil, and not in any sense on the will and pleasure of the teacher. Indeed, the teacher himself, together with the pupil, is amenable to law and order—not, of course, to the same law and order, because they are the different but complementary organs of the school. But there must be no arbitrariness. Three great laws of the school will manifest themselves at once. They are the laws of promptness, regularity, and silence. What is the ground of each ?

Promptness, or punctuality—this is the time-element of institutional life. Its observance is part of the development of a soul, and its preparation to live with others in the other institutions of life. It appears alike in competition and coöperation. The moment it is mentioned with reference to school, the following questions suggest themselves : What is the most commonly talked-of offense against promptness in school life ? Tardiness in assembling morning and afternoon. Is this the worst phase of its violation ? Why should pupils be taught to avoid being tardy ? Is it a good motive to place before a pupil, to urge him not to make a bad record for his school ? Is this the highest possible motive ? Is a child fulfilling the law of punctuality when he barely gets into his seat at nine o'clock, puffing and blowing, out of breath and noisy, attracting the attention of all around him, disturbing the serenity of those who have a right to quiet ? Has the law of punctuality a wider meaning for character than mere success in the objects of the school ? Is it right to urge a pupil to be punctual that he may not disturb others ? Is this the highest reason ? Shall we make the first exercise of the day of such interest that pupils will desire to be present and thus prevent tardiness ? Is promptness thus secured of so much importance in shaping character as the same secured through an understanding of the inherent laws of the organism to which they belong, and the other institutions for which we are preparing ?

A rational settlement of such questions as these makes it possible that the very machinery of the school may be a potent means of developing character.

The second law is regularity. This is promptness continued and continuous, and its philosophy is the same as that for the practice of the other virtues.

The last of the three is silence. Carlyle has said, "Silence is the soil in which thought grows," and no study worth the name is possible without it. The chief business of the pupil is to study. Hard study is the only condition of sound scholarship. Silence also implies self-control, the foundation of character. The school, then, whose aim is the realization in its pupils of character and scholarship, must insist upon this fundamental condition of both. These three great laws of the school may be properly classed as the laws of non-interference; non-interference with the rights of others. They are negative, not positive, and furnish the conditions for the real activities of the school.

It is to be observed that there is a wonderful likeness of the school to the family, together with a striking difference between them. The same ethical principles in the main seem to control in each case; but there is a difference of purpose in the two institutions, which results in a difference of management that is very marked. The school is utterly devoted to the interests of the pupil, and does nothing for the other party of the institution, except by way of making him more useful in his further association with the pupil. When, for instance, the teacher stands up for his rights, he properly does so not for his own sake, but because the pupil must be taught to give such respect for difference of station and for constituted authority. But in the family the other parties to the institution, the father and mother, have the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness as well as the child has; and their rights to life in this institution for their development are quite as sacred as are the parallel rights of the child, and are not merely subject to the requirements of the child's development.

Indeed, the average parent is very likely to overestimate his right to peace and happiness under his own vine and fig-tree, and purchases peace temporarily by granting license to the child; *i.e.*, he tries to get along with him. It is the old story of dividing the house between them: the parents take the inside, and the child takes the outside, and so, if you will permit an Hibernianism, they get along together by keeping apart, and the child becomes a street Arab.

When, however, such a child comes to school, without any sense of the mutual rights of the members of an institution, he is neither respectful to teacher nor courteous to his mates; and the teacher undertakes his reformation not for her own ease, but for the protection of the other pupils in their rights, but chiefly for the development of the unruly child himself, fitting him for future living in institutional life. Upon the first conflict, the parent says the teacher does not try to get along with John; she could do so, he knows, if she would coax him, etc. But, if the teacher understands her business, she is not merely trying to get along with the child, she is trying to develop him into moral sanity, and to teach him the elementary ideas of institutional life. Too often, however, from continual nagging from parents, from misconception herself of the legitimate work of the school, or from lack of physical force to hold up her will, or from some one of the other thousand and one reasons that operate in this sphere, the teacher breaks down before the reformation of the child is complete, and he turns the school from its purpose, as he had done the family aforetime; and, after the other institutions have tried their hand upon him, it is a mercy if he is not a confirmed criminal.

But it often happens that the parent gives out before the teacher does, and the process of reformation is not relished, and the child goes out of school merely for lack of parental attention. It is a rare teacher

indeed who can visit the parent and say such judicious things as will induce father or mother to join in the effort necessary to retain and reclaim the child.

It is indeed a rare teacher who can so operate a school as to secure to the children the necessary discipline of the will, without making any of the disciplinary processes objectionable to the subject of them. Especially is this true when the home life of the child has enamored him of selfishness and willfulness, and has left undeveloped for many years his better faculties. Thus far I have spoken of the operation of the school in so far as it affects character through the regulation of conduct. This is a side of the school that usually escapes notice altogether, or is not, at least, considered to have any large educational value. It is, of course, in a sense, only the negative side of the case; it furnishes the condition for the active processes of study and recitation. But it does have an important relation to the development of what may be called the minor virtues—virtues, the absence of which in the average person makes him not worth living with. No school system can do its proper share in the proper prevention of crime till its very administration is conceived in love, and carried out in accordance with one sole aim—the real and permanent good of the pupil, instructing him by precept and practice in the ideas of institutional life.

But it will not do to leave the matter in this negative form. It will not do merely to hold the fort. An aggressive campaign in the field brings out soldierly qualities in an army. It is the lighting up of the intellect, the creating and refining of ideas of life and conduct, the strengthening of the will by successful achievement in study, that presents the transformation of a human being that is possible in a school. These things become the pupil's own property by development in him through his own efforts, and are never by any circumstances placed as a thin veneering upon him.

The ideal school not only teaches the child to read, but in so doing, by employing his efforts upon noble literature, so interests him therein and enamors him thereof, that the lower trash of libraries and news-stands has no attraction for him.

To have the ideal school we must attend to the following conditions:

1. We must get the best people to teach our schools. There is a philosophy of education, I believe; but it consists chiefly in getting the right person to do the teaching. The processes of instruction may be learned by a careful study of psychology, ethics, and related sciences; but character outweighs all external trappings. But it is not enough to possess the character; one must also have the means of making this character felt upon the children. This double possession—that of great character, and the power to make it felt—is a rare gift of nature. All things great and noble become possible to children in the presence of some people. Once

possessed, this power of inspiring can be cultivated. But nothing ever fills the vacuum left by its absence.

The educational specialist who is seeking for teachers must seek first for this regal character, confident that all things else in rare scholarship may be added unto it. When such teachers are found, and the additional and necessary qualifications have been added, such teachers should be continued in office secure from the outward disturbance of ward politics.

2. Regular attendance must be secured. The attendance must be for the full school year, not a spasmodic movement for the first two or three months, to be given up when school becomes serious work, or when something else more attractive solicits attention. This attendance should be obtained voluntarily on the part of the parents and children, if possible; but it must be obtained.

That compulsory attendance is less valuable than voluntary attendance, I am prepared to admit. That most compulsory laws have failed to meet the expectations of their projectors, is without doubt true. But it is to be remembered that compulsory attendance, because of its regularity, afterward becomes voluntary; and it is capable of demonstration, that compulsory laws have failed most signally, because they have been political compromises and not rationally conceived measures.

And, lastly, public kindergartens must take the children at four years of age, and give them two years of moral and æsthetic training before the beginning of school life proper. There arise in my judgment two unanswerable reasons for doing this.

1. The period between four and six is a very dangerous one morally to children that are not well cared for in their homes. Many of the evil habits learned during this period require for their correction the strength of the teacher for many years of school life. This reason in itself is sufficient proof of the wisdom of placing the child during this period where he will not only form no bad habits, but will form good ones.

2. Recent studies of physiological psychology have fairly well established a definite relationship between certain conditions of the brain and the adaptability of the mind to certain classes of studies, the main principle being that, during periods of greatest growth and most rapid development of the brain, the mind is adapted to receive lasting impressions, and to the forming of permanent habits; that, during the later periods of slighter change, the mind acquires less rapidly, but tends to reflect more upon its acquisitions. Now, school life is chiefly acquisition, and life afterward gives the opportunity for reflection.

Physiologists agree that the brain has three marked periods of difference in rate of growth. From birth to seven years of age, the growth is most rapid; from seven to fourteen, slightly less so; from fourteen to twenty-one, growth proceeds but slowly; and at the age of twenty-one, in most cases, the brain has reached its full weight.

Psychologists, from their side of the subject, have long since determined by observation the adaptation of the mind in these periods to quite different lines of acquisition. Within the first seven years, environment is tyrannical, controlling through the senses and emotions the culture of the child. Memory and the fancy are at their flood tide. The tendency to form habit is at its greatest. Long-continued attention is impossible. Most work must come under the guise of play. During the second period, memory is still quite active; fancy changes to imagination, and some disposition is seen to seek for important relationships of facts learned. The third period includes the time devoted, in grammar schools, high schools, and colleges, to the more serious mastery of the higher tools of culture. Now, it is well known that a large ratio of children do not complete the second period, and that a very small ratio finish the third period. It is manifest that all should complete the first and second periods, though, as has been said, the exigencies of life with the poor, and the lack of discipline and aspiration in the families of the poor, make it well-nigh impossible to keep their children in school to the age of fourteen.

Now, seeing that in all probability children will leave school at an early age anyway, and in view of the physiological and psychological proof of the great value of the years from four to seven, morally and intellectually, it seems downright stupidity to lose the two most valuable years, from four to six, from our school curriculum.

If no serious school-work were done by the children in those years, but the time were taken chiefly in arranging, through play and voluntary activity on their part, the entire environment, so that distinct moral and æsthetic impressions should be imperishably made upon the growing brain, and through it upon the immortal spirit, the gain to the community would be incalculable. As an economical proposition, I claim that it is wiser to expend our money in reducing the probabilities of crime, than wholly in punishing the perpetrator after the crime is committed. I believe the public kindergartens, as a part of our general educational system, would prove an economical investment, aside from the increased happiness brought to all by the higher standard of living which would be brought about in the next generation.

DISCUSSION.

Principal H. G. Larimer, of Topeka, Kan.—*Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:* I shall not detain you long. I hold the following truths as self-evident: Civilization increases the catalogue of acts which are called crimes; education tends to decrease the number of criminals; the public school is the great instrument of education. I think Superintendent Jones is correct in stating that the public school has not done all it should do with a view to correcting criminality; but that it has done very much in the way he has outlined is true, and that it may do much more is to be hoped.

Thus far we are in harmony as to what the public school has done, and, if I understand him correctly, we travel far together in outlining the ideal school. If he means

by punctuality, system and order in attendance; by regularity, methodical scholarship; by silence, self-restraint, I am agreed. And these are the meanings, I think, he attaches to the terms used. To these factors of the ideal school he adds but one or two more—the "regal teacher" and the kindergarten. And here our paths diverge, here we join issues; upon the rock of kindergarten at four years we split.

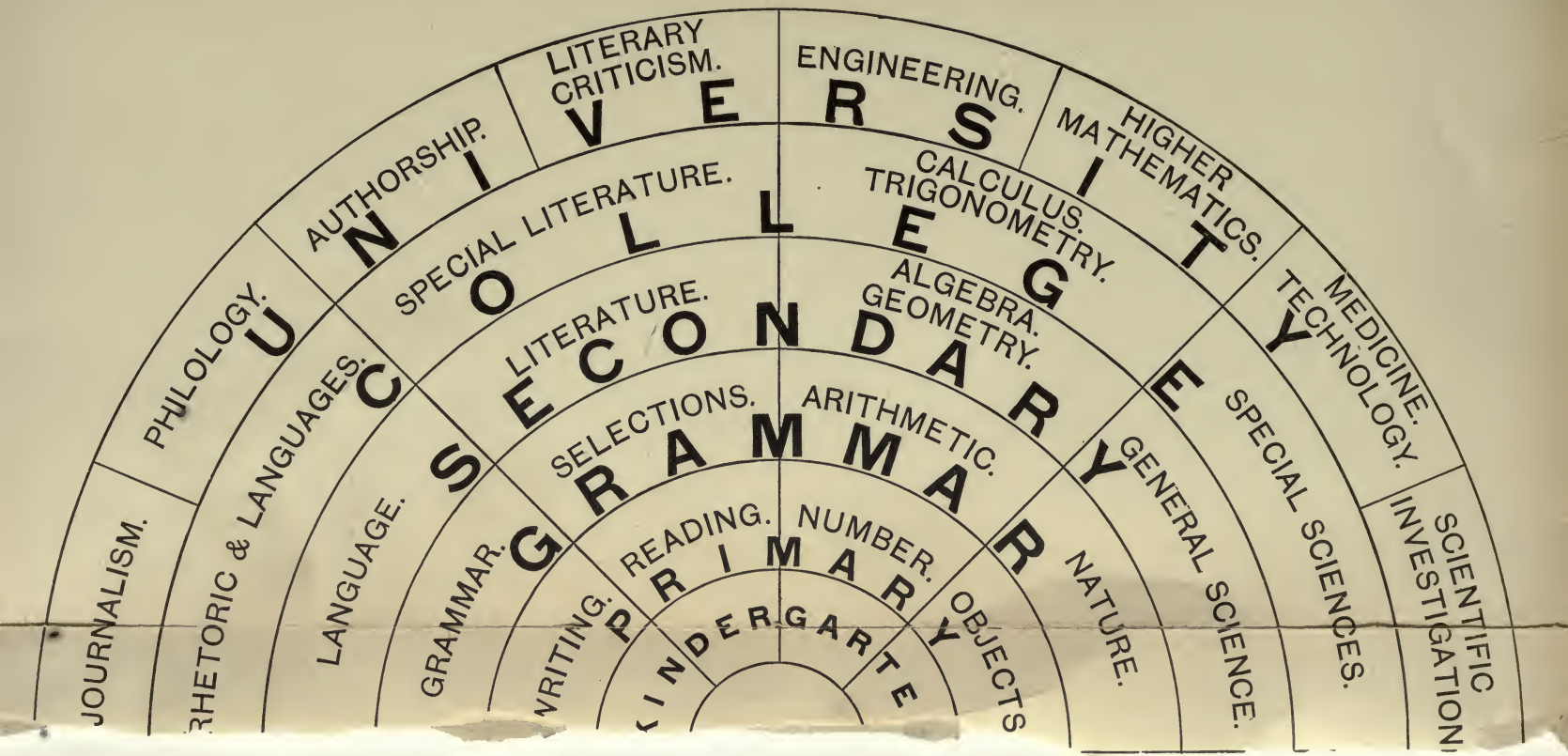
Kindergarten.—I suppose that the weakling in body, in physical condition, is not able to keep pace with the strong in body; that the weak in body is not able to support a strong intellect. There should be a strong body, that the intellect may have a strong basis upon which to work. A man so blessed is less likely to commit crime than he who is not in full vigor of life and health. It seems to me that our boys and girls, as was hinted by the President of the United States the other day, are placed under too severe stress, too severe a strain in the early period of their lives. If the kindergarten must keep them from the time they are four until they are six to watch their physical development, and pay no attention, except incidentally, to the moral and intellectual training, all right and well. But it seems to me, instead of putting our boys and girls to school at the early age of six or seven, we should detain them at home, where they have homes, until they are at least eight years of age, that the body may grow strong in order to stand the strain and pressure that must soon be placed upon the mind, and through it upon the body. It seems to me this is sound doctrine—that a boy or girl who has been detained at home, where he has a home, until he is eight years of age, will accomplish more in two years, from eight to ten, than he will accomplish in six years, from four to ten, where he is detained part of the time; unless it be in certain communities, smaller districts of our great cities, and then, if the child has no home, such a school should be provided as a home, call it a home, not a school, and the children should be kept there, not from nine till twelve, or from half-past one to half-past four, but be kept there all day long, where their mothers and fathers are away from home all day. But where the children have homes, let their bodies there be trained to withstand the great burden and the severe nervous strain that is to be placed upon them later in life, when the physical must perforce yield something in development to the rapidly growing mental.

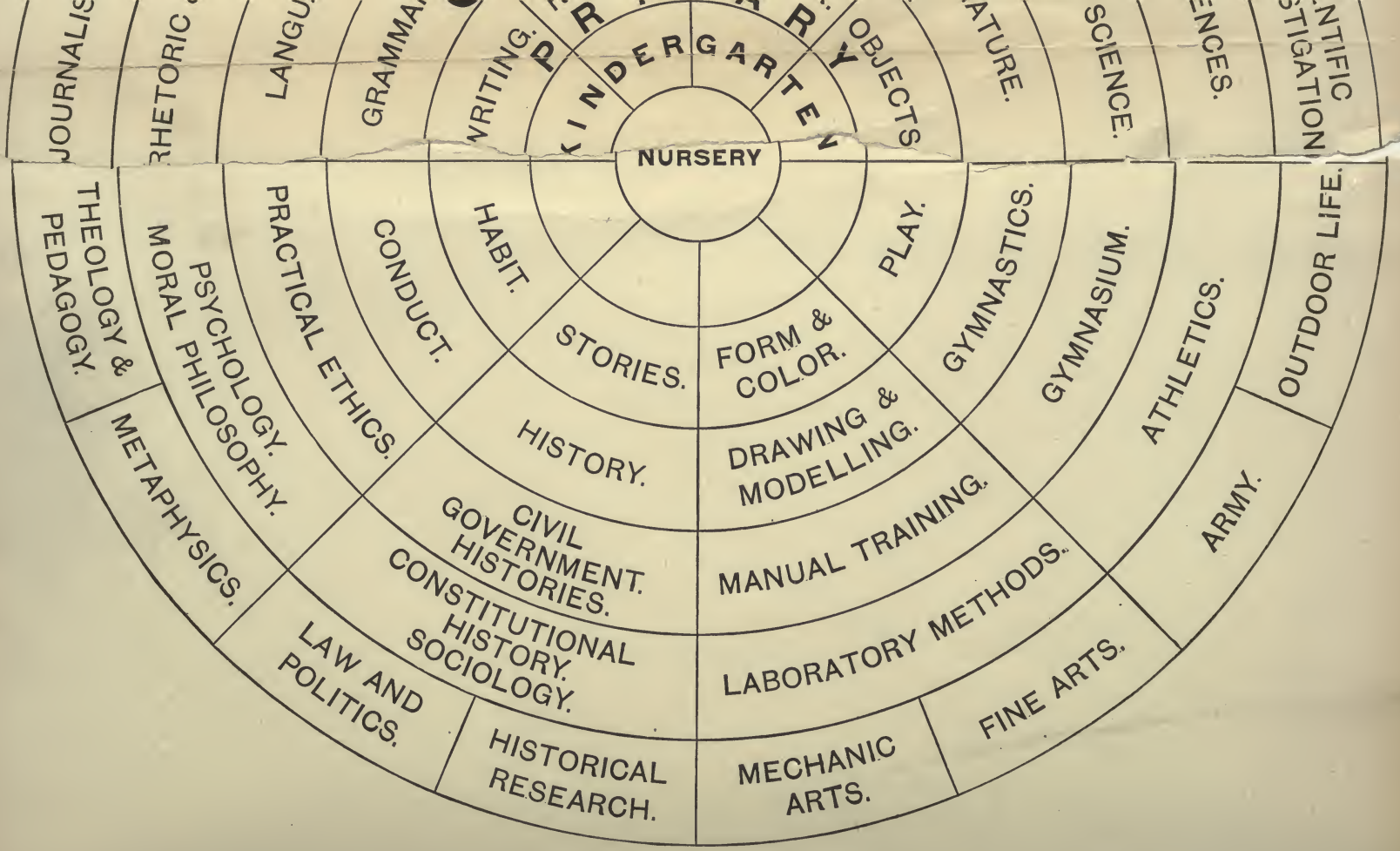
Obedience.—Then secondly, it seems to me, our public schools fail to teach absolute obedience to the requirements of school. It seems to me that the one fault of American manhood is that we have not enough reverence for law, for constituted authority, for human character, in our consideration and treatment of our great men. A boy or girl will stop to ask for the reason; a child insisting that he shall know the wherefore for the requirements of obedience. We ought to teach him to obey the requirements of the law of the schoolroom, exactly as the State requires obedience from us; namely, because it is on the statute book. Teach him, "It is the *authority*, and therefore it is your business to obey." Now, do not misunderstand me; I believe there are times when it is necessary for *men* to go outside the pale of the law in order to secure rights; but such can never be the case with the child.

Let me say here, I think there is one fatal error into which Superintendent Jones has fallen, and that is that the school exists for the individual alone. It exists for the greatest good of the greatest number; and any teacher who goes upon the theory that the school exists or should exist for the individual only makes a great mistake. Individual rights must be subordinated to the rights of the majority of the school. There is no other excuse upon which you can ask the State to give of its finances for the support of the public school.

Religion.—Certain archbishops have condemned the public school as a godless institution. How far is this true? It seems to me we are teaching the child bald facts of morality without any life in them. We are saying to our school-teachers throughout this land, teach morality, give lessons in morals, and instructing them to banish religion from the schoolroom. Oh, it is like giving the bone and muscles and tendons without the life and vigor of the soul! I think, in order to make American schools worthy of the name, they shall have to come back to something like the old Puritan doctrine: teach to the child day by day, hour by hour, that there is a God and a personal God, that there is such a thing as the immortality of the soul, and that every individual is responsible to God for his conduct here. Not teaching, sir, right because it is right and that only, not teaching to do this or not to do that because it will profit by and by, but do it because the great God who made you says that it is right and says that you shall do it. You cannot understand why, neither can I, but He has said to do it. Teach *the* God, teach the immortality of the soul, teach the individual responsibility of that soul to that God for acts done both within and without your schoolroom, and I do not care how much science or reading or arithmetic you teach, you are helping to make a citizen who will not commit crime.

DIAGRAM ILLUSTRATING ORGANIZATION OF AMERICAN EDUCATION.




NURSERY
KINDERGARTEN
PRIMARY
OBJECTS
WRITING.
GRAMMAR.
LANGUAGE.
RHETORIC &
JOURNALISM.
NATURE.
SCIENCE.
SCIENCES.
INVESTIGATION.
PLAY.
HABIT.
CONDUCT.
PRACTICAL ETHICS.
PSYCHOLOGY.
MORAL PHILOSOPHY.
THEOLOGY &
PEDAGOGY.
GYMNASTICS.
GYMNASIUM.
ATHLETICS.
OUTDOOR LIFE.
STORIES.
FORM &
COLOR.
HISTORY.
DRAWING &
MODELLING.
CIVIL
GOVERNMENT.
HISTORIES.
CONSTITUTIONAL
HISTORY.
SOCIOLOGY.
LAW AND
POLITICS.
METAPHYSICS.
MANUAL TRAINING.
LABORATORY METHODS.
ARMY.
FINE ARTS.
HISTORICAL
RESEARCH.
MECHANIC
ARTS.

A. P. MARBLE, Worcester, Mass.: The first thing which I wish to say in regard to the discussion just closed is that this last remark of the last speaker closing his most eloquent address, "That children should do right because God says so," is a pernicious heresy. There has been more sin committed in the world within my recollection because of such teaching than because of any other one thing. They should be taught to do right, not because an arbitrary despot, whom you could not respect if you believe that he is what he has been represented to be sometimes, says so, but do right from a love of right doing. The other arbitrary law and selfish motive are what create crime. I know it from my own experience ; I was taught that way. I am sorry I cannot explain what I mean, because I see from the ladies' eyes that they think I am a heretic ; but I assure you I am the purest orthodox; and if I had time I could make you think so.

Now, the other idea contained in Mr. Jones's address was concerning silence as one of the foundation stones of good teaching and an education which prevents crime. Now, I think we ought to have a degree of silence in every schoolroom. Within the last fifty years millions of children have been punished with silence that they might be allowed time to reflect. The pupils have had their ears filled with a perpetual stream of talk from the teacher. She does not allow them to think, she does not allow them to read. If I was going to make a school law I should say have fifteen minutes at the beginning of the session, at the middle of the session, or at the end of the session, perhaps all three, when there should be absolute silence in the schoolroom. The teacher should hold her tongue, and no child should speak. I think it would do more for education and more to prevent crime than a great many of our other laws.

THE ORGANIZATION OF AMERICAN EDUCATION.

PRESIDENT WILLIAM DEWITT HYDE, BOWDOIN COLLEGE, BRUNSWICK, ME.

THE historian of one of our Maine towns, naturally desirous of including as many great names as possible in the number of its sons, discovered, to his great disappointment, that the man who had always been regarded the most distinguished son of the town, had the misfortune to be born in a neighboring town, to which his parents were making a visit. Wishing to give all possible glory to the town, and at the same time to be strictly faithful to historic fact, the judicious historian stated his case as follows: Dr. A. was born in this town, though his parents were absent at the time. American education was born in similar circumstances. The professors of pedagogy were absent at the time. American education, like Topsy, "just growed." It has already outgrown the ideals which gave it birth.

Let us briefly recall what these ideals were. First came the ecclesiastical ideal, the parent of the New England school, academy, and college, having the training of a learned clergy as its foremost purpose. This is still one aim of education ; but not even the narrowest sectarian college would be content to limit its work to so circumscribed a sphere.

Next came the political ideal, the parent of the free public school, claiming public support on the ground of the necessity of education as a basis of intelligent universal suffrage. This is still an important aim of our public school system. There is, however, hardly a large town or city that has not already left that ideal far behind in the liberality of its provision for education at the public expense.

Then came the industrial ideal, which justified what otherwise would have seemed to penurious parents an inordinate amount of "schooling," on the ground of its commercial value as a means of earning a living. Thousands of women have secured an education on the ground that it would enable them to support themselves by teaching, which they could have secured from their incredulous parents on no other pretext. This ideal, though still an important factor in education, is not its final cause.

While these partial and relative ideals have been doing their work, there has been springing up within the minds of the American people an ideal of education, deeper, richer, truer than any of these, and broad enough to include them all. It is the social ideal of complete and rounded manhood and womanhood; the ideal of a life full of intellectual interest, and rational enthusiasm, and intelligent delight; the ideal of humanity and human life as an end in itself, and of education as essential to the noblest and fullest human life. Our fathers builded better than they knew. This social ideal is the child of the union of the two ideals which were most prominent in their minds—the ecclesiastical and the political.

This social ideal of an intelligent, full, free, and happy human life, whether we like it or not, whether we believe in it or not, whether we vote for it or not, actually has come to be the dominating force in American education. On no narrower grounds can you justify what we have done, and what we are about to do.

Since this ideal is destined to rule, it is well for us to reckon with it, and see precisely what it means, and what changes it calls for. For whatever this ideal calls for, that sooner or later we shall have to grant. Ideals, seriously cherished in the heart of a nation, are mighty and irresistible forces. Here in America we tolerate no outside interference in educational affairs. One authority, and one only, we recognize and obey—the authority of clear ideas.

It is my purpose to-night to point out the forms in which this social ideal of education is embodied and expressed in our educational system; to indicate the changes it ought to welcome, and the changes it ought to resist. I promise you no new and short route to the riches of some intellectual Indies. I shall try to help you see that the educational world, in which we have been living all the time, is not a flat surface, on which subjects for study have arranged themselves by accident; but that it is a sphere, the parts of which are related to each other by necessary laws, and the functions of which are determined by this spiritual ideal, which is their common center.

The particular scheme which I shall present will doubtless fail to win your assent. I expect it to be criticised, rejected, and condemned. That is what it is here for. My consolation lies in the fact, that "*victi victoribus leges dederunt*," and that, in the very act of rejecting my conclusions, you may be led to take my point of view, and think out the organi-

zation of American education on these lines to more successful issues. It would be the height of presumption for any man to expect to commend his own views on such a subject to such an audience as this. It is not unreasonable to hope, however, that in the attempt to show how I have thought the problem out, you may receive hints and suggestions which will facilitate your subsequent endeavors to think it out for yourselves. It is for the sake of its form rather than its contents, that I invite your attention to my diagram.

The diagram consists of seven concentric circles, representing the seven stages of education—the nursery, the kindergarten, the primary school, the grammar school, the high school, the college, and the university. The circles are divided by eight radii into as many arcs, representing the eight departments of language, literature, mathematics, science, physical culture, art, history, and philosophy. The ever widening scope of education is represented by placing the nursery at the center, and advancing by ever widening circles to the university on the outside. The university circle is subdivided in each department, presenting the practical profession at the left, and the theoretical pursuit at the right. By taking one department at a time, the relation of the circles, or stages of education, to each other can be made clear.

The department of language is represented by writing in the primary school; grammar or language study in the grammar school; composition and the study of foreign languages in the secondary school; rhetoric and more languages in the college; and in the university it becomes, in its practical aspect, journalism, using that word in its broadest sense as covering the communication of ideas by writing, and in its theoretical aspect it becomes the study of philology.

The department of literature, which is so closely allied to language that it is impossible to draw a hard-and-fast line between the two, begins with reading in the primary school; takes up selections from the best authors in the grammar school; studies authors directly, and their works as wholes, in the high school; includes the literature of the chief ancient and modern nations in the college; and in the university finds its practical consummation in authorship, and its theoretical application in literary criticism.

Mathematics begins with number in the primary; passes to arithmetic in the grammar; to algebra and geometry in the high school; to trigonometry and calculus in the college; and in the university becomes practical in engineering, and theoretical in the higher mathematics.

Physical science begins with the study of natural objects in the primary school; studies the more obvious and impressive aspects of nature in the grammar school; presents the outlines of the more general sciences in the high school; enters upon the detailed study of special sciences in the college; and in the university finds practical application in technology and medicine, and theoretical continuation in special scientific investigation.

Physical culture is provided for at the primary stage by play and rhythmic movements in unison; in the grammar school by the Swedish or some other convenient system of gymnastics; in the high school by the more difficult and interesting gymnastic exercises and feats; in college by manly sports and athletics; and has its special practical application in the army, and is kept up by life in the open air.

Art should begin with studies of form and color in the primary school; deal with drawing and construction in the grammar school; become manual training in wood and metal in the high school; keep its hand in by laboratory methods and artistic studies in college; and in the university lead either to the mechanic or the fine arts.

History should begin in the primary school with stories; lead to connected narratives in the grammar school; take up the history of nations and institutions, and forms of government in the high school; deal with constitutional history and sociology in the college; and open out into law and politics as the practical, and historical research as its theoretical, conclusion in the university.

Philosophy in the primary school consists in training the children in right habits; in the grammar school it is instruction in the grounds of right conduct; in the high school it is a presentation of practical ethics in its reasonable and necessary laws; in college it is psychology and moral philosophy; it is theology or pedagogy if practical, metaphysics if theoretical, in the university.

The first and most obvious corollary to be drawn from this diagram is the principle that knowledge advances from the general to the particular, not, as has often been supposed, from the particular to the general. The nursery is the place where study is most general and universal. As Professor James says: "The baby, assailed by eyes, ears, nose, skin, and entrails all at once, feels it all as one great, blooming, buzzing confusion. The first sensation an infant gets is for him the universe. And the universe which he later comes to know is nothing but an amplification and implication of that first simple germ, which, by accretion on the one hand, and intussusception on the other, has grown so big and complex and articulate that its first state is unrememberable." Knowledge is from within outward, and proceeds from the universal to the particular. Browning rightly says:

> "To know
> Rather consists in opening out a way
> Whence the imprisoned splendor may escape,
> Than in effecting entry for a light
> Supposed to be without."

The kindergarten is a systematic continuation of the processes of the nursery. It retains the same universality of subject-matter. The sepa-

rate departments of study are not here marked off and named. The child is still dealing with those tremendous universals—self and the world. The glory of the kindergarten is its emphasis on education as a letting out of power, rather than a cramming in of information.

The well-conducted primary school retains many of the methods of the kindergarten. The long names of the several departments of study remain unknown. I was looking over some examination papers in a Boston primary school not long ago, and I noticed that, while their work with numbers was excellent, they had spelled arithmetic in such a variety of ways that the only common quality about them was that of being wrong. I asked the teacher how that happened. "Why," she said, "they never saw or heard the word until it came to them on this examination paper."

The grammar school presents these departments for the first time as distinct and separate subjects. And yet good teaching makes each department help all the others at this stage. Drawing, for instance, enters into everything. In the grammar grade of this same school, whether it was a product of the country studied in geography, or the articles mentioned in a problem in arithmetic, or a scene described in a poem, or an event related in history, or bones and muscles described in physiology, everything was accompanied by a sketch to give it reality and life.

In the high school, the departments become so distinct that they require different courses, which give different emphasis to the different departments.

In the college, differentiation between the branches of the same general subjects comes in. There is a professor, a room, a library or laboratory for each of several sciences and languages. Ground which the high school would go over in a single term is so subdivided as to occupy several courses, a year or more in length, in the college.

Finally, in the university, fields which occupy a year of study in the college widen out so as to give opportunity for a three years' course in each of many subdivisions.

Progress thus is not from one subject to another, but from the more general and superficial study of the fundamental subjects to more minute and particular study of the same subjects. This explains the increasing modesty which comes with advancing knowledge.

The graduate of the lower schools thinks he knows everything. So he does, in a sense; and that is just what is the matter with him. He knows everything, but does not know much of anything about it. The graduate of college or university begins to realize the tremendous sweep of the vast circle of special knowledge, and hence he sees how small is the fraction he can hope to compass. This is why knowledge, and the conceit of knowledge, are always in inverse ratio. It shows, too, very clearly why there can be no such thing as a finished education.

I propose to consider in order the five great institutions of our educational system—the primary, grammar, and high school, the college and the university—with a view to the part each must perform, and the contribution each must make, in order to fulfill its function in a system the end and aim of which is the richest life, the completest manhood, the highest well-being of the citizens of a republic.

The primary school can no longer confine itself to the three R's. A primary school thus restricted covers only three out of the eight departments which must lie at the base of a symmetrical education. The accurate observation of natural objects must lay the foundation for future scientific interest. Inasmuch as it is impossible for children at this stage to confine their attention for over twenty minutes or half an hour at a time to self-directed study, there must be frequent intervals of exercise and recreation. The five or six hours of close confinement in artificial positions which has done so much to injure the health of growing children must give way to shorter hours, be broken by exercises and diversions which will tend to strengthen the body and improve the health.

The bodily exercise may be combined with exercise of mind. Modeling in clay, paper-folding, drawing, not only develop the powers of eye and hand, but bring them under the control of eye, mind, and will, and have intellectual, æsthetic, and moral results in accuracy, patience, perseverance, self-control, taste, and appreciation of beauty.

Stories of heroes, explorers, stirring adventure, and thrilling exploits will awaken the interest in human deeds, which later will find its proper food in biography and history.

Discipline in punctuality, prompt obedience, neatness, orderliness, thoroughness, and politeness will lay the foundation for that conscious direction of the life in wisdom's ways which is the best fruit of philosophy.

With good teaching it is perfectly possible to do all these things and make just as much progress in writing, reading, and arithmetic as is ordinarily made in the primary school in which these are the only subjects taught. The expansion of the curriculum in the directions indicated simply takes advantage of the child's natural curiosity and interest, and turns into pleasant and profitable channels energies which have hitherto been wasted in dawdling or repressed by the rod.

The bane of the grammar school has been the narrow industrial ideal that has been forced upon it by narrow-minded parents. In order to keep children in the grammar school it has been almost necessary to offer a course which the most stupid and hard-headed parent would consider practical. The tendency of this subserviency to the narrowest sense of the word practical has been to keep the grammar school down pretty closely to a continuation of "the three R's."

The acceptance of the social ideal by the grammar school will work reforms in nearly every department. Reading will be confined no longer

to "pieces" from a reading book, but will deal with continuous selections from the best authors. Literature will be dissected less and enjoyed more. Arithmetic will not be carried to its remotest commercial applications; and, instead, algebraic methods will be introduced for the solution of the more difficult problems, and children will learn at this stage what a geometrical demonstration is. Without attempting to treat any particular science exhaustively, the more obvious phenomena of physiology, hygiene, astronomy, botany, political and physical geography, and physics will be made intelligible to children in the grammar school.

The Swedish, or some equally simple and convenient system of gymnastics, will be a regular exercise. The beginning in the study of form and color made in the primary school will be continued by drawing and construction of forms and objects in the grammar school. They will know how to express their thoughts through hand and eye, as well as by tongue and lips.

The consecutive narrative of English and American history, with enough of general history to give their rightful setting to the histories of these nations, will be so taught as to convey the sense of the continuity and causation of events rather than the mere sequence of names and dates.

Without attempting to construct a system of morality, the teacher will encourage pupils to inquire into the reasonableness of moral rules and customs, to appreciate their necessity, and to respect their authority.

The narrow ideal of industrial utility does not press so hard upon the academy and high school as upon the grammar school. Parents who send their children to the high school thereby manifest a sympathy with the liberal, or, as I have called it, the spiritual ideal of education. Or, if a portion of the scholars are lacking in this liberal purpose, the high school solves the problem by turning them over to an English or business course, and thus leaves its classical and scientific courses free for the purposes of a liberal education.

The requirement of some language other than English should be made of all high-school scholars who are able to bear it, on the ground that he who knows but one language knows none. The substitution of the direct study of authors in literature for the cramming of dry and dreary text-books about them, and the study of classical literature in translations for those who do not intend to study it in the original, are the next steps forward in the department of literature in high schools. The application of mathematics to surveying gives a reality and interest to this most abstract of studies.

The high school can make a good beginning in the outlines of zoölogy, botany, chemistry, physics, and astronomy. One or more of these sciences, taught by actual work in the laboratory, should be required of every student, whether he be fitting for college or not.

Gymnastic feats, games, and sports will best continue the gymnastics of the lower schools. Severe training for athletic contests should be discouraged at this period, as likely to injure growing youth. Students who have had manual training in the earlier stages will be prepared to undertake work in wood and metal.

History may now penetrate beneath the surface and study the growth of nations, the rise of institutions, and the forms of civil government.

Students are by this time sufficiently mature to study the relation of duties to each other, and to see duty and virtue not as a sum of isolated rules and regulations, but as the indispensable and inter-related conditions of individual and social well-being. Without attacking the psychological subtleties of moral philosophy, they can comprehend the essential principles of practical ethics.

A high school or academy in which these subjects are taught will, at the same time, be an adequate preparation for college and a valuable preparation for life.

In the college, the question of required and elective studies, owing to the increasing size of the circle, becomes one of great importance and difficulty. In the primary school, the subjects are so general and fundamental, that all must be required. In the university, on the other hand, the circle is so vast, and the subjects are so highly specialized, that everything must be elective.

The departmental method of instruction gives promise of a slight degree of election, such as that of a foreign language in place of the refinements of English grammar and arithmetic, even in the grammar school. In the high school, the demands of the widening circle of knowledge, and the limitation of the scholars in maturity and judgment, have led to the adoption of different courses, between which the scholars choose once for all.

The circle of studies represented in a college is too vast to be required throughout. A college course, wholly or chiefly required, is merely a continuation of the high school under an improper title. Vagueness, generality, and superficiality are the inevitable outcome of the dissipation of energy over so large a field.

A course entirely elective at this stage, on the other hand, is liable to become so specialized as to stunt and dwarf powers which, if not developed here, will remain forever undeveloped. This is the anticipation of a university course under an improper title.

The college should require of every student some thorough work in each of the great departments of human knowledge, and at the same time give each student opportunity to pursue two or three of these lines far enough to come in contact with its problems at first hand, and feel the thrill of intellectual ardor that comes from bivouacking for a time on the outposts of scholarship. A course about half required and half elective,

continuing the symmetry of early education, and keeping the mind open on all sides, and at the same time developing special aptitudes and powers, and preparing for the special studies or profession of the future, is that which best fulfills the function of the college in our educational system. The college which does not aim at some such adjustment of its courses is unworthy of the name. High school it may be. University it may want to be. College it is not.

The college stands preëminently for liberal education. It is free from interference from town or city, or state or nation. If the college is not true to the ideal of a liberal education, it has no one but itself to blame. It is not so easy to mark out the ideal course for the college as for the lower schools. The college must require of its graduates familiarity with the important languages, Latin, Greek, French, and German, and give opportunity for Anglo-Saxon, Spanish, and Italian in addition. It should require intimate and accurate knowledge of some of the masterpieces of ancient and modern literature, and give opportunity for the study of all the greatest writers of Europe and America.

It must enforce the drill of algebra, geometry, and trigonometry on all its students, and give ample opportunity for the study of the higher mathematics.

The separate sciences must each have their professors, their laboratories, and facilities for individual work. The college should require of every student familiarity with the scientific method of study in at least one important branch of science, and give opportunity for the prolonged study of at least five or six of the leading sciences.

The college may well require regular exercise, and reasonable proficiency in such manly sports as sparring, fencing, and wrestling, of all its students; leaving athletics to the free choice of the students, under competent medical supervision.

The laboratory methods of scientific study will keep up the dexterity acquired in previous manual training, and electives in the fine arts will continue the artistic development.

Some knowledge of constitutional history and political economy should be required of all college graduates, and there should be numerous electives in history and sociology.

All should be required to study psychology and moral philosophy, and there should be elective courses for advanced study of philosophy.

The distinguishing feature of American education is the college. There is nothing exactly like it in any other country. In European countries the first half of the work done by an American college is done in institutions corresponding to our academies; the last half is done in the university. There is a great deal of talk at the present day about the excellent features of these foreign systems. Various schemes have been suggested for abolishing the college in whole or in part. More serious than all this

discussion, however, is the attitude actually taken by universities, which admit to university courses, university methods, and university freedom students directly from high schools and academies. Boys and girls who have had no training beyond the drill of the preparatory school; who have never assumed the direction of their own minds in any intellectual pursuit; who have never tasted literature except in the dried extracts of a text-book or the set pages of a requirement; who have never carried scientific study beyond witnessing a few spectacular performances by the instructor; who have never been trained to bring their nerves and muscles, their appetites and passions, under either physical or moral control; who have never learned to do a piece of neat and thorough work with hand and eye; who have never carried history and political science beyond a narrative of exploits and the description of the established institutions of their country; who are utterly ignorant of the laws which govern the working of their minds, and which ought to govern the exercise of their wills—these boys and girls are to be thrown into the distractions of city life, into the maze of university specialization, into the vastness of our outer circle. What will be the result?

For persons residing in the vicinity, and who can live at home, these institutions will offer exceptional advantages, though at the sacrifice of that indefinable but priceless experience which we call college life. For persons of exceptional maturity of mind, purpose, and character to start with, these institutions afford opportunity for self-development in many respects superior to those offered by smaller institutions. For the great majority of boys and girls who desire to continue their education beyond the high school, immediate admission to the freedom of a great university is undesirable. The breaking down of health, of character, and of serious intellectual purpose cannot fail to be vastly greater in the free life of a great university city than in the quiet seclusion of a country college town, where each professor knows his students not by name only, but by their habits, their associates, and their whereabouts. I know it is easy to sneer at a virtue which needs to be secluded, and the character which has to be formed at a distance from temptation. It is true that strength is formed, developed by conflict with the evil of the world. There may be something in the claim that it is worth while to sacrifice many weaklings to one man of power. If these arguments were applied to the case of mature men, there would be much force in them. Applied, as in the discussion of this question they are applied, to immature persons, they are utterly fallacious. If mature men fall into temptation, they have themselves to blame. If immature persons fall before temptations, which, if they had met in maturer years, and with proper previous training, they would easily have overcome, then the blame rests with those who exposed them to temptation prematurely. The colleges connected with great universities, for reasons already indicated, receive a much larger proportion of the sons

of idle, luxurious, and falsely ambitious parents, whom it is impossible for any institution to save from worthlessness and disgrace. But a large proportion of the men who come to nothing in these larger institutions would be saved to respectability and usefulness, if not to honor and distinction, in the smaller colleges.

The college holds its students to an all-round development intellectually, and to individual responsibility morally, during the critical years from seventeen to twenty-one. As a result, it turns out not specialists, but men. And you can always make a specialist out of a man afterward if you please. You cannot always make a man out of a person who has been made a specialist first. As long as character is of more consequence than manners; as long as symmetry is of more consequence than particular accomplishments in early training; as long as the comprehensive achievements of a lifetime, rather than the precocious performances of youth, are the test of education—so long the country college will continue to be the best place to send a boy or girl for the four years succeeding the academy or high school.

The American college is the peculiar product of American democracy. Democracy requires for its successful working that each individual who aspires to leadership shall be a tolerably complete and rounded being. Premature specialization will do well enough for a nation in which each man's place and function is fixed for him by caste or custom or royal mandate. Democracy requires in addition to his special profession that each man shall be, as Simonides says, "built four-square in hands and feet and mind, a work without a flaw." The institution which continues the symmetry of elementary education until the elements of the languages, the sciences, and of the social institutions are mastered, and thus prepares the way for subsequent specialization on this broad basis; the institution which has approved itself by sending forth the great majority of the men whose lives and labors have made the experiment of American democracy a glorious success—this institution will never be superseded by institutions whose proper work lies in another sphere, nor crowded out to make room for an educational régime patterned after that of foreign monarchical countries.

I will not attempt to speak in detail of the great variety of subjects with which the university must deal. I will confine myself to certain obligations which these institutions owe to our educational system, and to the community which it serves. First, a university, which is a university in fact as well as in name, will insist on the equivalent of a college course as a condition of admission to that specialized study and that academic freedom which are the prerogative of students seeking the higher degrees. Not only candidates for the degree of doctor of philosophy, but also candidates for such professions as law, medicine, and the ministry, need all the breadth of culture, the openness of mind, the range of intellectual

sympathy, that a college course can give, before they narrow themselves down to the details of their special studies. If a sufficient number of powerful universities will take the lead, as a few are already doing, and refuse to allow men to become candidates for these professions without the equivalent, in whole or in part, of a college training, they will do a great service in elevating the standard of intellectual and professional life in this country. There will then come to be recognized two kinds of men in these professions—those who have passed from a broad culture through the best institutions to their profession, and those who with little previous preparation have received their professional education in inferior institutions. I am well aware that in time past some of the most talented and skillful members of these professions have entered them without much previous training. Such men are to be found to-day in the front rank of all the professions. But the standard of education in these professions is rapidly rising. What was possible twenty years ago, is undesirable to-day, and should be made impossible twenty years hence. If the universities will only insist upon it, we can just as well have men of the broadest and most thorough training in these professions as not. What the country needs is not more doctors, but a larger proportion of men in the medical profession who are capable of forming by scientific methods a correct and accurate conception of the cause and process and cure of disease. The country needs not more lawyers and politicians, but more men among them who see clearly and proclaim effectively the principles which underlie our legal and political relations. We do not need more clergymen, or, if we do, the need is an artificial one, begotten of excessive and extreme sectarianism. We are, however, terribly in need of men to whose minds the laws that govern spiritual life are clear and transparent, and who can make those laws effective for the uplifting of mankind. We are not in sore need of numerical reinforcements in the profession of teaching. We are sadly in need of scholars who have carried their studies far on into the outer circles of human knowledge, and are willing to come back into the smaller circles, and make the abstract and general terms, with which education at these earlier stages is occupied, luminous and attractive with the light which comes only from accurate special knowledge. As Emerson says, "He that will do anything well must come to it from a higher ground." Unless in your own study you have gone far beyond the point at which you undertake to teach, no elaborateness of method, or outfit of pedagogical theories and devices, can save your teaching from being dull and heavy, and dry and dead.

Without the broader basis in thorough and symmetrical education, the professions degenerate into trades, and their practice becomes subject to rule of thumb. To guard against these tendencies, and to maintain the intellectual standards of professional life, is the first duty of universities and the managers of professional schools.

The universities and colleges need to respect each other's rights and promote each other's interests. The college, or university of collegiate grade, which keeps half a dozen graduate students hanging about its grounds with inadequate facilities, irregular instruction, and uninspiring companions, is doing a wrong both to the individuals whom it thus keeps from the universities, and to the universities from which it keeps them. The college should be content to do with all its might its proper work, and then speed its departing graduates to the universities. The universities, in turn, owe it to the colleges to make admission to their graduate and professional courses conditional upon a college training.

Such is the system, such are the institutions, which America has developed for the expression of her social ideal of education. These are the means she has established for the distribution, to all who will receive and appreciate them, of the intellectual riches of the world. Other systems may make better soldiers, better functionaries, better specialists, in shorter time. There is no system in existence so perfectly adapted to the highest work of education—the development of symmetrical manhood and womanhood.

Let us not be blind to its imperfections and shortcomings. Let us be ever ready to welcome all improvements which will make it more efficient in its great and noble work. Let us, however, jealously guard it against all innovation that would destroy its symmetry, or maim or destroy any of its essential members, or divert it from its high spiritual calling to lower and more mercenary aims. It stands to-day at once the firm foundation and the crowning ornament of this great Republic. No vocation can be more patriotic than serving in its ranks. No calling can be more holy than that of ministering in its name.

Let us return to our several tasks with the consciousness that, in all its grades and departments, this work in which we are all engaged is one. Whether it be the mother in the nursery who represents to her trusting child all wisdom and all goodness, or the university professor who meets a few chosen students on a single narrow line once or twice a week; whether it be the primary teacher instilling knowledge through every opening pore of the child's intelligence, or the college professor kindling enthusiasm for his one special department; whether it be the grammar-school teacher giving to the great mass of working men and women the impressions they will carry into the heat and burden of their laborious lives, or the high-school principal molding the thought and purpose of those who are to be leaders of their fellows, we are all co-laborers in the same great and glorious work, one of the noblest in which man can engage—that of interpreting the infinite riches of nature's truth and beauty, and the searchless treasures of the thoughts of God, to minds naturally formed and divinely fitted for their apprehension and enjoyment.

SCIENTIFIC VALUE OF PHYSICAL CULTURE.

BY STATE SUPT. A. B. POLAND, NEW JERSEY.

THE subject that has been assigned me for this evening, Mr. President, is so technical in most of its aspects, and has been so ably treated on many occasions by distinguished specialists who are members of this Association, that I must confess to no slight degree of embarrassment in appearing before you, and more particularly since I can lay claim to no amount of familiarity with the subject, either on its theoretical or practical side, not possessed by every intelligent teacher who has followed the drift of scientific thought and discussion for the last decade.

So many-sided, too, is this question of physical training, especially in its practical application to individual and social needs, that I am at a loss to know what phase of the subject I can safely present upon this occasion with any hope that it may prove either fresh, interesting, or instructive.

Since, however, the discussion of physical culture has been most frequently approached from the standpoint of the physiologist, the gymnast, or the schoolmaster, I may, perhaps, be pardoned if I select rather the point of view of the biologist or sociologist, and attempt to explain the relationship of physical culture to the present stage of evolution.

The student of anthropology who proposes to himself the query, "Is the race deteriorating physically?" is confronted by two startling deductions apparently incompatible with each other—one, that the race is slowly, though none the less surely, approaching extinction by the predominant development of the psychic at the expense of the physical factor; and the other, that the modern man, not of extremely sedentary habits, though not larger, is stronger and has greater vital persistence than his remote ancestors, because of the finer quality of nerve force gained through the conditions of civilized life.

It will be the aim of this paper to present, as briefly and succinctly as possible, the first-mentioned phase only, and show its bearings upon the general subject of physical culture.

The effect of our present intense civilization upon the human physique, pointing as it does toward the positive and rapid deterioration, if not ultimate extinction, of the race, has received a great deal of attention abroad, and especially in France, at the hands of such distinguished and reliable scientists as M. Guyau and M. Fouillee. The former, in his "Education and Heredity," a translation of which can fortunately now be had in English (see Contemporary Science Series), has laid down these two

principles, which will be found fundamental to all systems of education, namely:

1. That education must have for its chief object the progress of the race.

2. That whatever system of education is best for the race is best for the individual.

Accepting the former proposition as valid, whatever may be said of the latter, we may properly inquire what has been the progress of the race in past ages.

The answer to this inquiry, if rightly conducted, may throw some light upon our duty, both for the present and future, in all matters of education.

It can hardly be necessary at the present day, and before such an audience as this, to present in detail any of the numberless arguments by which the theory of evolution is generally sustained.

It is quite within the truth to say that almost no one who is competent to judge through familiarity with the facts of comparative biology, histology, pathology, and therapeutics, considers the doctrine of evolution any longer a matter of question. He may be Lamarckian or Darwinian, or what, perhaps, is still more probable, he may, like Spencer, recognize the value of both factors. All agree in this: that throughout the long ages during which the ancestors of man were developing from simple amœboid cells through the varied forms of gastrula, ascidian, annelid, amphibian, and marsupial, until the particular line eventuated which has man for its "chief work and crowning glory," the entire line maintained its existence solely because its *form* was constantly changing in happy harmony with ever-changing environment. Now, whether, like Lamarck, we affirm that change of environment modified function, and function modified organ; or whether, with Darwin, we hold the other view, namely, that such creatures only continued to exist whose happy accidental variation rendered them better fitted for life under the new conditions—the result is the same. In either case the animal was always subject to its environment, and change of form to accommodate changed conditions was the essential of continued existence.

Thus far we have alluded only to change in form and bodily function; but throughout these long ages, during which the body was undergoing incessant and important modifications, another factor, the psyche, had been likewise evolving from its rudimentary state and growing more and more complex.

Its earliest appearance we are able to discern in the single nucleated amœba; for here are to be found, indeed, all the evidences of consciousness—such as the realization of the presence of food, knowledge of direction as shown by the certainty with which its envelope elongates to encompass food, and the freedom and accuracy of its movements—in fact,

in all its life powers of nutrition, growth, reproduction, and movement, there is given evidence of the rudiments of that phase of universal force that we are pleased to call intelligence.

There appears to be, however, in this earliest form of psychic activity a lack of division of labor; for we find the powers to which we just now referred—namely, the power of sensation, recognition of sensation, deduction from what is recognized, the decision on that deduction as shown by the motor impulse flowing therefrom—diffused, apparently, throughout the whole being. Though capable of being distinctly identified, as we have said, these powers are nevertheless highly embryonic and undeveloped.

From this time forward, there follow the age-long sequences of differentiation of form and integration of matter, the processes of which Spencer has so profoundly summarized.

We are interested, however, only to note that in each succeeding modification we find the psyche more highly localized and specialized, amidst incessant change being ever born to newer and loftier powers. It may be remarked, also, as worthy of note, that during this line of development from the amœboid to man, while specialization of form and function is constantly going on, each new form is found to vary less and less readily through the force of environment, but more easily, it is probable, through sexual selection.

This modification is due, no doubt, to the growing importance of the psychic factor in the economy of evolution, which is henceforth able to oppose a greater and greater resistance to the power of environment to alter form, until in man we find changes due to this cause almost wholly eliminated. Throughout this whole period of gradual evolution to the man state, the foes that his ancestral line has had to contend with have ever been the same; namely, the natural destructive forces: first of all, change; then cold, heat, hunger, and the myriad opposing life forms, animal and vegetable.

Not, however, until the stage of man is reached, not until ages of experience and fiercer struggle have stimulated and developed his now complex psyche, does he become aware that he can modify his environment, that he can make his summer by fire, that he can shield himself from winter's blast by other covering than his tender skin, that he can face the savage carnivora with more hopeful weapons than his clawless fingers and shortened teeth, that by covering the fecund seed in the rich loam he can discount in advance the failure of the chase.

Little by little he learned all these lessons, and thus stage by stage was civilization born.

Henceforth the foes that he is to meet will be those of his own household. He is now a complex psychic being, and no longer at the mercy of every changing mood of nature. Heretofore his struggle has been for

existence merely, to force from the rude breast of nature a few bitter drops of life. Now his living must be deeper, richer, fuller. Henceforth, in the fiercer struggle for individual and tribal supremacy, his fellow-man will be his chief competitor; brain, not simply brawn, will determine who shall be the victor.

With the advent of civilization artificial needs are created. New pursuits, new pleasures, new sufferings arise. These in turn create conditions that are still more artificial, by reason of which the competition among individuals increases. The myriad of new desires when once gratified seem but to breed new wants yet more difficult of satisfaction, until, indeed, no material luxury seems left now to strive for that is not wholly born of power, envy, or insatiate greed. And for such ignoble prizes man to-day stretches forth with redoubled speed in a race of sheer katabolism.

The symptoms of this mad struggle we all know too well. We have but to open our eyes and look about us to realize that we are in the midst of it. The ever-increasing list of nervous disorders; the even-paced use of narcotics and anodynes; the rapid closing of brilliant careers among our public men, whether in politics or business, men who early become unreliable in digestion, and bankrupt in circulation; our insane asylums with their multitudinous towers in magnificent perspective; Bright's disease, heart failure, suicide—all tell the same story of nervous tension and unhygienic living beyond the organic power of the body to withstand. Is any further evidence needed to convince us that, in this struggle for a more intense existence, the body, not being the principal factor, has failed to develop sufficiently to meet the extraordinary demands that are put upon it?

Now, without dwelling further upon this aspect of the question, what, may I ask, is the lesson that is taught us by this story of the past? What may we fairly look for as the logical outcome of this marvelous development of the psychic powers unbalanced by the physical? This, it seems to me, is the answer of science from which we cannot escape. Whenever in the processes of evolution the conditions of existence changed beyond the animal's power to vary in harmony therewith, the animal became extinct. Whenever, also, through some change of conditions any function of an animal, formerly essential, became unnecessary, such function became modified, and the corresponding organs became also modified or atrophied, and were lost.

Might we not, therefore, reasonably conclude that in the case of man—were this struggle of man with man the only factor to be considered—the result would be gradual obliteration of the body as it became less and less important, and the eventual evolution of man as an incorporeal psyche, as Mr. John Fiske has suggested?

But this is purely speculative, for the old contest with our environment has not yet ceased. Moreover, it is open to grave doubt whether a con-

stant and successful development of the psyche through struggle to a bodiless condition—while it might result in a genius for victory—might not, like other forms of genius, be closely allied to insanity. Furthermore, were this complexity of mind capable of constant increase at the same ratio as hitherto, it is extremely probable that it would result in racial suicide. Indeed, there is abundant evidence to show that a higher increase in mental complexity is always attended with vital katabolism, a prominent factor of which is a lessening of the reproductive power and a lowered fund of vitality, extending even to those who are produced, to be in turn passed down to the next generation as a handicap in the future race for existence.

As a single illustration of this tendency of a weakened vitality to cause the rapid extinction of a family, let me cite a statement made by W. J. Greenstreet in an article in *Physique*. He affirms upon good authority, that observations made for many years in the out-patients' wards of the Charing Cross Hospital, in London, disclose the fact that it is extremely rare to find in that metropolis an individual whose father, mother, grandfather, and grandmother were born, bred, and had lived in London all their lives. This would seem to indicate that under the intense strain of modern life in the greatest centre of population in the world, where the struggle for existence among the poorer classes is most intense, a family may reasonably be expected to become extinct in two generations. Nor would a fact of this nature, however well authenticated, necessarily disprove that other generally accepted conclusion of anthropological science, to which allusion has been made—namely, that the civilized man has greater vital persistence than his savage ancestor—for evidence is not wanting that a strongly developed will with definiteness of mental action, which is a product of civilized life, is to a certain degree a superior force to simple anabolism, and should, other things being equal, prolong the period of natural life. Moreover, the civilized man has more control over his environment and a more ready adaptation of self to temporary change in the same ; and, besides, his nutrition is superior. All of these factors favor the longevity of the civilized man of to-day.

Had the psychic development of man been simply in response to the demands made upon him on behalf of his continued physical existence, then the body only need have gained thereby. But, as we have said, the increase in mental capacity created new wants, and the struggle to satisfy these resulted in creating still others even more artificial, which in nowise serve the continuance and well-being of the body in proportion to the amount of energy expended. Hence, the balance against vitality began to grow, and the prodigal waste of nerve force has not been made up by a corresponding increase in the ease of gaining nutrition.

There is abundant statistical evidence in support of the statements that have been made as to this general tendency of our present development

and the dangers that threaten us. Its effect upon health we have referred to; its adverse influence upon reproduction is known to us all. If time permitted, it would be interesting to point out the unwholesome effect of this excessive psychic development, unsupported by a corresponding physical development, upon the moral atmosphere of man. That it is demoralizing in its nature and effects, is evidenced by what are generally considered legitimate business methods, which, whatever may be said of their honesty, can hardly be viewed as altruistic. Truly, the picture we have outlined is a dark and forbidding one for the future of the race. No wonder that the narrow-visioned pessimist is loud in his anathemas against the present social order. No wonder that socialism, nor indeed that anarchism, is able to make some headway, even among highly civilized communities.

With such a prospect of ultimate racial extinction staring us in the face, what is the remedy? Is there anything that can be done?

Yes: in the course of our future evolution we are not altogether helpless, as might be supposed, for the development of the psyche has made of our conscious effort a most important factor in the process. It is, of course, impossible for us, as well as undesirable, to retreat upon the course of civilization. Psychic atavism, for that matter, is not open to us. But there are at least two remedies left us, one having reference to the struggle itself, and the other to the contestants in the struggle and their better condition. The former consists in a more complete altruistic condition of mankind than now exists, and the consequent lessening of the destructive competition which characterizes nearly every species of human activity in the most highly civilized countries to-day. Herein, it is probable, lies the chief hope for the race.

Is there any hope, we may ask, that such an altruistic condition of society may ever be brought about? For an answer we must turn to the history of social development and draw our conclusions therefrom.

It is admitted by nearly all untrammeled thinkers in sociology, that, while society originated before the man state was reached, and while it is common to other forms of animal life as well as to man (notably the hymenoptera), its origin in them, as well as in him, was based on selfishness, using the word in its broad sense and recognizing that there is a racial as well as an individual selfishness. As the economy of energy, otherwise called anabolism, was subserved by association, so the struggle for existence was thus aided; and the individual, by sacrificing his own preferences for the sake of his greater personal advantage, gained thereby. There was developed in this manner: first, a judgment as to what was best and not best; next, as to what was allowed and not allowed; this latter became at length what was right and what was wrong, thus evolving a moral sense, which in time developed into genuine altruism. This altruism has been steadily growing through the various acquired motives,

such as love of approval both of one's self and of others, although in opposition to the general principle of competition or modified struggle for existence. In other words, the artificial needs which have sprung up from association outweigh with the potent psyche the original need of simple, continued life. Again, this association of individuals, which primarily took place as a means of protection against external foes, in the development of the social economy for this purpose, evolved government, whose early form was necessarily military and autocratic. As the social growth, however, became more complex, and interests became more involved, law arose to regulate the relations of individual to individual, and later of nation to nation. As nations became more enlightened, and as they, like individuals, have learned to sacrifice immediate preferences for higher and more permanent mutual advantages, an international moral sense is being gradually developed, whose essence is peace.

So, also, as nations have become more civilized, and as their interests have become more interwoven, the governmental forces have shown a tendency to develop away from military models and toward those of business. Our recent reciprocity treaties with foreign countries are in point. But, to push our inquiry no further, it may be affirmed that sociological development at the present day is away from the antagonistic and toward the coöperative, and hence we may, through the evolving altruism, gradually substitute for the fierce competition of to-day a coöperation and conservation of energy in the future.

Meanwhile, however, we must have recourse to our other remedy, in order that, while this struggle continues, the vital forces be not wholly sacrificed, and that remedy consists in developing and strengthening the body by all intelligent means at our command, lest this katabolic civilization that we have described shall not culminate in racial extinction.

It is upon these grounds, therefore, above all others, that science bases its demand for a rational, systematic, thorough, effective physical culture.

To put the argument briefly: the present condition of civilized humanity is a state of nervous katabolism, caused by the predominant development of the psyche in the struggle for existence; and while the hope of the future may lie in a purer altruism, and a non-competitive condition of production and distribution, the hope of the present at least lies in the direction of bodily development, that each succeeding generation may be endowed with vital powers more equal to the strain that is put upon them.

From the foregoing discussion, which has aimed to give a comprehensive, though by no means an exhaustive, survey of the biological and sociological aspects of the question, the following important conclusions may at least be drawn:

(1) That the general outcry against the schools—namely, that they are pushing intellectual training too far for the good of society and the individual—is not without good foundation in fact.

Again (2), That the present extraordinary interest in physical culture, exhibited not only in the United States, but the world over, and the demand that it be made an essential part of the school curriculum, is fully warranted; that, so far from being an evanescent fad or fashion, it is an absolute necessity for the well-being not only of the present generation, but of generations to come.

President Harrison, in his address to this convention day before yesterday, voiced the common sentiment, when he inveighed against intellectual over-pressure in the schools. You remember his words, the story of the little Indianapolis girl who had the horrible dream of failing to pass an examination. From the standpoint of the argument which this paper has been able only feebly to present, this question of intellectual over-pressure is the most vital one for schoolmen everywhere to consider. Reform must begin here. There can be no effective physical training while mental training is allowed to run riot.

If the limits of this paper permitted, it would be interesting to show how the two cultures, the intellectual and physical, when carried on together and harmoniously, react each to the advantage of the other. In any examination of the methods pursued by the Greeks in attaining a high physical development, we are first struck by the fact, that the aim was primarily in the direction of the perfect balancing of the physical and mental powers, showing thus early a recognition of the principle, that the test of the strength of a chain is its weakest link; and in consequence of this recognition we find the Greeks very early allying physical training with mental training in their educational system—the two working together contemporaneously and for a common end.

But for a further study of this question I must beg to refer you to the history of the old Athenian education, when dual culture reached its highest achievements.

The conception that has prevailed among us for so many years, that education by the school should be confined to the intellect mainly, that the child himself must look after his body, and his parents look after his morals, is fast giving way to a better and more wholesome view; namely, that the school should seek to train the pupil for his environment, that it should carefully nurture all his powers, physical, moral, and intellectual.

Still, whatever may be our theoretical views upon this subject, it is not an easy task to adapt our practice to accord therewith, and as a result we witness, in the crowded and unsanitary schools of our cities, every condition of healthy physical growth violated with hardly a protest. Reform in the environment of pupils while in school is the first step in a scientific physical culture. It will be of comparatively little use to give the children in our schools a half hour per day of calisthenics or gymnastic drill if the balance of their time is to be spent in cramped attitudes and a vitiated atmosphere. But, before closing this discussion, permit me to speak

briefly of the nature of the physical training that is recommended, and the means and method to be employed in carrying it into effect.

Briefly stated, the elements of this culture are the following:

1. Hygienic reproduction;

2. Hygienic nutrition and care of the body, so that its powers may be conserved well beyond the period of transmission; and

3. Equable development of mind and body.

The first head it is not within the province of this paper to discuss. Indeed, it is doubtful if anything more can be done with the adult population of the present generation further than to disseminate among them correct hygienic information on this topic. The question, however, is fraught with great interest to the sociologist.

Under the second head, that of hygienic nutrition and correct use of the body, much can be done. Already instruction in physiology and hygiene is made a part of the course of study in most of our schools. So far as my own observation goes, too great attention is given to anatomy and physiology, and too little to the thorough indoctrination of children in the principles that underlie the maintenance of health. How to breathe; how to carry the body in walking, sitting, and standing; how to eat, to bathe, and to sleep; how to clothe and care for the body—all these things should be so thoroughly inculcated that no child may leave school at the age of twelve or thereafter who is not thoroughly versed therein.

It is true that knowledge and practice do not always go hand in hand, but much has certainly been accomplished when a groundwork of knowledge has been thoroughly laid. Great attention, too, ought to be paid to the rigid enforcement of correct physical habit within the school. First of all, absolute cleanliness should be insisted upon. To secure habits of correct sitting, standing, walking, and of breathing, should be made a conscious and persistent effort of every teacher. Rational physical culture begins here.

The chief value of any system of school gymnastics will consist in thoroughly fixing a habit of performing these functional processes in a normal manner.

Physical training, I repeat, must not be disassociated from hygienic living. The one is conscious and artificial; the other is unconscious, but far more effective.

One of the most deplorable results of the introduction of gymnastic training into the public schools of many places has been the tendency to make it a substitute for the old-time mid-session recess. No greater misfortune could befall our schools. The few moments of absolute relief from the tension of the class-room are oftentimes worth more than the most elaborately carried out gymnastic drill.

Under the third and last head, that of equable development of mind and

body, let me briefly state some of the principles on which a truly scientific training in schools should be based.

1. As to the character of the training, it should be thoroughly graded to meet all the demands of sex, age, and capacity for endurance: it should be highly varied and always interesting: it should have in view the three ends of education, recreation, and healthy growth.

2. Participation in physical training should be made compulsory for both sexes and for all grades. Exceptions, however, should always be made for cause.

3. To be effective, physical culture must be organized, supervised, and controlled as effectively as intellectual education. To this end every city, if not every school, should have its supervisor of physical training, a man or woman professionally trained for that particular service.

It would be well if such supervisor were a physician of good standing and large experience, one competent to diagnose accurately any pathological conditions apparent in the school as a whole or in individual pupils.

It would not be too much to demand that every child on entering school should be examined physically, as he is now examined mentally, and a record made of any facts requiring special care or treatment. It is not to be expected that the average teacher could do this, but a board of physical inspectors, who are competent therefor, should be employed. In several colleges, and in the normal schools of my own State, this physical examination of pupils is being made.

We lack at the present time sufficient data upon which to base our deductions as to the value of certain physical exercises in correcting abnormal nervous or muscular conditions. If a series of records were kept such as are outlined, for instance, by Dr. Francis Warner in his "Course of Lectures on the Growth and Means of Training the Mental Faculties," it would not be long before we should have a body of generalized truth that even the ordinary class-room teacher could make good use of.

4. As to systems of physical training. It would extend the limits of this paper beyond the time allotted to enter into a discussion of this subject. Suffice it to say that it is not so important at the present time what system is adopted, as that some system should be intelligently, systematically, and thoroughly carried out.

In concluding I would say that the outlook for physical education in this country could not be brighter. The interest in the subject is fast extending, and the time is not far off when the cultivation of the body will be considered as legitimate and necessary a work of the schools as the cultivation of the mind.

CLOSING EXERCISES.

ADDRESS BY RETIRING PRESIDENT COOK.

Members of the National Educational Association: We have come to the end of our thirty-second annual gathering, but, before I resign this gavel to my distinguished successor, permit me to say that this administration has had but one object in view since I became its president. It was our determination to make this a notable gathering of educational men and women from every part of our country. We have had delegates from every State and Territory in this great Union except three. Our friends have come to us in numbers from across the borders, and it has delighted our hearts to give them a cordial welcome. From the beginning to the end I have had the earnest and hearty coöperation of the National Commissioner of Education, of the leading educational men all over the country, of the citizens of Saratoga, of the press, and of the railroad men throughout the country. I have made no demand upon their time or ability that has not been honored.

The officers, directors, and State managers have universally been indefatigable in their efforts in behalf of this meeting. To those who have so heartily responded when called to the programme, or to do work in behalf of the Association, I return my sincere thanks.

And now I have great pleasure in resigning this emblem of authority into the hands of the gentleman whom you have unanimously elected as my successor; and I can only trust, sir, that you will have, in the work which shall devolve upon you, the same hearty coöperation which has been extended to me. I take great pleasure, ladies and gentlemen, in introducing to you Superintendent Albert G. Lane, of Chicago, to whom I now resign this emblem of authority.

ADDRESS BY PRESIDENT-ELECT LANE.

President-elect Lane received the gavel from the retiring president, Dr. Cook, and spoke as follows: I realize that for seven years, and for the years preceding the seven, men have been called to this position who have honored this place by earnest labors and by such efforts as have made this Association a great power for good throughout the whole land. I recognize the fact that boards of directors have been called from every State in the Union to aid the officers in bringing together the representa tives of education at some great central point, where the important questions that so concern this country have been discussed. I know that out from these deliberations have gone many inspired with new purposes and convinced of new truths, and they have put them into effective action

throughout the whole land, and that educational thought has been advanced in every quarter of the nation. The necessities of the Republic have been considered in the training of the children, and the thoughts that have been presented here have been repeated, and have become the watchwords for progressive teachers throughout the whole country. And, sir, in accepting this emblem of authority, I want to extend my congratulations to you for this successful meeting, and my thanks to the Association for this honor conferred. I feel unworthy of it, but I respond to your call; and in behalf of the city of Chicago, who has opened her doors and invited you to come there in 1893 to attend the sessions of the World's Educational Congresses, I want to extend again the welcome that the city of Chicago has given to all educational representatives throughout the world. We expect to entertain you, we expect to greet you, and we expect that that conference will give to the world formulated educational thought and systems that shall set in motion the influences that are going to elevate mankind, and that out of it all shall come that truth which God in the beginning gave us, and which we are searching out—that truth which shall set us free.

It becomes my duty at this time to close this session of the National Educational Association. I will call upon you all to join in singing the Doxology.

Miss Mary S. Howe, of Flushing, N. Y., led in the singing of the Doxology, after which President Lane declared the Thirty-second Convention of the National Educational Association adjourned.

REPORTS OF COMMITTEES.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS.

THE Committee on Resolutions have considered the various matters referred to them, together with the views expressed in the papers and discussions, and the sentiments which seem to prevail among the members of the various departments here represented, and they respectfully recommend the adoption of the following statement as the public declaration of the Association :

1. The National Educational Association notes with satisfaction the evidences of a growing appreciation in the public thought of the fundamental importance of the teacher's work. This interest has found expression, during the past year, in legislative enactment in several States; in munificent gifts and bequests to educational institutions, libraries, and other agencies for the advancement of science and learning; in a dispassionate and helpful discussion of educational topics in the magazines and public press, and in a more intelligent popular interest throughout the country in whatever pertains to the excellence and efficiency of the schools.

2. The year has been marked by a rapid development of what is popularly known as the "University and School Extension Movement." While deprecating any attempt to substitute the methods of this movement for the systematic work of the school, we recognize in it a potent agency for stimulating and guiding the self-improvement of those whose early educational advantages have been deficient. Especially do we commend it as a convenient and fruitful means of prolonging and supplementing the culture of school and college, and an added intellectual force in our social life.

3. This Association rejoices in the development of great universities, and the establishment of new agencies for higher intellectual training and the extension of knowledge during the year. It nevertheless recognizes the paramount importance of our free public school system. It desires the constant elevation and enrichment of the work of the teacher in these schools, and that the influences which are to mold the mind and character of the young should be intrusted to no unskillful or disloyal hands. It regards with deepest solicitude and indignation any attempt to submit the management of our public schools to personal or party ends, and it calls upon patriotic citizens everywhere to guard and defend this bulwark of a free people. Whatever other evils may be endured in State or

municipal government, this Association can never rest satisfied till the direction of our public schools is effectually removed from the debasing control of party politics.

4. In the selection of teachers, your committee have observed with pleasure a growing preference for those who have received professional training. Realizing the lasting injury inflicted upon multitudes of children by inexperienced and unskillful instructors, we would urge that all possible inducements be offered to successful teachers to remain in the calling and elevate it to the rank of a profession. To this end we urge, for cultivated and superior teachers, the fullest social recognition, just and remunerative compensation, and a permanent tenure of office during their period of efficient service.

5. The preparation and qualification of teachers is the most imperative problem now before the educational world. All friends of progress have reason to rejoice in the earnest and widespread attention which this subject is receiving. The sentiment of opposition to the employment of crude and incompetent teachers is intense and well-nigh universal. Intelligent communities everywhere demand that young teachers shall receive, before entering upon their work, broad culture, and, if possible, professional training. The number of those who have enjoyed collegiate training is rapidly increasing; the number who have been graduated from State or city normal schools is increasing still more rapidly. Many of the colleges and universities have established normal departments or chairs of pedagogy, that their graduates may enter more successfully upon the work of instruction. The number of city and village training classes is enormously increased.

We report these movements with great satisfaction, and suggest that, in all efforts of this kind, due emphasis be placed upon the opportunities afforded to the student for actual practice in the work of teaching. The mere discussion of pedagogic and psychological principles, however able, must fall short of the desired end, unless experience is also gained in their application under the guidance of a wise instructor.

6. The importance of condensing and coördinating the work of our graded school systems has been widely recognized of late, and in the judgment of this Association should receive further attention. Without cram or pressure, each year of a pupil's life should yield the largest possible progress and the most fruitful results. This Association commends the effort to enrich the course of study in the grammar school by incorporating into it oral instruction in elementary science, literature, and hygiene, by the elimination of work in arithmetic and grammar which is too difficult or too technical for pupils in the lower grades, and by so correlating the instruction in the different subjects that the work of the school shall blend into a vital unity.

Free-hand drawing should be made practical by daily use in connection

with the ordinary studies, and various other forms of manual and artistic training should be provided. The importance of physical education is fully recognized, and provision for such training is heartily recommended.

7. This Association renews its indorsement of the movement to add the kindergarten to the work of the schools. Not only is a year or more of valuable time thus gained for the processes of education, but the gentle influences of the kindergarten are most beneficent upon the development of the mind and character of the child. We are glad to note the spread of the kindergarten spirit into the instruction and discipline of the primary grades, and we believe that much of the improvement which the schools have made in recent years has been due to the increased helpfulness, good cheer, and kindly appreciation of the teacher.

8. We rejoice in the practical result of the conference of college presidents and principals of representative high schools and academies, regarding the requirements for admission to colleges and universities. The action of the National Association in this matter will come with pleasing surprise to the country, and the suggestions of the special conferences to be called during the coming year will certainly have great weight everywhere. The prospect of a speedy solution of this vexed question is a matter for most hearty congratulation.

9. This Association heartily recognizes the importance of moral training in the public schools. In all efforts to quicken the intellectual life of pupils, we should not lose sight of the fact that the ultimate aim is to elevate and invigorate character. Vice and pauperism are a greater menace to free institutions than even illiteracy. The corrupt are always bad citizens. While, therefore, we earnestly recommend the enactment and enforcement of laws for compelling the attendance of all children of school age upon some good school, we also urge that adequate efforts be made to teach them the great lessons of obedience, industry, justice, and integrity.

10. Your committee reports, with pleasure, that Arbor Day is now observed, in accordance with legislative act or annual public proclamation, in forty States and Territories. We recommend that its observance be universal, that village and district improvement associations be founded, that memorial trees be planted, and that all appropriate means be employed to inspire in pupils and parents the love of beauty, and a desire for home and landscape adornment.

11. This Association finds cause for rejoicing in the educational outlook at the South. Prejudice against the public school gives way to sound judgment, and the foundations of future prosperity and harmony are laid in a growing popular intelligence. The new South is convinced that all classes must be educated, and we rejoice in the fact that the black race has already blotted out forty per cent. of its illiteracy.

12. The American public school is distinctively the product of Amer-

ican soil. It is not a copy or outgrowth of any foreign system of education. It is adapted to American needs, and this Association cordially commends whatever will make this adaptation more complete. Any school, or system of schools, must be regarded as a failure in one great essential, if pupils are not loyally taught the great lessons of patriotism and good citizenship. Definite provision should be made for this work in our courses of study, and its faithful performance should be required of every teacher. We recommend that a committee of seven be appointed by the president of this Association, whose duty it shall be :

(1) To make a careful study of the various methods and plans adopted by educators, both in America and abroad, which have been successful in developing the patriotic spirit ; and

(2) To report a recommendation as to the best methods which educators may employ to bring about a progressive and uniform system of patriotic education in our public schools.

13. This Association reiterates its former recommendations and those of the department of superintendence, that the best possible exhibit of our educational progress be made at the great International Exposition at Chicago, in 1893, and it approves of the methods of representation proposed by the Director General and the Chief of the Department of Liberal Arts. It also commends to American educators the unprecedented opportunities for inspiration and enrichment which will be afforded by the World's Educational Congress during the Columbian Exposition, and it calls the attention of school officers and teachers throughout the country to the proposed participation of the schools in the celebration of the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America, and urges that they unite in the effort to make this National Columbian Public School Celebration universal, and worthy of the event which it commemorates.

Together with the foregoing statement, your committee offer for consideration the following special resolutions :

(1) That his Excellency Benjamin Harrison, President of the United States, is hereby tendered, by a rising vote, our hearty thanks for his admirable address, replete with wholesome and inspiring thought, clothed in rich diction, and that he may be assured that his words of wisdom will become vital forces in every school represented in this great convention.

(2) The Association has learned with peculiar pleasure that Dr. Adele Gleason, of Elmira, N. Y., has founded a teachers' home at Las Casitas, Cal., for the benefit of those who may need the rest and recuperation which it affords. In behalf of the teachers of the United States, this Association accepts this munificent gift and thanks the generous donor.

(3) This Association, having for the fourth time enjoyed the extraordinary hospitality and incomparable preparations provided by the citizens of Saratoga Springs, expresses its deep and grateful appreciation for these

bountiful evidences of thoughtful care. In particular, it desires to acknowledge the great obligations under which it has been placed by Supt. E. N. Jones, Chairman of the Local Executive Committee, for his patient and laborious attention to every detail of preparation. Thanks are also extended to the transportation companies and hotels for the courtesies so generously extended, to the Twenty-second Separate Company of the National Guard of the State of New York, to the Wheeler Post G. A. R., to the Remington Typewriter Company, and to the press for their valuable services.

(4) And, finally, the Association expresses to Dr. E. H. Cook, the President, to Supt. R. W. Stevenson, Secretary, and to Supt. J. M. Greenwood, Treasurer, its thanks for the laborious and efficient services which they have rendered in their respective offices.

JOHN E. BRADLEY.
B. G. NORTHROP.
JOHN S. CROMBIE.
W. H. BARTHOLOMEW.
N. C. DOUGHERTY.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON EXPENDITURE OF MONEY FOR PEDAGOGICAL RESEARCH.

To the Directors of the National Educational Association:

The committee appointed at Toronto, July 16, 1891, to consider and report as to how some portion of the annual income of the Association may best be employed to foster the work of pedagogical investigation and research, submit the following report:

The committee are not able at this time, in view of the great importance of the matter referred to them, to submit for adoption the details of a permanent plan. In order, however, that such a plan may be perfected and laid before the directors at some future time, the committee ask to be continued.

At the present time, the committee believe that the directors should promptly grant the request unanimously made by the National Council of Education, that the sum of $2,500, or so much thereof as may be necessary, be set aside for the purpose of carrying on certain specific investigations into the courses of study of the secondary schools of the country, and their relations to the higher and lower institutions; such investigations to be conducted by small bodies of specialists selected for the purpose by the representative committee of college and school men constituted by the Council on the 9th inst. The committee take this opportunity of expressing to the directors their conviction that the proposed investigations are of the utmost importance, and that their effect will be most beneficial on every grade of school work in the country. If these investigations are undertaken, it will be by the authority of the Association as well as of the Council, and the credit of the performance will be theirs. The committee earnestly commend the request of the Council to the favorable action of the directors.

Respectfully submitted.

JAMES H. BAKER.
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.
W. T. HARRIS.

PROCEEDINGS AND ADDRESSES

OF THE

KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.

SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y., July 13, 1892.

THE first session of the Kindergarten Department, N. E. A., at Saratoga, was held in the First Baptist Church, Wednesday, July 13, 1892, at 3 P.M.

The meeting was opened by an organ voluntary.

This was followed by the Address of the President, Mrs. Ada Mareau Hughes.

A telegram of greeting from Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, of California, was read. Owing to an unavoidable interruption, the first paper, which was to have been read by Mrs. E. L. Hailmann, was deferred.

The first paper of the afternoon, "Symbolic Education as Defined in the 'Mutter und Kose Lieder,'" was read by Miss Laura Fisher, of St. Louis, Mo.

This was followed by a paper read by Mrs. E. L. Hailmann, the subject of which was "Professional Training."

The last paper of the afternoon, "Artistic Simplicity of Child Work," was read by Miss Amalie Hofer, of Buffalo, N. Y.

The Association appointed the following Nominating Committee:

Miss McCullough, St. Louis, Mo.; Miss Van Wagenen, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Miss Lucy Wheelock, Boston, Mass.

It was decided to hold a round table talk on Thursday at 2 P.M., place to be designated upon that day. The President and ex-President were appointed to decide upon topics and appoint leaders of discussions.

Meeting adjourned until Friday, July 15, 3 P.M.

ROUND TABLE CONFERENCE.

THURSDAY, July 14, 2 P.M.—The round table talk was held in the parlors of the M. E. Church. The round table talk was a new departure, and looked forward to with much interest. The President presided. The

meeting was fully attended by enthusiastic workers. The subject under discussion was: Stories in the kindergarten—especially fairy and mythical stories—their place and effect upon the child mind. The discussion was opened by Mrs. Newcomb, of Hamilton, Ont., followed by M. Barnes, of California, Mrs. Hailmann, Miss Constance Mackenzie, Miss Wheelock, Mrs. Rickoff, Miss Pollock, W. E. Sheldon, Miss Pingree, and many others. The discussion was animated, and presented various views of the subject. The prevailing thought was that stories should be of such a character as to develop the poetic sense of the child by proper development of the imagination, and at the same time, to give information and an opportunity for the exercise of judgment. An appeal was made for the careful use of fairy stories and a study of their psychological effect. The entire discussion was characterized by a desire to know the truth on the basis of experience, the outcome of the study of child mind.

SECOND SESSION.—JULY 15.

The second session was held in the First Baptist Church, at 3 P.M.

The meeting was opened by an organ voluntary.

The following Committee on Resolutions was appointed by the Chair: Mr. N. C. Schaffer, Kutztown, Pa.; Mrs. Ruth Burrett, Pasadena, Cal.; Miss Mary S. Clark, St. Paul, Minn.

The first paper of the afternoon was read by Miss Constance Mackenzie, of Philadelphia. The subject was "Practical Psychology in the Kindergarten."

This was followed by a paper by Miss Emilie Poulsson, the subject of which was "Morning Talks, Songs, and Stories."

The last paper was "The Influence of Expression on Thought," by Miss Giddings.

The Nominating Committee submitted the following report:

For *President.*—Miss Susan E. Blow, St. Louis, Mo.

Vice-President.—Miss Constance Mackenzie, Philadelphia, Pa.

Secretary.—Miss Anna M. Stoval, San Francisco, Cal.

The report was received and adopted.

The Committee on Resolutions submitted the following:

Whereas, Another year in the development and spread of kindergarten has come to a close with the present meeting of the Kindergarten Department of the National Educational Association; and, *whereas*, new fields are opening up on all sides for the prosecution of our specific work; therefore, be it

Resolved, I., That we express our intense gratification at the many evidences of increasing success in our work, and of growing interest on the part of the public in our efforts to make children happy, and to secure for them growth and training in accordance with laws impressed by the Creator upon child life.

Resolved, II., That we call upon all teachers in public and private kindergartens to

unite in a grand effort for a full exhibit of work at the World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago, 1893.

Resolved, III., That we, as individuals, coöperate in every possible way with the Advisory Committee appointed by the National Educational Association, and with the League appointed for harmonizing the efforts of kindergartens, public and private, to show at Chicago what can be done for children by the methods of Froebel and his followers.

Resolved, IV., That we express our hope that the League shall become a permanent organization.

Resolved, V., That we tender our thanks to the local committee and citizens of Saratoga and the officers of the First Baptist Church for the complete arrangements made by them for this meeting of the Department.

Resolved, VI., That we extend our thanks to the retiring officers for the efficient discharge of their duties, and to all who read papers at the sessions of this year.

After remarks by W. E. Sheldon, of Boston, and Superintendent Wolfe, of Missouri, the report was adopted as a whole.

Adjourned.

ANNA E. FREDRICKSON, *Secretary.*

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON ORGANIZATION OF KINDERGARTEN WORK.

SARATOGA SPRINGS, July 15, 1892.

To the National Educational Association:

A committee was appointed by the Kindergarten Department of the National Educational Association to prepare plans for the organization of kindergarten interests in such manner as should extend that field of work more widely than the Department has as yet been able to do, and yet that should act in harmony with, and supplementary to, the Kindergarten Department of the National Educational Association.

This committee presented a report at the afternoon session of the Department held Friday, July 15, which led to the following result:

An organization was effected, called the *International Kindergarten Union,* with the following aims:

1. To gather and disseminate knowledge of the kindergarten movement throughout the world.
2. To bring into active coöperation all kindergarten interests.
3. To promote the establishment of kindergartens.
4. To elevate the standard of professional training of the kindergartner.

The following officers were elected:

President.—Mrs. Sarah Cooper, San Francisco, Cal.

1st Vice-President.—Miss Stewart, Philadelphia, Pa.

2d Vice-President.—Miss Pingree, Boston, Mass.

Recording Secretary.—Miss McCullough, St. Louis, Mo.

Corresponding Secretary.—Miss Haven, New York, N. Y.

Treasurer.—Miss Whitmore, Chicago, Ill.

It was decided there should be an Executive Committee of seventeen, of which the officers should form part, the remaining eleven to be appointed by the officers, representing as widely as possible the different kindergarten interests and localities;

That all persons or societies actively interested in promoting the kindergarten cause, whether public or private, should be eligible to membership in the Union;

That the question of annual dues, with various other matters pertaining to the organization, be left in the hands of the Executive Committee, to be determined later;

That the duties of the Executive Committee for the coming year shall principally be to arrange for a fitting representation of the kindergarten idea and work at the Columbian Exposition of 1893, and to coöperate with the various committees already formed for that purpose.

It was also decided that this committee be empowered to take such steps as would be necessary to place the matter of the organization properly before the public.

Respectfully submitted,

ANNIE LAWS, *Secretary pro tem.*

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

MRS. J. L. HUGHES, TORONTO, ONT.

THE kindergarten, as a new inspiration in educational methods, has found its stanchest supporters and bitter opposers everywhere. It has survived and overcome opposition, and strengthened its hold upon its friends, because it embodied a great universal principle which cannot be gainsaid or denied.

With the few faithless ones who still see in the kindergarten only the *play* school, where children can be kept happy and out of mischief (a luxury to the rich, and a boon to the sad childhood of poverty), we have only to be patient until the greater light of the true ideal shall illumine their darkness, and their instinctive sympathy become conscious insight.

But among those who have grasped the true spirit of Froebel's thought there is a diversity of expression in the attempts to realize it in actual effort which is almost bewildering to the faithful student, and to those who look on from without there seems to be a lack of harmony wholly inconsistent with the avowed creed of kindergarten faith.

Among kindergartners there is a movement toward an organized effort to unify thought and purpose, and to define a platform which shall be broad enough to include all true workers in one real fellowship.

It is a hard task to convince many that to deal with early childhood wisely and successfully requires more than the best intelligence of the best teacher. It is not the ability to teach especial subjects in an especially happy way, or natural love for children, that constitutes a good kindergartner. All that training and natural ability can give of teaching power is a boon to a kindergartner as to a teacher. But we must remember that the little ones, whose very life atmosphere we create for them in this early period, have not specialized their thoughts or interests, and therefore are not *naturally* interested in an especial line of facts. We have to stand by and watch for the signs of natural interest and be ready to respond to nature's signals, and through wise sympathy define the impressions gradually into conscious knowledge.

Kindergarten training does not consist of scientific study of things. It is *child nature, soul growth,* that we need to know more clearly if we would stand on the holy ground of unconscious childhood with reverent feet and hope to do good. We must study to know the genesis and process of growth of especial virtues. We must be able to discern signs

of thought awakening in instinctive activities, and be strong and ready to foster and stimulate the process of development.

In the consciousness of our need, in the face of such a sacred work, we shall have no room for unkind criticism of others' work and methods. Our attitude should be one of receptivity, holding present insight with sufficient tenacity to make us strong in our efforts to realize them in actual effort, but not with the assurance that *we* hold the single torch which is to give light to the whole world.

To discuss the educational methods of Froebel we must take his standpoint: That education is primarily *character building*, and that each child born into the world has within his unconscious soul the germs of his character in its completeness, and that as the seed waits for warmth and light, so the germs of his complete being await the influences of sympathy and insight to make them germinate and grow.

The being is divinely organized in God's thought and embodied in a human form, through and by which it is to reach the point of a conscious being, God's life within him, realizing itself through the self-activity of the life.

God sets the child going and sustains his activity. If external will attempts to *force* that sacred life, it can only mar the perfection of a divine creation, and dwarf its growth to the limit of finite measurement.

Froebel insists that education, to be natural, should be *passive* and *following*, never *arbitrary* or *compelling*.

This does not imply that there must be no control, but that control must be exercised through environment and by means of organized experiences, in which he may feel the recoil of his own acts, and so learn their nature by the impressions upon his own being.

Natural education implies a soul growing naturally through its own inherent power, made active by instinctive interest, not the filling of the mind with pleasantly put facts about inanimate nature.

If we accept any other basis for our work and methods, we soon find a limit to our enthusiasm, our work grows mechanical, and our sympathetic nature dulled. Without the thought that organized it, the material of the kindergarten is only lifeless matter.

Accepting this theory as the foundation truth of early education, we have, at the same time, a solution of our own lives in the manifoldness and diversity of our individual expression.

We see our need, as kindergartners, of discipline for ourselves in self-control, courage, and strength, and that only the patience which is born of insight and faith in the *all good* can keep us in the quietness of hope and continued effort. A knowledge of the practical work of the kindergarten alone cannot give sustained inspiration, however pleasing it may be to our intellectual insight and emotional nature.

The demand for a deeper insight into the real nature of Froebel's

philosophy of childhood and soul growth is a growing one, and voices the unspoken wish of many an earnest worker. In the satisfaction of this want, through a higher standard of training will come the unifying influence which shall make our gatherings of kindergartners—our congress of 1893—not a Babel of strange tongues which shall confuse and separate us, but a season like Pentecost of old, when we shall hear every one in his own tongue—the Parthians, Medes, Elamites, and the dwellers beyond the sea.

The spirit of truth universal shall enlighten and unite, making of our diversity of expression a harmony of complete thought.

SYMBOLIC EDUCATION AS ILLUSTRATED IN THE "MUTTER UND KOSE LIEDER."

MISS LAURA FISHER, ST. LOUIS, MO.

To approach the kindergarten from the standpoint of the "Mutter und Kose Lieder" is always a grateful task. It is like contemplating a character in the light of its ideal, looking at that which is best and noblest, and basking in the warmth and beauty which are revealed.

One may tire of the plea that Froebel's gifts and occupations are good because they lend themselves readily to the teaching of facts and the forming of habits which are essential to the education of the child; and one may well doubt the wisdom that insists upon the child's learning things because they are easily taught him. But it never wearies us to read and hear of the "wisdom that is hid in childish play"; of the truths foreshadowed to the child and revealed to us in the simplest songs and games of the nursery; of the ideals which, when presented, may stir in him, long before he is aware of their significance, a response which shall grow into an incentive and culminate in a realization.

Froebel's claim that we can dispose a child toward an ideal before he is conscious of it himself, is disputed by those alone who fail to recognize the fact that much of our education is an unconscious process; that we grow toward and away from things without being aware either of our growth or the things themselves.

This does not mean that we should remain in this stage of unconsciousness; certainly Froebel does not mean this, but he does claim that in the process of self-realization in which self-consciousness or a consciousness of our real self is involved, the first condition is one of ignorance and unconsciousness, and that to rise out of it the human being should be surrounded and helped by those who know better than himself where it is that he should go, and how he is to get there.

In order to appreciate the hints given in the "Mutter und Kose Lieder," we want to remember several things; above all, we want never to forget that Froebel intends what he says to be hints merely; that he implies rather than explains, and that a too literal and explicit statement of his meaning always fails to catch and convey it. It is more like a poetic statement than a philosophic explanation, and, like a figure of speech, often loses somewhat under the process of analysis.

But there are several large ideas which he touches upon again and again, figuring them, in varied forms, to the heart and mind of the child, insisting upon their importance in his words to the mother, and upon some of these I would like to linger with you to-day.

It has often been said that the "Mutter und Kose Lieder" deals too much with ideals, that in it we have the ideal child and the ideal mother, but that actual conditions and practical difficulties are not found there. What the *practical* educator wants is not to know what the child should do and be, but how to make a child do what he ought to do and be what he ought to be, when he himself doesn't care for either. Froebel does not ignore this important practical difficulty, but the only general practical answer must be that it is the teacher's task to excite interest and right activity in the child, and the infinite detail as to how this is to be done does not belong in the statement of general principles of education. The objection is met more largely by the answer that no system of education can treat the mind from the standpoint of what it should not be, but only on the basis of what, in its normal conditions and activities, it really is, just as physiology is written not from the standpoint of a diseased, but from that of a normal and healthy body. Knowing what the mind and body ought to be, what their normal conditions and activities really are, is the only guide toward detecting violations of these, and becomes the means of finding restoratives in cases of illness and disease.

Humanity's ideal is one; we all have the same aim, infinitely varied as our deviations from it are, and *how* to reach it is the problem of education. Naturally we ask, What is meant by an ideal? Where is it to be found?—and we find ourselves thinking of it as of something outside and foreign to the being itself. The first thing to remember is that man's ideal, the child's ideal, is not something outside of himself; that it does not lie in a different being of a different kind, but that it is the implication of his own nature, of the truth of which he is but a partial realization; the thing he should and must become; the condition for which his soul longs and strives, and in which alone he can be happy.

This ideal "marches ever before," alluring, coercing, constraining, haunting man when he disobeys its commands, inciting to new realizations of itself when he follows where it leads. Bound up within *himself* is this dual being of what he ought to be and what he is.

It seems as though it were something outside of us, partly because we

know that we have not realized it within ourselves, and partly because it is revealed to us through external agencies. Froebel holds this ideal before the child that he may see himself, as it were, in a glass, and that his heart may answer to the call which comes to him from this image. Is it different from the way in which man has always acted? Do we incite to heroism by stories of cowardice? Do not legend and history preserve tales of heroes and saints that all men may be thrilled into deeds equally brave and noble? It is the possibility within man rising to meet the realization of itself, and learning to know itself as it comes to each through the lives of others. With its power to stir into activity all that is good, it alone possesses the power to bring us to a consciousness of our defects, and so the same ideal which makes us recognize what we can and ought to be, shames us into a knowledge of what we are.

Froebel's first means for making the child what he should be is to show him such a picture of his ideal self as will fill his heart with a desire to be like it. This image of man's real self lies not in any individual, but is revealed to him through those "larger selves," as they have been called, the institutions in which are embodied, so far as he knows it, the common nature of humanity; by entering into relationship with these the individual puts off what is special and limited and takes on the nature and life which are larger and more universal. It is this institutional life which marks the difference between the savage and the civilized man, as it is the growth of institutions which marks the march of civilization. As it is especially through these institutions that man comes to a realization of himself, Froebel claims that their influence must not be left out of the child's life; they must help him to know and to be himself. Therefore they must be imaged in his play, and therefore, all unconscious of the fact, the child makes these symbols of the large world for himself in his play. In the "Mutter und Kose Lieder" many of the songs fall under the heads of the family and society; in a few of them are traced the ideas of the state and the church as well. There is not a single song in which Froebel does not hint to the child his relationship to his larger self, either in the form of what is commonly called a symbol, or in the more direct form of the abstract ideal as such. All those songs which fall under the general head of "nature songs" are designed to bring home to the child's experience some great truth, into the consciousness of which he shall eternally grow and the perfect realization of which can come only with his own perfection. Perhaps these songs better than any others illustrate what is known as the "symbolism" of the kindergarten, not because it lies exclusively there, but because it comes in a form in which symbolism is most familiar; but in every song is a symbolic representation of some idea. The great charm of the book as well as the key to Froebel's system lies in this feature of it.

Before entering upon illustrations by means of special songs, it may be

well to dwell a little upon the meaning and nature of the symbol in general. A symbol is generally some material object which stands for a spiritual fact; for instance, the ring is a symbol of eternity, the lion of courage, the lily of purity. These objects are symbols of the ideas mentioned because they possess in what we call a material form an attribute similar to the spiritual facts they stand for; that is, there is something in each of these objects which suggests the thing it is said to symbolize. They also possess many attributes besides this one, but in the *rôle* of symbol these all seem to vanish.

The next point to remember is that the symbol is neither the product nor the expression of analysis, that it manifests the recognition of resemblances *felt* but not *defined*, and the symbol and idea symbolized are seized together. The statement in words would be "man is a lion," "the child is a lily." It is the poetic view and the poetic form which finds analogies before it states them abstractly, and creates figures in which it expresses and conveys thoughts and feelings. The "why" has not yet been arrived at; indeed, it has not yet knocked at the door of the intellect to disturb the peace of the heart.

The simple symbol is the product of the unconscious mind, and is the result of the same activity which makes the child ride his stick and call it a horse, or carry it and call himself a soldier. When the question, "Why is the man a lion?" finds utterance, we pass beyond the mere symbol into a comparison, and hence a separation between the term and the idea it stands for.

We create by association and with consciousness what we call symbols, but of a different kind. Such are many of the symbols of the Church, and each of us in our individual lives can think of things or of places which stand to us for experiences with which they are identified.

According to Froebel there is but one explanation for all symbols.

To the most superficial way of thinking and observing nothing is farther removed from the world of spirit than the material objects about us. Indeed, the material and spiritual worlds seem so far apart, have been held so far apart, that they were looked upon as absolutely hostile to each other. Material things were considered utterly bad; a desire for their possession, a delight in them, was wicked; so that the logical inference from this point of view ought to have been, that while God created our souls, the creations of the material world, from the clay beneath our feet to the clay in which these God-created souls found their habitation, were alike the products of Satan.

Fortunately, man is saved from many "logical inferences," and to the same God was attributed the creation of the entire universe.

The only basis for symbolism lies in this view of the world: that every creature, from the lowest to the highest, flows from the same source; that the universe is a spiritual one, and every being bright with the radi-

ance of the divine; that while there are different orders or planes of beings, they differ only in the degree in which they possess and manifest this same divine life or power. The lower hints and realizes itself in the higher, the higher includes and reveals the nature of the lower. Hence the lowest thing, that is, the object most devoid of life and intelligence, may point to its fulfillment in the perfect soul, and could feel and find itself there if it had but this element of consciousness. Man's heart feels where his reason afterward sees this one life running through all things, and in the symbols he creates gives utterance to that fact. Therefore he can say that "all that is transitory as symbol is sent"; therefore he can "read sermons in stones," and find in the world of nature a revelation of his own soul; for he, too, is the product of this one life, in himself must be parallels to the various planes of being, and through them, from the least to the greatest, shall he come to know himself.

If the symbol is the product of the unconscious mind, it will find its home, as it does, where the race is still unconscious, and will be the means of reaching the mind when it is still unconscious. This fact leads Froebel to teach the child by means of the symbol, learning from the race as well as from the child that this was what he needed.

It is not possible to enter into much detail in a short paper, or to give all the ideas Froebel hints at in his songs. I can but attempt to touch upon songs representative of a class, hoping that you may get some idea of this phase of Froebel's method, and study for yourselves the book of which we are speaking. A favorite song with children and teachers is that of the "Fishes," one of the so-called nature songs. The mother sings to the child of the fishes in the brook:

> "See how in the shallow stream,
> The silvery little fishes gleam;
> See how they dart upon the ground,
> Chasing each other round and round."

As she sings she represents the fishes by means of her fingers, the only point of resemblance between her fingers and the fishes being the fact that both move freely, rapidly, variedly. That *one point* of resemblance is sufficient for the child, because to him a fish is not something with scales and fins and a tail, but something that *swims*, that moves, and is alive, and this representation of the object is as good as the object itself. For the young child it is even better, for he can learn to be the fish and produce its movement at will.

To Froebel comes the question, Why do children like birds and fishes? and promptly comes the answer, Not because of their outward form or color —no mere external appearance charms the child. It is their free movement that he likes. Both bird and fish seem to go along without impediment, impelled from within, checked by nothing from without, and yet

the child wants to catch the bird and fish, and once caught they lose their power to charm. Why? Is it the foolish notion that we weary of possession, that things hold us only because they are unattainable? Nothing so superficial is a sufficient answer to Froebel. It is true that in many cases "distance lends enchantment" and that we want most what we do not have, but to value things not for what they are but simply because they are not ours is not the mark of an earnest soul. The fish, when caught, loses its charm because it loses that which charmed—its free motion. Then comes one of those touches of Froebel's symbolism which reach the mother's heart at once, and are but the first of an infinite number of experiences necessary to the child. How can the child possess himself of the fish's motion? And the lesson comes—not by *external holding can it be won*—only by getting it within; only as the power which charms you in the fish becomes an inward force, and as you, in your way, can produce what you desire in it, do you get what you want. To the child, unknown, unrealized, the fish is the symbol of his freedom, of the ideal toward which man is growing and striving, and because it is a symbol of his ideal self it charms him, though he cannot know why. Freedom is what the soul craves, and where *it* dwells it finds itself at home; where *it* manifests itself, the soul delights to linger. The child can learn from the song not only that freedom must be won from within, but what the conditions of freedom to the fish are. "Out of the water, which is his home," the fish cannot swim; in other words, to be free, to be itself, the fish must be in its element, in the sphere where it was meant to be. Is there no lesson for us, for the child, in this? Where do we realize ourselves, and how? Only as we, too, live in the atmosphere which makes the soul's life, our life, possible. As the fish loves the clear water, the pure stream, so clearness and purity should be the elements in which your child dwells, says Froebel to the mother. Clear and pure shall be the atmosphere of his soul, clear and pure shall be the things he loves.

Next comes the question, "How do the fishes swim?" and the answer, "Crooked and straight," holds a twofold lesson for us: first, that crooked and straight are terms which, by transfer, are applied to spiritual as well as material things; second, that in the moral sphere it is the straight and not the crooked which is right and beautiful. From the symbolism of things the child can be led to the symbolism of words, and learn that this use of language arises out of experience, and becomes possible through the detection of parallelisms and analogies.

With these suggestions of what Froebel does with the song of the "Fishes," we must pass on to another class of songs, and consider some of the hints he gives us elsewhere.

I would recall the statement which Froebel makes, that through the larger selves of the family and society man comes to a knowledge and realization of himself; and that the child's life is not, and we must not

leave it, devoid of these influences and agencies. The child instinctively represents the life of all the world in his play; all that we can do is to help him to a growing realization of his relationship to and place in that world.

It is interesting to see how Froebel brings home to the child the idea of the family—the only institution with which the young child comes into contact, and the one in which his life finds itself.

We have seen how Froebel uses some of the facts of nature to foreshadow to the child the truths of the spirit. We want also to see how Froebel takes the suggestions of nature to help the child to a sense of his relationship. We learn from our own poet that

> "There was never mystery,
> But 'twas figured in the flowers;
> Never secret history,
> But birds tell it in their bowers."

In the song of the "Bird's Nest" we find one of the simplest and most charming illustrations of Froebel's use of symbolism. The song, as you know, runs as follows:

> "In the branches of a tree
> Is the bird her nest preparing,
> Laying in two little eggs,
> Coming out two little birds,
> Calling their mother, peep, peep, peep,
> Mother dear, peep,
> We love you dearly, peep, peep, peep."

The idea is simple enough, the building of a home, the raising of a bird-family—the return of love for love given. The parallel to be drawn by the child: I, too, have a mother, a home, protecting love—I, too, love in return.

Why does Froebel choose the bird's nest, and not the real home, in order to bring home these ideas to the child? Because between the bird's life and the child's there are many differences, with this one point of resemblance, and the differences emphasize and so make it possible for the child to detect the resemblance and become aware of the one thing Froebel wants him to realize: namely, his mother's care for him. Having learned this great fact from the little bird's nest, he has yet to know that he as well as his mother are alike members of a whole, parts of a family—and so Froebel represents the family in twofold form to the child by means of his fingers. There upon his hand are five individual parts, independent in a way and yet strangely united in one—guided by one power, moved by one will, helping, serving, gracing one another. Is it not like the home in which there are many individuals, united yet separate, each with his own life, yet all joined in a common life? And

then there is the extended family in which we have the double relationship: grandparents, parents, children; and the child learns to realize his relationship to his parents by seeing them in their relation to grandparents, and *vice versa.*

From this representation of the family circle on the fingers, Froebel passes to a further development of the idea of the family by means of a hint given him by a child. It is in the little song of the "Maiden and the Stars" that Froebel relates how a two-year-old babe called out, "Father, mother, stars!" as she looked at two bright lights in the sky. Froebel takes this as the starting-point of his song, and then adds the "Star Children" to the family group. When the child himself passes from the experience of an analogy, as in the previous songs, to the finding of a similar analogy, *he* is beginning to *make* the symbol which was at first *provided* for him; and the little girl who called out, "Father, mother, stars," must have had a sense of these relationships in her own life, to have imputed them to the stars in the sky.

The "Family Songs" naturally suggest the "Trade Songs"; that is, the songs in which the working-world is represented. They are the most numerous and the most familiar of the kindergarten songs. "Butcher, Baker, and Candle-stick-maker" receive due recognition, and the child represents with great delight the activities of each.

In the first of these songs Froebel makes what might be called a very interesting transition. It is the "Grass-Mowing," in which he describes the mowing of the grass, the milking of the cow, the preparing of the baby's supper, and the return of thanks to every one who labored for this result. The transition made to the "Trade Songs" here is a double one, through the chain of natural circumstances, and of the family life represented in the mother. It would seem that Froebel wanted to hint that the relationships of life are like circles within circles, and the larger must contain the smaller.

The ideas common to this class of songs, and hinted in each of them, are among the most important. The child does not come into direct contact with the working-world, and yet his life in large measure depends on it; therefore he must be made to feel its power and his obligation. And so he must learn in his play how varied are the activities of men, how infinite the dependence of each upon all, how impossible is one life without all life. The great truth of the brotherhood of humanity is illustrated by the material wants satisfied, the material benefits bestowed upon each of us by the work of others. The child should learn that man labors for man, and that in the least thing done men render mankind infinite service; that the spirit in which man labors makes his smallest deed the possible bearer of the divine spirit. An endless chain binds the least to the greatest, and the least has a share in the greatest in virtue of the service it renders to make the great possible.

It is an interesting feature of all the songs that nothing is presented to the child as a dead and finished fact, but that more than the thing itself is the process back of it. We understand physical as well as moral facts only as we know their histories. How did it come to be? is the important question, and the answer to which alone explains. This accounts for the importance attached to causes and motives. In every instance the process of making an object, the causes which lead to an event, are represented and traced in a simple way, readily grasped by the child, and soon he comes to feel the importance of and look for the process himself. The world thus from the first becomes a living, active power, and not a dead result, and the child's mind is prepared for the true view of things. Not the bread, but how the bread is made, is told of; not the milk, but the conditions which make it possible for the child to have it, are sung about. As the fact that each life depends upon all lives prepares the child for a realization of the unity of mankind, so this tracing of the history of things helps him to see the unity of all.

Will you bear with me if I take up, somewhat in detail, the "Song of the Carpenter"? The words may be familiar to you:

"Oh! see the carpenter!
All day he works away.
The high he maketh low,
The long is shorter now;
The crooked soon comes straight,
The curved he maketh flat;
All smooth he makes the rough.
Is that not skill enough?"

If we just ponder these childish words for a moment we will see at once that Froebel begins the story of the carpenter by showing him at work; each bit of the material with which he works is undergoing a *process of transformation,* and *he* is the transformer. The raw materials provided by nature—the trees which had to be cut down—have to be changed before he can construct what he wants to make. Thus he hints the truth of everything: wherever anything is put to higher uses it must cast off the old form and take on a new; under man's creative, active nature it serves a higher purpose and lends itself to the embodiment of his ideas.

The song continues:

"Now all must he combine,
All parts together join.
Just see what now he shows:
From timber a house soon grows."

That is, elements by themselves are useless; only when the whole for which these parts were designed, and in which they find their justification, is realized, is the carpenter's skill complete.

Then it continues:

> "A house for my good child,
> Where dwell his parents mild,
> Who night and day attend him,
> And from all harm defend him."

The house built by the carpenter, who is one in the great world of workers, is built for the protection of the family, which, so to speak, rests within the protecting arms of civil society.

And, finally:

> "The carpenter must love the child,
> The good, protecting house to build."

Love, as he tells us in the motto at the head of the song, is at the source of all labor rightly done. Service should be the expression of love, and find its explanation there. If men stood in the right relationship to each other, all labor would be the expression of love, for all men would labor for the good of mankind.

"The Bridge," the last song I can touch upon to-day, is generally accepted by students of the "Mutter und Kose Lieder" as the symbol of the well-known and much-abused kindergarten principles of the mediation of opposites. "The Carpenter" leads naturally to it, and in that hint of the process of transformation has always seemed to me to prepare for it.

To state it crudely, by the mediation of opposites Froebel means any process in which there is transition or union. There are merely mechanical and chemical processes, and there are processes of the development of life, and processes of spiritual activity and growth. When we see the world as the product of an active intelligence, we see it truly; and as we grow into the comprehension of this active Reason, we see that all minor processes are faint echoes of the fundamental creative activity. In the bridge—a material thing which unites other things that are separated, and so makes them into one—we have a symbol of the union of opposites. In the commentary Froebel speaks of the family as a great mediator. It unites many individualities; its ruling spirit is love, which makes the strong give themselves to the weak, that they, in turn, may grow strong. Finally, he reminds us that in the giving of himself to the service of man, the carpenter's Son mediated the human and the divine. But within ourselves as well does this process of mediation go on. Each of us must grow out of his ignorance and weakness and slavery, into intelligence, strength, and freedom, and must so broaden his narrow individualities that he will include all life and be stamped with the image of the whole. In this process of becoming a whole where he is only a part, man becomes the

opposite of what he was. He is unconscious, and takes on consciousness. He is weak, and becomes strong; enslaved by ignorance and sin, but grows into intelligence and holiness; exclusive and selfish, and enters into combination with all men for the good of mankind.

It is the growth from the natural to the spiritual—growth out of the brute-nature into the image and realization of the divine.

I am well aware that all that I have said to you is but a superficial touch upon a great theme; that there are many songs and many thoughts which I ought to have named, and yet which I find it impossible to consider now. The benefit we derive from the "Mutter und Kose Lieder" grows with the earnest study and thought we give to it. It was written not merely to help the child, but for the mother, and for those who supplement the mother's work, and into their hands Froebel places the means whereby the child may take those first steps toward that self-realization which is his aim. We no longer hear the questions, "Does the mother need to be trained for her sacred office?" and, "Is not the instinct which comes with motherhood sufficient for the task?" These are out of date since the world has begun to see what motherhood really signifies, and how great the work and profound the duties of the mother are. A growing reverence for the supreme privileges of womanhood, and a deeper sense of the magnitude of her special sphere, will make every woman feel the need of being trained for her work in the home and the family, and will divert her from that craving for work in every sphere but her own, which is as unnatural as it is unhealthy. She will see that in the main her place is at the heart of things, at the center of life; that her best influence upon the world at large is an indirect one; that she can create reforms by training the young reformer, and when she comes to realize that in all this she is shaping the life of the world, she will fit herself for her task by learning to understand the needs and possibilities of human nature. It has often seemed to me that the "Mutter und Kose Lieder" was not only a call to the mother to rise out of the limits of her ignorance and instinct into the large light and freedom of intelligence, but Froebel almost foresaw that the narrow restrictions of home life were dangerous and would be rebelled against; that with a sense of possible power, women would insist upon its exercise; that they would seek avenues of work and influence outside of their truest province, because these alone seemed to make possible the activities their minds craved; that so humanity would lose what women alone can give it, a proper home for the fostering of its childhood, and its life be robbed of its foundations. The "Mutter und Kose Lieder" may become a call to a higher womanhood, by showing mothers and those who have the education of young children and young women in charge how necessary a large intelligence, and a large sympathy with all the world contains, are to a proper life in the home; that all the learning and training, all the accomplish-

ments and all the power in the world, are none too great to be expended and to find a fitting place there.

The true home should be a miniature world. It must contain the life of the great world within its own ; it must know and care for all that is going on outside, and must re-live it in thought and feeling. The mother must be the creator of the bond between these two worlds, the small world in which she lives with her child and the large world into which the father goes forth.

This does not imply that Froebel would immure woman within the four walls of her house, and keep her from direct contact with or interest in the great world with its varied life. It is this old condition of ignorance and narrowness which he wants to break down ; but it does imply, I think, that outside activities must be secondary, that they must be held subordinate to and esteemed of less value than the primary duties which seem so insignificant and are so great.

According to him the family is the great institution, and upon it the social and national fabric rests; where the sacredness of the family is ignored, there neither virtue nor freedom can find a home, and both mercy and justice are aliens.

This institution woman guards ; its life is shaped by her, and through it she influences the life beyond. She needs to know it to meet its requirements, but she shall not give herself in largest measure to it.

There seems to have been a time in the history of the Church when the wise and good thought it wisest and best to withdraw from the world, to separate themselves from the race of which they were the best part, and to leave the shaping and the perpetuating of its life to those least fitted for it, and who would shape and perpetuate what ought to have found a speedy end. It is true that "time's revenges" brought a partial reaction, and the wicked world was looked upon as a promising field for cultivation. It was so bad that these good people found it proper to struggle with its wickedness and exercise their virtues upon it, and so they came back from their retreats into the world they had cast off. It was only a partial compromise ; they were still a class apart, and in life and garb manifested this fact. Not until men recognized that the world is essentially good ; not until they again felt that the true human life is in essence divine and the world a heaven in which God might find a fit dwelling-place ; not until they saw that man's highest place is among men, and the best none too good for man ; not until this was achieved, did the Church find its true place and work in the world. Is it necessary to draw the parallel ?

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

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PROFESSIONAL training signifies fitness to be regarded as an authority upon a given subject.

Fitness to be an authority on the art of child culture implies self-culture, scholarship, understanding of child nature, and a love of humanity.

In fixing a standard of excellence, we cannot place our ideal too high. Perfection should be our motto. Let every kindergartner, every teacher, and every mother, aim at perfection, and the little children will have an approximate model to imitate.

That absolute perfection is not attainable, does not enter here, nor does it lessen our obligation to strive in the direction of its attainment.

Effort for the sake of others strengthens the nobler faculties and subdues self. This is the mission of woman: to live for others. That she may live for others most effectively, it is essential that her whole being should reach fullest strength and efficiency. For this purpose a thorough culture of her whole nature is necessary.

In the following paper I shall endeavor to describe conditions and to arrange a course of study with this end in view. The plan seems to me perfectly feasible wherever sufficient funds are available. When Americans want a thing they usually get it, at whatever cost.

The question is frequently asked: "What is it to be a perfect kindergartner?" A description of a perfect kindergartner is a description of a perfect woman. A perfect woman is one who is well born and fully developed. We cannot completely reconstruct badly born individuals, but a judicious method of culture, arranged with due reference to making the young women students healthy, vigorous, efficient, scientific, philosophic, artistic, and beautiful, would, in two or three generations, evolutionize humanity. This, and no lower an aim, should characterize the professional training school for women.

The following is an attempt to picture such an institution: Location—*near*, but not *in*, some large city. Grounds—extensive, and artistically laid out. Residence and school buildings—sufficiently large to accommodate one hundred or fewer students.

Inasmuch as the house we live in has a great influence upon the character, permit me to say a few words concerning the school home which is to be the residence of the young ladies for a period of three years, with the exception of vacations and holidays.

Extremes—in the direction of either luxury or simplicity—have a dele-

terious effect upon the inmates. Therefore the school home is a model of complete comfort, beauty, order, and refinement, conducive to the greatest and best possible all-sided activity on the part of the students and the instructors.

Each department of this school home should be a model for subsequent imitation in their own homes.

Not only should the food be wholesome and sufficient, but all the appointments of the dining-hall—the service, the linen, the conduct of the meals, the decorations, indeed every detail—should be so planned as that not only the physical needs are supplied, but also the spiritual, the intellectual, and higher endowments of the mind are nourished. The pictures on the walls should not, as is so frequently the case, represent dead beast, fish, and fowl, nor portray the suffering of a little fawn or rabbit being chased by cruel hunters and ferocious hounds, nor scenes of excessive sensuous indulgences of any kind: on the contrary, beautiful fruit and flower pieces, a wheat field, a harvest scene, gathering fruits, a vintage, children picking berries or feeding pet animals, a wedding party, "The Last Supper," and so on. Such pictures have a tendency to uplift the mind into cheerful, healthy thinking and feeling, which is essential to perfect digestion.

The parlor, where the teachers and students assemble mornings and evenings for free social interchange of thoughts and opinions in a free and informal manner, should contain worthy specimens of fine art, paintings, engravings, etchings, and models of the choicest of every age and nation, books, musical instruments, plants, and objects of interest. Beautiful surroundings will enrich and stimulate their minds. A thing of beauty is a joy forever. A joy forever is well worth an effort to win.

The dormitory of the school home is on the second floor. Each room is well ventilated, well heated, and well lighted. The most approved modern bathing facilities are provided, and of easy access to each room.

I am induced to mention the details of this department because the health and happiness, and, consequently, the character and amount of the work done by the students, depends upon the health and vigor of the body.

Education no longer means learning *only*. Being educated is a life process of assimilation of impressions and influences, like attracting like. A well-educated person is one whose innate possibilities have been fully developed, and inasmuch as the surroundings influence to a great extent the state of mind, its moods, tendency, and scope, I deem it an essential that an atmosphere of culture, beauty, and refinement should be established in all schools dedicated to the professional training of young people. The school home should be a worthy habitation of high-minded teachers and aspiring youth—a concrete expression of an inner soul reality.

The school and the school home are one. It is true, each has its special

function, but the one is no less important than the other. Each depends upon the other, and both, conjointly, have the welfare of each member of the school in view.

Facing the school home stands the academy building, inclosing three sides of a quadrangular court. This building is the embodiment of strength, grace, and comfort. A covered avenue leads from the school home to the main entrance. Over the door, carved in stone, is the motto of the school. This is a circle circumscribing an equilateral triangle. On each of the three sides of the triangle are the words : *Head, Heart, Hand.* In the center of the triangle is the word "Life." Interpreted, it means : Given suitable and consistent conditions, a course of study that will strengthen the reasoning faculties, warm and inspire the sympathies, make dexterous and artful the hand, will conduce greatly to the establishment of a full life. Education should therefore aim to cultivate the head, heart, and hand for life.

The academy contains, on the first floor, reception room, private parlor, calisthenic and a number of other occupation and class rooms, also a concert and lecture hall. On the second floor are the music and art rooms, also a concert and lecture hall. The laboratory is separate from the main building.

The teachers in charge are a supervisor and several specialists. Each specialist is master of the subject, not only in its entirety but also in its organic connections. The supervisor is a lady of the best type of womanhood ; mature, yet youthful and sympathetic ; scholarly, yet not pedantic ; general-minded, yet not scatter-brained ; in a word, a cultured, versatile woman of broad and deep experience, one who loves God and all of his revelations ; a lady free from prejudices, one who is faithful to her convictions of duty and is able to adapt her religion to the practical duties of daily life. She is the shining light in which they may see reflected their own future, not in a superficial aping of attractive externalities and agreeable mannerisms, but in endeavoring to follow the same rule of duty in the direction of high ideals that developed her. It is the mission of age to be an example and a guide to youth. The chief object of this professional school is to produce model specimens of womanhood—not mere kindergartners, but all-around, wide-awake, superior women. Such women will be good kindergartners, good teachers, good mothers, good sisters, good friends, and good citizens.

The subjoined course of study is believed to be well adapted to the purpose. To any one who is inclined to think there is too much variety in the subjects of instruction, I would say that in university courses, as a rule, there is greater diversity, while at the same time the subjects lack combination and adaptability to all-sided life purpose. The aim is rather to get learning for the sake of learning, than to use knowledge as a means of power and usefulness in the service of love and progress. We

do not approve the one less, but the other more, at least for women, with whom the art of human culture is the natural vocation.

This cannot be otherwise, for in the very nature of her being, as mother of the race, her own completeness will touch at every point the outreachings of humanity. Proofs are abundant to show this. The increase in the number of lady superintendents and lady principals, the noteworthy achievements in the direction of moral and social reforms brought about by them directly or indirectly, the many successes won by them in the higher institutions of learning, are unerring signs of future power and efficiency in all lines of productive skill where Religion, Philanthropy, and Philosophy predominate.

The course is intended to extend over an average period of three years. The relative extent and importance of each subject of instruction will necessarily depend upon its bearing on the central purpose of the school. Thus, subjects which, like anatomy and physiology, are intended mainly to furnish necessary data, will cease to be considered when this purpose has been fulfilled. On the other hand, subjects which, like psychology, are intended to develop skill in securing data, and others which, like music and drawing, require constant practice in order to establish proficiency, should continue in the curriculum throughout the entire course. With these limitations and explanations, the following subjects should be considered framing the course of study :

Historical and sociological studies, biology, physiology, anatomy, hygiene, psychology, mathematical drawing and constructive geometry, botany and horticulture, logic, ethics and the religions of the world, music, sketching, painting and modeling, history of education, science and art of teaching, with special attention to the Pestalozzi-Froebel theory and work.

To this should be added instruction in domestic economy, which would include principles in hygienic cooking, dress and care of children, the care of the sick, and the significance of home-making.

With women, to know is to act. They are direct. They comprehend readily the needs of children, but, from lack of the necessary knowledge and professional skill, their work is frequently fragmentary and crude.

The function of the professional training school is to supply this deficiency and to afford to its students opportunities not only for acquiring needed knowledge, but needed skill as well. To secure the latter on a firm foundation is the chief purpose of the model kindergarten and primary school connected with the institution. This school is in no sense a practice school, but a school of observation. True practice presupposes a theory, and theory rests upon experience, which is to be gained in this case primarily by observation. To use experiment for this purpose is forbidden by the sensitiveness and fragility of early childhood. Knowledge and skill for the treatment of dead plastic material may be gained profit-

ably by experiment, for it matters little how much of the material is spoiled in the process; but with children this is different, it is important that not one of them should be injured through ignorance and lack of skill, if this can be prevented.

For this reason, the model kindergarten and primary school serve primarily the purpose of observation on the student's part. Hence superior teachers, who in their work represent the best ideals of the training school, adjust the surroundings and guide the development of the little children.

At first the students are chiefly interested on-lookers, not many at a time, for fear that the children might realize to a damaging extent the fact that they are objects of study, but a limited number, and each one having some suitable place in the economy of the school, assisting in the reception and dismissal of the children, in the distribution of the material, in needed aid to particular children, or forming, ostensibly, a part of the little class, following, with the children, the dictations of the leading teacher, and taking part in the songs and games. Thus they live themselves into the spirit of the place, familiarize themselves with the peculiarities of the little children, learn to love them, and take a true personal interest in them. The children, too, learn to look upon them as beloved helpers and school-mates, and truly live with them, as they live with the children.

No notes are taken during these periods with the children. Whatever needs to be fixed in this fashion must wait until the children are out of the way, for fear that they might begin to suspect a hidden purpose in the visits of these older people, and look upon them as interlopers.

As time rolls on, and the children become more and more familiar with these sympathetic, helpful visitors, and learn to look upon them as organic elements of their school, larger numbers of students may be admitted at one time, and frequently the entire school—students, teachers, and children—may be united in some common social enjoyment—out-door game, festival, or school celebration—in which each plays an important part. Only in this way can the student learn to appreciate sufficiently the meaning of Froebel's motto: "Come, let us live with our children."

In addition to this, the model teachers, from time to time, if need be under the direction of the principal of the school, gather the student teachers in convenient sections, and discuss with them the observed work of the model school, helping them to see the hidden purposes of the work in its varying details, teaching them to find the organic connection among apparently disconnected exercises, and affording them guidance for practice in the deliberate planning of programmes of work adapted to the children who are the objects of the common earnest solicitude of the entire school, showing everywhere the faithful following of principle in every detail of the practice.

The ordinary practice school connected with normal school, and the apprentice method followed, under the stress of necessity, by a number of philanthropic organizations that use kindergarten work in carrying out the objects of their charitable ardor, have none of these advantages. The practice school, indeed, in its very constitution, defeats the purpose for which it was organized. Here the student is to learn the art of giving herself, with her whole being, to the development of the children; to make their growth her single interest; to subordinate her every purpose to the purpose of the school; to criticise her every thought and word and action, with reference to the help they may give to the children in her charge. Yet what does she do in reality? The eyes of the critic teacher are upon her, and in the hands of the critic teacher lie professional approval and disapproval. The critic teacher is reinforced by an eager crowd of fellow-students, who, in their criticisms, are actuated by motives even more trying than those of the critic teacher.

Before her is the living material upon which she is to experiment. But her whole being is not with them, it is with herself. To her the failure or success of these children has value only in so far as it is related to her own personal failure or success; that she should grow in the estimation of her comrades is her single, or, at least, her chief interest. The purpose of the school is wholly subordinate to her own purpose of self-development. She criticises her thoughts, words, and actions with reference to the gain it may bring to her children only in so far as this gain may reflect credit upon her. That is, her fundamental attitude toward her work is prevented.

Is it to be wondered at, if, under such circumstances, the normal schools succeed in making fair instructors, but exert little influence on the development of that missionary spirit that characterizes truly educational work?

The apprentice method of charitable organizations is open to similar objections. However, there are so many things in the make-up of these organizations to mitigate the perversions just mentioned, that my heart almost fails to say one word against it.

It is only from a sense of duty that I do so. In the first place, the charitable organizations exist for the children; to help them is their first object, and their apprentice schools occupy a secondary place, being simply a device, which, for the time, renders possible the establishment of kindergartens needed to carry out the objects of the organization. This fact impresses itself upon the mind of the new apprentice, even on the first day. She feels, indeed, her ignorance and helplessness, but her work is not done in the presence of unloving, and sometimes even hostile, criticism. She is, at least, alone with her group of children, and her heart in its sympathy reaches the child. To her, subsequent instruction comes as a relief in her anxiety for her children, and is turned to account

by her, with the immediate purpose of helping the children rather than to help herself. Nevertheless, before she attains tolerable efficiency, many a day may pass, and much that the children might have gained from a teacher prepared for full practice by thorough instruction and by a good school of observation is irretrievably lost to them; and much perversion that has come to them, inadvertently, might have been avoided.

Of the plan of a model school for observation proposed in this paper, the primary classes constitute an essential part. The student should be enabled to see not only the immediate proximate results of her work, but should follow it in its remoter influences upon the subsequent development of the child. Were it possible, I should follow up this careful course of preparation, after graduation, with actual practice under the supervision of the institution. Should the city near which this school is situated not afford sufficient opportunities for the employment of these graduates, a number of neighboring cities or districts might unite for this purpose.

For at least one year, under the ordinary conditions of actual kindergarten or school work with the ordinary responsibilities, emoluments, and duties of kindergartner or teacher, and under the immediate supervision of the training school, each graduate should teach. This would insure the valuable circumstance of making experience, theory, and practice of one mold; it would enable the graduate, in whatever first doubts may come to her, still to appeal directly to the Alma Mater, to whom she is tied by bonds of mutual love. It would enable the training-school, on the one hand, to prevent incipient errors; and, on the other hand, to encourage valuable new departures, happy applications, striking success.

In bringing this subject to you for consideration, I have confined myself to the presentation of an ideal scheme. In the light of this, to the extent to which this scheme may be accepted by each one as a worthy ideal, can each one test existing training schools, and seek to bring them nearer to desirable thoroughness and efficiency.

To all of us, whatever may be our ideal, there will come the hindrances of environment. To these, in a certain measure, we are compelled to yield. If, however, in thus yielding, we do not transfer our love to that which expediency forces upon us, but still continue to hold fast to our ideal, it is well with us.

As time rolls and our ideals become realities, we may test the value of such professional training schools as I have tried to describe. By their products and by their fruits shall ye know them.

THE ARTISTIC SIMPLICITY OF CHILD WORK.

BY AMALIE HOFER, BUFFALO, N. Y.

It is not a great distance in the past since a certain faction of educators candidly said of a certain other faction : "You kindergartners are supreme sentimentalists; nay, worse, you are blind enthusiasts, who cannot be made to see more than one decimal side of a subject; you spin fine theories *ad libitum*, until you get yourselves tangled all out of sense."

Such is scarcely our epitome to-day. Can it be that our fine theories have tangled our critics out of an old into a new sense of education ? By dint of sincere and vigilant adhesion to a principle, we have proven our theories to be something more than fancy, and the daguerreotype of the kindergarten sentimentalists is fast fading out of fact.

To him who still prides himself on being the "good, old-fashioned kind of a school-master," our present subject may still have a sentimental tinge. On ears attuned to the music of dead languages, it sounds, no doubt, like a tinkling cymbal; but to us, as professional kindergartners, there is no question more vital or practical to-day than this of our children's work in its simplicity and truth.

Every now and again the followers of Froebel are seen to wander far away from their master's straight and narrow path, in the vain ambition to seek out a newer or more modern short-line to the desired destination of natural development. They have as often found themselves lost in the mazes of materialism and heterodoxy. It is at such times that the instinctive rightness of the child is lost sight of, and for it are substituted the uncertain manipulations of so-called latent and accidental faculties. Froebel declares that the child is a spiritual fact possessed of spiritual faculties—identity—pure and simple, which, if it were not so, no human skill or brainy wisdom could develop. We of this congress are, by virtue of our calling, pledged to this statement, not as a silken phrase, but as an absolute fact. This is the cardinal principle of the Froebelian doctrine. Abiding by it, in order to demonstrate it, is what makes of the kindergarten a science.

Now, the question arises, how are we to attain to its practice ? How are we to bring the child to more certainly possess his acceded inheritance ? How may we open his eyes to see the truths about him, and how may he be brought to assert his artistic nature ? How is childish effort to show forth the result of his own childish thought, rather than merely to imitate maturer production ? We discourse full much about the artistic opportunities and tendencies of the kindergarten, but how are we to define these tendencies accurately enough to further their fulfillment ? We talk

much about the child's innate sense of the right and the beautiful and the natural, at the same time administering a sad mixture of our own half-distilled notions, in order to stimulate, as is said, these higher faculties. However far we have fallen short of our own duty, we are still in the right way, and the educational world is to-day waiting on us, looking eagerly in our direction, and crying "Give us of your manna." It awaits and has the right to expect great things of us.

We are compelled to acknowledge varying motives in our work as kindergartners, and we must confess to each other that there are few of us who have found the way out of the wilderness. Can it be that we do not fully comprehend the *principle* of our work, the *one* motive above noted? Here is one who is an honest questioner, searching everywhere for a better, higher method; another experiments with her children, testing this or the other professional venture; another, in the hope of being reputed clever, attempts novel, almost fantastic measures, or to display her own versatility leads the children a veritable pipers' dance. A mass and confusion of materials is sometimes found loading down and covering over certain deficiencies on the part of the kindergartner, who, if she have, on the other hand, a clear-cut motive, will go straight to her goal by the simplest route and the fewest possible distractions. A great variety of materials, however attractive or fascinating, can never be honestly substituted for a decided purpose or conscious understanding of the science of kindergartning.

I have read the choicely worded circular of a certain seaside kindergarten art school, which pledges to introduce to its baby patrons, by way of novelty, many of the quaint and charming manual occupations of the Japanese kindergarten. Such overtures are not rarely misinterpreted as a mark of individuality; which tendency, if encouraged, would, by the force of its own logic, prove the clown the most strongly individualized character in the human procession. "It is more important that the kindergarten should be kept *pure* than that it should become *popular*. Its deep simplicity should always be maintained." Occasionally a teacher, a kindergartner, is found, who yields to the mortal temptation of exercising the preponderance of her own mental power over her children, charming them with the weight of her personal wisdom, until they cower like the helpless hare before the boa, instead of overshadowing their every effort with that maternal appreciation which is the true teacher's strongest power. We need not more methods, not newer fancies for sugar-coating old truths to make them palatable to abnormal children; we need not more facts of unnatural science at the frontal of baby brains; but we do need more ideals, more conscious conviction and principle before and behind and within every effort of the profession.

Not long since, the children of one of the mission kindergartens of a large eastern city were taken to the country beach and left to their own

devices. They gathered pebbles, plucked the flowers, and were full of a gladsome exuberance. They ran wildly up and down the broad beach, and drank in the free air, but scarcely one looked beyond the stretch of sand at his feet. Is there no analogy here for us? Are we not, perhaps, in the first fresh freedom of our beauteous work, keeping our eyes too near the shore?

The cultivation of the art instinct, even when rooted in the play impulse, must seek more than mere amusement. It must inform the child's intelligence, must enlarge the horizon of his thought, must humanize his feelings; it must open the altruistic door of his nature, and supply him with insight whereby he can read the progressive truth and incarnate beauty which constitute *art*, whether expressed in buildings, fabrics, implements, or ornaments. The kindergarten materials in themselves will not create the art instinct, since they possess no innate charm. They, too, are dead tools, which can only become means to noble ends when directed by noble hands to express beautiful thoughts. The same law of harmonious counterparts of form can be illustrated to the child as well by means of hillside twigs as by the machine-made staves. The *principle* of art and of nature is *one*, and we must seek to teach of it rather than any machinations or sleight-of-hand performances of material skill. Kaleidoscope arrangement of geometric bits is no more color and form art than is the Punch and Judy dramatic art. Nor can we produce artistic results by confining our children to so-called schools of work, however well they may teach unity or continuity or symmetry. These must all be subject to the motive power of the child's own heart and soul. The true message of beauty and divinity must not be lost in either intellectual or manual manipulation; feeling must predominate and infuse all work with life and beauty.

The child, in his turn, has individualized motives back of every effort, and the true teacher has learned before this that his affections and loves are the sunshine to his intellectual as well as to his artistic growth. To make a picture for uncle at once enhances the possibilities of every line, for uncle can read between the lines; he loves the little artist, and never criticises or mistakes the motive.

Artistic quality is no passive abstraction, nor is it ever the thing itself, but it is that touch of life and nature which makes the thing real. The children of the kindergarten were busy one Christmas season modeling little sheep, each child fashioning the image of his own heart. One little one clapped her hands, and said: "See, mine is looking at you!" All gazed, and in a moment every little earthen head was turned to "look at you," giving a life-likeness to the clay image which delighted the little artists beyond measure. This touch did not necessarily suggest realism. Every piece of handiwork has the right to bear a message, and has the right to "look at you" and tell its own story. The manual skill devel-

oped in the making of a thing is only a means, and not an end. That time is gone by when *art* is pursued for art's sake; use is the excuse for its being, and the useful is no longer the plebeian; labor is the proof of energy and activity, and work has become worship. When we learn, through loving services, how truly work is worship, then can we throw the inspiration of natural activity into our every effort. Rural crudeness is no longer called "sweet simplicity;" but the *natural*, which is always the beautiful, the strong, the true and ennobling, is become the standard.

Many kindergartners already appreciate the importance of broad study and self-culture as not only preparing them *to give out* more naturally and generously, but also training them to detect every effort made by the child in the right direction. To illustrate: If a kindergartner has a technical understanding of drawing, she will appreciate the difference between an accidental effect and the curve or line resulting from controlled effort. If she has seen the fruits of her own conscious perseverance, she will appreciate the satisfaction and pleasure that come to her charge when likewise viewing his work. Taken in the matter of music, there comes an occasional day in the kindergarten when the children, prompted by nobler impulses, sing so sweetly and purely that an artist musician would be thrilled. Unless the kindergartner be such an one, or unless she be at least familiar with the law of tone-purity and the standards of artistic sound, how can she add her smile of benediction, which shall set this as a standard for her children?

The kindergartner—the teacher—who has herself confused ideas of art can scarcely extract such effort from the child as will conform to the laws of *art*, for the child constantly responds to the unuttered standard of the teacher's thought.

First the teacher, through the child, must master the already established and accepted rules that govern *art* work, before either can go beyond. Unless the guide has been over the mountain paths himself, and has experienced the by-ways and dangers of the journey, he is not likely to lead the traveler happily, much less point out the beauties of view and landscape.

Artistic results are never accidental. A work of art is an embodied idea, and the nobler the ideal the more wonderful the work. The shrouded ideal of Egyptian thoughts took on the form of the Sphinx, which is no less a work of art than is the classic statue which pictures forth the Greek ideal of beauty and perfection. The hideous *gods* of the Chinese to-day reveal the evil of their ways, and tell the tragic story of a nation whose thought is unillumined by a single star. These gods are expressions of barbarous mental images which can never take on artistic form; the god within must be resurrected before he can be clothed in outer beauty and goodness. Here is barbaric simplicity, but it bears no message of artistic truth. As with the infant race, so with the indi-

vidual—the change of heart, of idea, must ever precede the growth in expression, in deeds, in works.

Michael Angelo, after laboring incessantly for thirty years, when accused of having a special genius, said these words : "By thinking and thinking on a thing a man can do anything, if he but think the thing until his hand keeps time with his thought." In the experience of Millet we have the illustration of a man's ideal dominating to the extent that every detail of technique responded accurately and beautifully in its execution. Our duty then, as conscious teachers, should be toward unveiling the *inner* rather than the *outward* child to himself. Our average modern child has few ideals ; that is, definite thought pictures clamoring for expression ; and this for many reasons. He is surrounded by a mass and variety of enigmatical things which do not produce the cameo-like impressions essential to reproduction. The whole past of civilization is pouring forth its treasures into the lap of to-day, and the demands of discrimination and selection overbalance those of original production. The early races, with their few and simple surroundings, were compelled to externalize their emerging thoughts in order to satisfy the law of the *mind*, which law is constant expression. To-day thought may turn in any direction and find some outer form corresponding to its inner picture. Shall we conclude from this that mind is exhausted ? Or, because the modern generation produces neither Sphinxes nor Apollos, that it has therefore no ideals ? Nay, mind is eternal progression, and every to-day's new thought demands a higher, nobler clothing. The child of to-day will search out a new *form* for his thought as soon as the expression of that thought becomes imperative to him.

The mission of modern early education is first to make this next step plain to him, then show him how to take it. For some time until the advent of the kindergarten the way was dark, and crude ideas struggled in vain for expression—were even strangled because of their crudity. Froebel taught us to encourage each effort, and so in time generate the power to bring forth great and noble thoughts into corresponding works. Without doubt he anticipated this necessity in his arrangement of the kindergarten gifts and occupations. The simplicity, perfection, and substantiality of his first type-forms speak directly to the primal thought of the child, and produce the ideal impression of, and the vital feeling for, that which is typical, clear, readable, and full of meaning. This working with and handling of perfect, embodied forms feeds the sense which has been well-nigh starved for want of giving itself expression. Having nearly lost the power to put forth his ideals of form, this must be retrieved to the child through the conscious vicarious assistance of his teachers. The true environment may thus be brought back to the child in his intellectual infancy, which environment consists not so much of the circumstances of wealth and poverty, education or ignorance, location or condition, but the

ideal qualities of mind and character. By the constant handling of typical forms; the hearing of stories which make clear and distinct mental pictures; by singing pure melodies in true pitch; by seeing good pictures, and associating with them definite meanings; by inhaling that pure home atmosphere which should be as honest and true as that of our Puritan forefathers, Froebel would reconstruct the true environment. Into this he would put a child with a clear-hearted purpose, giving him ample opportunity for action, encompassed over and above and around with a loving, gentle, trusting mood. Behind him he would have, standing like the blue-robed Goddess of Wisdom, his ideal of womanliness—the kindergartner, full of "sweetness and light." Given such an environment as this for a few generations to come, may we not look for wonders of spontaneous artistic productions, of such as we have not yet dared to dream? Having the innate tendency to express; possessing the joyous, true thoughts to express; having generated the power of expression, why should not the latter day's child break forth into song and poetry, art and beauty, and a perfected life? The proem to Arnold's "Light of the World" calls for "a song unstained by any tear." There is no room for sorrow or suffering in pure art, and who better than the children may so truly fulfill this requisite? Their natural delights and childish joys may all be translated, crystallized into works and worship. As geometry of form is the basis of all art production, so truth of character is the inspiration of all art conception. Each succeeding generation takes up the brush and palette laid down by the last, and works with the perennial zeal of the ancient of days at the unfinished canvas, picturing there man's progression toward ideality. The race has for centuries been blindly fulfilling this law of progress in art production, but the time is now come for open-eyed effort—for conscious externalization of the right thought. Where instinct prompted men in the early dawn, understanding and established law make demands upon them in the fullness of light. The generations have been busy deducing laws from the depths of experience. We of to-day are commanded to fulfill them. In our daily work with the children, if we could pay our first attention to the giving of clear ideas, be they of form, number, color, or properties, the creativity and activity of the child would construct more truly. Artistic power is not to be generated so much through geometrical sequence and arrangement of materials as through strong motives and true, natural living. It is only by keeping his thoughts in line with that which is true, beautiful, lovable, and upright—which are the fruits of the spirit—that the child can produce artistically. Truth is always simple, always readable, and full of meaning. It is its own excuse for being, and the intuitional nature of man—of the child—turns ever toward it.

Our work as teachers, then, is not so much to teach artistic ways of doing, as to give "open sesame" to the child's natural, not his *unnatural*

promptings, and let him fashion forth that which already lives in his pure heart. If a simple, pure life such as Millet, Fra Angelico, and Phidias lived, has proven itself the prime element in complete art production, why not concentrate our educational energies upon that one point, and that gained, secure all the lesser. Let us look less to brilliant and prodigious results, less to what our fellow kindergartners will say or think of our methods, but more and ever more to that unseen, quiet, abiding sense of truth and purity with which Froebel would have every child's heart filled. If we are seeking for this highest life of the child, we can never fall into the dangers of tolerating caprices of license, often so-called spontaneity, or a false sense of love towards our children, which may justly be condemned as sentimentality.

Great is the artist who can put forth his thought into things of comfort and utility and common convenience for his fellow-man. Greater is the artist who can translate the visions of his highest hope into forms of perfection, beauty, and truth—inspirations and revelations to the men of earth. But by far greatest of all is he who, through the potency of an honest life and conscious influence, brings out his ideals in characters about him ; who through words and deeds reveals the living truth and uncovers to his every neighbor the capacity to become both artist and artisan.

PRACTICAL PSYCHOLOGY IN THE KINDERGARTEN.

BY CONSTANCE MACKENZIE, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Not yet has the day quite run to its close in which the popular superstition obtained, that, with almost no qualifying circumstances, love is synonymous with ability to train children.

Not a few of us, I fancy, are familiar with the stereotyped answer to questions put to a candidate who contemplates adopting the kindergarten as a profession : "Oh, I know I shall succeed, for I love children !"

And most of us recognize in that same confident candidate the girl who, finding herself incapable in other directions, has turned her face to the kindergarten, because "One doesn't have to know anything, especially to teach such little children."

The day for this has not gone by. But, fortunately for the children, its sands have run low in the glass. The truth has begun at the top and is working downward. The combined, forcefully uttered convictions of educational thinkers, in conjunction with the practical and undeniable good wrought by our hundreds of kindergartens the country over, are compelling a general recognition of the fact that the kindergarten is, of all training grounds, the most difficult and delicate that a teacher can

elect. Yet, in spite of the unquestionable result of the work of the kindergarten, there still remains an infinite deal for us to do before it shall be impressed upon the universal mind that our motto is a double one. Not love alone, but love and intelligence, is the standard of the kindergartner of the twentieth century.

A mistaken estimate of the province of the kindergarten is what lies behind us, too often due, in a measure, to a narrow view of the question, even within our own ranks. But, except to keep our mistakes in mind as warnings, looking back is, as a rule, unprofitable; and what concerns us now is not the past, but the immediate work of the present, and the glowing encouragement and high hopes of the future.

Let us then ask ourselves these questions: What is the urgent need of our coming kindergartners, and how shall we best meet it?

In Harper's for May, 1892, Miss Anna C. Brackett gives this definition of a teacher: "A teacher," she says, "might be defined as one to whom everything that children do or say has become a sign. She therefore loses much careless amusement which other people find in their sayings and doings; and she shrinks with a protest, which she has often no right to express, from many an account of the subjects which are being taught to them, or the ways in which they have responded to some way of managing."

There is here a hint of an answer to both our questions. "One to whom everything that children do or say has become a sign."

That simply means that a teacher recognizes the necessity of studying children, soul, mind, and body. And to do this to good purpose, she must be endowed with love; with quick, accurate judgment; with infinite patience and tact; and she must have attained to scientific exactness in associating effects with causes. This, in a word, refutes the popular notion that love is enough, were we quite without evidence of the injury done to children by loving but unwise parents and teachers, who, with all the good-will in the world, lack other most essential qualifications.

My plea is not for psychology. There is no need, nowadays, to urge that; for the demand for a higher standard for kindergartners has resulted already in the introduction of the study of psychology in every training school that wishes to keep abreast with the times.

"What is to be expected," asks Herbert Spencer, in a wonderfully clear-cut, searching page or two of his book on education; "what is to be expected when one of the most intricate of problems is undertaken by those who have given scarcely a thought to the principles on which its solution depends? For shoemaking or house building, for the management of a ship or a locomotive-engine, a long apprenticeship is needed. Is it, then, that the unfolding of a human being in body and mind is so comparatively simple a process that any one may superintend and regulate it with no preparation at all? If not—if the process is with one excep-

tion more complex than any in nature, and the task of administering it one of surpassing difficulty, is it not madness to make no provision for such a task?"

In the introduction of psychology, we do recognize the vital need of such preparation. But what we have is not enough, or, rather, it is not adequate; and it can never hold its true place of importance until "everything that children do or say shall have become a sign," with psychology as partial interpreter.

How many pupils of our training classes go out from their graduating exercises with the book, psychology, at their tongue's end, but with the thing, psychology, as yet a closed volume to them? And what profits it that the words are theirs, that book statements of principles of development are theirs, while these things are to be of no living value in the kindergarten with the little children? It is "as if one should be ignorant of nothing concerning the scent of violets," says George Eliot, "except the scent itself, for which one has no nostril." There are three ways of studying psychology; one is, as I have said, from the book, another is from the child himself. But the third way, the method which we seek, combines the other two, and gives us a kindergartner who turns instinctively to the child for a knowledge of his little being, and who has her way thereto smoothed and shortened by the combined observation of all thoughtful child observers before her. She thus becomes not only a student of psychology, but a discoverer as well. And because she has the individual as well as the general nature with which to deal, it is especially necessary that she shall thus apply her studied psychology, and formulate an experimental psychology of her own. Let me go back a paragraph to illustrate what I mean when I say that psychology to the ordinary pupil is only a book, and unfortunately a closed book, after her training. I beg you to bear in mind that my illustrations are from life.

Examine the average kindergarten candidate upon the order in which faculties develop, let us say. Ask her to go somewhat into detail. She will no doubt tell you, among other things, that as an understanding of the concrete antedates an understanding of the abstract, children can do what they see done earlier than they can do what they are asked to do in language. I have heard such answers glibly given. Later, I have seen the same girls in their kindergartens, dictating work to children who were utterly confused by it, because they had not yet reached the point of being able to follow language unassisted by the thing for which the language stood. I remember distinctly one such case. The kindergartner was a bright girl who required only a suggestion to set her thinking intelligently. I took her class without explaining to her her mistake. I built as I dictated, and every little child, listening to me almost unconsciously, and watching and completing every move I made, finished the form in delight over his success. Afterward, when the children were deep in the

joys of invention, I said to the kindergartner, who had exclaimed at their aptitude: "Do you remember anything in your study of psychology about the necessity of putting things before words with the smallest children?" Yes, certainly she did. She remembered even the heading of the paragraph.

"Well, that is it," I answered, pointing to my finished form. "You need to translate your book into every-day life."

She looked at me as though a light had dawned upon her. Yet she must have had that told her in her training class over and over again. There lay part of the trouble. Had she also been sent into a class of children, and had she been directed to observe in their presence the close friendship with which theory and practice clasp hands, she would have looked at one principle of her psychology as a thing to be taken out of a page and woven into life.

I recall the case of another kindergartner who was much in earnest in her work. She was in despair at her failure in the management of one child. "I have tried to study that boy," she said, "but all my appeals to him seem futile."

As I sat and watched the little fellow, who was certainly full of the liveliest and most misdirected of spirits, I heard her say:

"Now, Paul, you want to be a good man, don't you, dear?" "No, I don't," responded the small mortal with startling promptness. And in despair she sent him back to his seat, utterly at a loss what else to do. Afterward I said: "Your trouble is that you do not study that child in the light of your psychology, and you are not yet experienced enough to use your judgment with effect. If you had done the former, you would have appealed to Paul's desire for activity instead of to an impossible desire to attain a certain good many years in the future. Children live in the present, and they must have exercise." The truth was, that Paul had finished his work before the rest of the class; and, having nothing further to make for himself, he was attempting to unmake the work of the other children. This young kindergartner knew it all as well as I did. But she had left it all behind her in her book at the training school.

Every schoolgirl knows that repetition is one of the ordinary conditions of memory, and can tell you so, when she is aware that you are asking her a psychological question. She also knows that a thing done even once is the beginning of a habit, and that the oftener the action is repeated, the stronger grows the forming habit, right or wrong. Yet with both these bits of knowledge in her store, ready for use if only she knew how to use them, over and over again does she do something like the following:

The day was warm, and the children were restless. One touched his companion lightly on the back of the neck, in playful good humor. The other, of course, with a little laugh, responded. The play grew fiercer.

Both hands were used. The second child began to dislike what was fast turning into unpleasant teasing.

Finally there came slaps, protests, a call to the kindergartner, two unhappy, crying children removed from the table, and a disturbed class. After the children had gone home, I recalled this little incident to the kindergartner's mind.

"You could have anticipated the outcome of that with the first touch," I said. "It could have ended no other way. Whose fault was it? If your little children are taught to respect one another's persons, and to touch no child without that child's permission, that never would have happened." "I do try to break them of the habit of touching one another," she said. But, as she herself told me, on further thought, she had forgotten two things, both tending to one result:

First, that to help a child to remember, he must, in the beginning, be reminded constantly and continually—the repetition must follow every violation of the rule; and, secondly, she forgot that a habit strengthens every time it is given a chance to assert itself. Therefore we both concluded that the children had been punished for the indirect fault of the kindergartner.

I might multiply instances, were two or three not sufficient to make my meaning evident. I might tell you of the kindergartner who said she had been "through the books six times," and who literally expressed the truth. When it came to the practical work, there was nothing to show for it. Another kindergartner said that if one learned the printed words exactly as they were given, that was enough to insure a good examination mark. This was, of course, true if an examination be the object in view of any study. But if the end to be attained be an understanding of mental and moral science—and we presume that teachers who are in earnest look beyond the examination, to the children for whose training they will be responsible—then we must protest against so flagrant a violation of one of psychology's own principles, in placing words, the symbols, before ideas, the things.

There are some points which the average kindergartner, as a rule, need only to have suggested in order to put them into practice. Among these are such evident truths as the necessity for constant use of the senses; the need of variety and change in attitude and work; the importance of interest, if attention is to be held. One doesn't often hear a kindergartner say to a child, "I think you ought to have remembered" that song or this story. She usually remembers herself the conditions attendant upon memory, and recognizes when hers is the fault for forgetfulness in the child.

But there are some matters which are less directly evident, and those are apt to prove the "Hills Difficult" to beginners. What methods of correction, for example, shall one best employ, in hundreds of varying

circumstances, with hundreds of different children? That is not always an easy question to answer. But one is at least helped toward its solution if one acts on the general principle that the correction should be a logical result of the action.

In one kindergarten the teacher has certainly grasped that principle firmly and acted upon it with clear, sure judgment, deliberation, and impressiveness.

The occupation was painting. One child was disinclined to work, and did not try. The result was a spoiled, smeared paper. When all had finished, the kindergartner herself collected the papers. Without comment she passed the spoiled piece by, leaving it on the table. After examining and talking with the children about the collected work, she walked to the table, took up the ruined piece of paper, and, saying quietly, "This isn't fit to use; Mary didn't try," she crumpled it in her hand, and threw it into the waste basket. There was a dead pause. Mary turned scarlet, then burst into tears. Very gravely the kindergartner turned. "Was that *my* fault? Next time I think Mary will have as well done a piece to take home as any one else."

It was a most impressive lesson. The perfect quiet of the kindergartner's manner throughout; her grave, grieved face; her few words, each powerful with meaning, awed the entire class. Every child felt the justice of that quiet "Was that *my* fault?" And the encouragement given in the last words—the hope for better work in future—quite took away the bitterness of Mary's tears. The correction had followed in the direct line of the fault. It was absolutely impersonal on the kindergartner's part. She was applying her general principle, and using her good judgment to fit it to an individual case.

Another fact that a beginner may forget is, that a little child is absorbed only in such presentations of gifts, occupation, talk, as are not abstract to him, as hold an element of familiarity, and possess a living daily interest. One who remembers this will see, for instance, that almost all the forms the children make, whether of knowledge, life, or beauty, are forms of life. They may still be forms of knowledge or beauty, as: "Let us make the cake Alice had for her birthday, and see how many forms we can turn out of the mold. Let us lay some of the flower-beds or borders in Alice's garden. We want them just as beautiful as possible." And, behold! we have squares, oblongs, triangles, what-not; or tasteful designs worked in opposites from a center, or from side to side, in border patterns. All these life-forms are associated in the child's mind with things he knows and loves. And these other new things, which he is just learning to know, are thus so closely connected with familiar objects, that he finds it no task to remember them. What languor, what tepid interest would attend a frequent request for squares, oblongs, triangles, as geometric forms only! Then if, as a novelty, there comes an intentionally exceptional exercise

which, by the mystery and breeziness of the kindergartner's manner, carries with it an element of expectancy, is that not an inspiration to the waiting, wondering class?

"Now, to-day, who would like to do something very hard?"

Childhood is valiant, and dares even the impossible. So all are eager to try. "Then out of these tablets I give you, see who can fit together pieces to make a square, an oblong, and a triangle. If anyone finishes, and thinks of something else, he may make it, if he tells me how many tablets he wants, and of what kind."

There are the elements of familiarity and of novelty, of expectancy, of something to be overcome, and the delightful prospect of an own idea beyond, to be worked out later—a most important consideration, by the by, and worth all the dictated work in the world, if one had to choose between them.

One might enlarge indefinitely upon the subject of my paper, for, turn as we may, as soon as one enters a school or a kindergarten, the problem of practical psychology confronts one.

So we turn to our second question: How shall the urgent need of applied psychology in the kindergarten be met?

Manifestly, it lies primarily with the trainer. It is for her to start the coming teachers, and to point the way they are to take. For a few steps only can she tread it with them. But the direction in which she sets their faces is the doing or the undoing of hundreds of little children yet unborn.

To make psychology a living study while the student is yet in the training class requires, above all, a constant application of each of its tenets as each is learned. The place to accomplish this is in the observing class. It seems to be a feasible plan for the trainer to require from her pupils illustrations along every line of psychological principle which they shall themselves think out in the kindergarten in which they observe. If a class have been studying the value of sense-training, let that be the text for their reports and the direction for their observation. Let them intelligently watch the children, with their class lesson in mind. Let them note the eagerness with which they stretch out their hands to grasp; the desire to teach, to examine for themselves; the lack of interest with which they receive an object at second-hand, through verbal description; the exception to this, and from what they have thus seen, let them be shown how to make their conclusions.

The average pupil will not think thus of applying her psychology unless her interest and attention are enlisted by the suggestive help and the requirements of her trainer. Have no fear that meanwhile the observation of methods will be overlooked in the endeavor to find out by original inquiry the reasons why methods are either good or bad. Those will assuredly not escape the student, and in her practical application of prin-

ciple she is preparing herself not only to copy well good methods, but to do an hundredfold better. She is developing the power to modify and adapt, and to make her own good methods, fitting them to different conditions and children. In a word, if one trains a young girl to make her theory practical, one has made her an independent thinker and an invaluable teacher.

That is where it begins—right in the kindergarten training school. Still there are hundreds among us out of the training school, still inexperienced, still wondering how psychology may be made practical.

I by no means intend to indicate that one must be continually actively conscious of one's psychology. It soon becomes by constant use a habit of thought, an incorporate part of one's way of dealing with children. But I would earnestly urge that when a kindergartner finds she has made a mistake, she look for its cause and its remedy in a violation and in an application of a principle of education, as well as in her own manner and attitude, and in the special child's special peculiarity. The kindergartner, the individual child, and children as a class—these form the important triple alliance of the kindergarten. And for searching for causes of success or failure, not one of these allies can with safety be ignored.

If, in addition to all else she shall have gained in her training class, the kindergartner going out of one door as a pupil to enter in at another as a teacher, bears with her a clear understanding of the ways in which psychology can be an every-day help to her; if she patiently examines all her results in the light of herself, the children, and the science of mind and morals; if, in a word, she be both loving and intelligent, it must be a question of months only before every kindergartner, in spite of paradox, shall be an exceptional teacher, "one to whom everything that children do or say has become a sign."

SONGS, MORNING TALKS, AND STORIES.

(*An Illustration.*)

BY EMILIE POULSSON, BOSTON, MASS.

ALL the week we have been bountifully served with the "strong meat" of philosophy by the mighty hunters whose arrows fly far and bring down splendid game. All I have to offer, however, is a little veritable "milk for babes"—in other words, a bit of practical work, not as a model, but only as a sample of the way one subject may be treated with the kindergarten children in talk, song, game, and story.

Each of these modes of presentation has its own special office and value, and there is not one which does not also augment the power of

each and all of the others. For instance, in the talk the teacher seeks to draw out the children's ideas and knowledge, arouse their interest, guide their observation, and touch their moral nature, sometimes by the symbolism with which creation is rife, sometimes by more direct delineation of the beauty of goodness.

In the game—the dramatic representation—the child becomes the bird, the fish, the farmer, the brook, for the time being, and thus by experience attains a closer sympathy than could be reached from an outside standpoint.

The story reviews and continues the interpretation of the subject which the talk presented, either illuminating it with the wonder-light of imagination, or vivifying it by reality—both imaginative and true stories being needed for the symmetrical development of all the child's faculties.

The song groups together the prominent features of the subject in an attractive form. By learning the words and frequently singing them, the impressions received from the talk, story, and game are often recalled, and therefore deepened and preserved in the mind of the child. Even the simplest songs have this value; and if, as *sometimes* happens, the words are poetic and set to good music, other distinct gains are added.

The subject which I have chosen for to-day is "The Hen and Chickens," and I will exemplify the treatment of it as far as time will allow, begging you to excuse the unavoidable artificiality of a talk with children who are not here to answer.

The talk and story which I shall use are from a collection soon to be published. This collection, to be entitled "In the Child's World," will contain morning talks and stories related to each other, and upon subjects embraced in the "whole round" of a little child's life, such as animals, plants, natural forces, trades, and the seasons and festival days of the year.

THE HEN AND CHICKENS.

(*The Talk.*)

Last week we talked about the little birds who fly in the air and live in the trees. Now let us talk of some other friends who are dressed in feathers and have wings, but who are larger and live on the ground. Can you guess who these friends are? We shall find them if we go to the farm-yard. (If the children name the inhabitants of the farm-yard, the hen and chickens will surely be mentioned. In comparing the hen and smaller birds, note particularly the hen's heavy body and short wings, and consequently feeble flight, and the strong toes for scratching.) What kind of a noise does the hen make? Does she lay eggs? Build a nest? Not a snug, pretty nest as the little birds do. Usually the farmer gives her some hay in a box or barrel when she wants a nest, but sometimes the hen chooses a place herself, up in the hay-loft in the barn, where it

is all dark and quiet; or perhaps she finds a sheltered place in the field, among the grasses which will hide her safely.

When she has laid ten or twelve eggs, she sits on the nest day after day and night after night. She will scarcely leave the eggs to get what she needs to eat and drink. How long do you think she sits there? Twenty-one days. And after all this time, what happens? One of these days the hen hears a faint little tapping, and then a cracking noise, and one of the eggshells breaks, and out comes a tiny, weak chicken! And soon another breaks its shell and comes out, and so on, until, instead of ten white eggs lying in the nest, there are ten cunning little chickens nestling in the hay and cuddling under the mother hen's soft feathers. The chickens are dressed in very soft, fine feathers called down. The down is often bright yellow. As the mother hen walks about with her dear little chickens she seems to say: "This is why I was willing to sit still so long on those eggs of mine. Isn't this joyful?" When the farmer sees the happy mother hen he is glad, too; but he is afraid the chickens will get tired if they follow her everywhere. So he puts mother hen into a nice coop. The chickens run in and out of the coop, and their mother watches them and calls to them if any danger is near. When she calls them, or when anything frightens them, they run into the coop and cuddle under her wings. Don't you know how glad you are to run to your mother when you are hurt or frightened, or in any trouble? I suppose the chickens feel as safe and comfortable with the mother hen's wings over them as little children do in their mother's arms. When night comes the mother hen clucks to her chickens, and they creep under her wings to sleep. By and by, when they are big enough, they will roost on perches at night and run about all day, scratching and pecking, finding insects and worms and seeds to eat as the other big fowls do. But while they are little, their mother watches them and takes care of them night and day.

THE STORY OF SPECKLE.

Her name was Speckle, because her feathers were white speckled all over with black. She had just as many eggs in her nest as the "merry little men" you have on your hands, and her nest was in a wooden box in the barn. The box was filled with hay, so it was soft and warm for the eggs to lie on. There was something soft and warm *over* the nest, too. What do you think that was? Why, Speckle herself. There she sat on the nest, having stepped in very carefully, so as not to break the eggs.

All day she stayed there, and even when the cows and horses came into the barn, and the other hens went to roost for the night, Speckle sat as still as ever, caring for nothing but to keep the eggs warm.

The next morning, before the farmer came to the barn, Dobbin, the big horse, poked his nose out of the stall and neighed to Speckle.

"I never saw you there before," said he. "What are you doing?"

"I am keeping my eggs warm," said Speckle, cheerily.

"Moo-o!" said the old red cow. "Are you not in a hurry to get out into the fields where the new grass is so fresh and green?"

"Oh, no!" said Speckle. "I would not leave my eggs. I must stay here and keep them warm."

By and by the farmer came into the barn.

"Why, is that little Speckle?" said he, walking up to the corner where the box was. Speckle had never been afraid of the farmer before, but now she felt so anxious about her precious eggs that she made a queer noise in her throat and bristled up her feathers.

"There, there," said the farmer kindly, stepping away, "I won't touch your eggs. Don't be afraid of me." And he went about his work in the barn.

The cows were milked and turned out to pasture; the horse was harnessed to the cart and went out to do his day's work. The barn was very quiet.

Speckle was left alone, but only for a short time. Fritz, the farm dog, strolled in and looked at her with surprise.

"The rest of the hens are having their breakfast," said he. "Little Phœbe is giving them a regular feast of corn. Hurry, or you won't be in time!"

"I cannot go," said Speckle, though she was really very hungry. "I must sit here and keep my eggs warm."

Fritz was so astonished that he did not know what to say.

"I suppose I shall have to go sometime," said Speckle, "for I must not starve; but I can get along for a while yet."

Fritz put out his paws and stretched himself, and then lay down on the sunny barn floor to think; but it was so comfortable that he fell asleep instead.

Not long after, some swallows flew into the barn, and one of them, swooping down with a sudden dive, came so close to Speckle that her swift wings fanned the patient sitter. Speckle was startled, but only for an instant, for the swallow folded its wings and rested on the edge of the box, looking at Speckle in a friendly way.

"I know why you sit there," said she. "Isn't it a beautiful secret—the secret of the eggs? My mate and I have almost finished mending our nest—one we found up high there; and I shall soon have some eggs to keep warm, just as you have."

Twittering thus, the swallow seized a wisp of hay and darted away, evidently too busy to make a longer visit. Speckle looked after her with bright eyes, but the swallow was soon out of sight in a dim corner far above Speckle's head.

The hours passed, and it was night again. Speckle had only been off

her nest once to get a little food and water, when she was so hungry and thirsty that she could not wait any longer. Her legs felt very stiff and cramped, and it seemed strange to her to be sitting there on a nest all by herself, instead of being on the perch in the hen-house with her friends. But she was contented and glad, and felt that there was nothing in the world that could make her leave her precious eggs.

The next day little Phœbe came running into the barn.

"Where are you, Speckle?" said she, peering about in the corners. "Oh, here you are, you dear thing! Father said last night that you had a nest here. I've brought you some breakfast, and a nice little pan of water."

Speckle really did not know how to say "thank you," but she felt very much like it, I assure you, not only that day but many times after; for little Phœbe came every day and brought corn or meal, and filled the little pan with fresh water, leaving them very near to the wooden box, so that Speckle had only to hop out to get them, and could be back again on her eggs in a trice, instead of having to look all about for something to eat.

The old kind of life, when Speckle had run about the farm all day and roosted on the perch at night, seemed long past; and it was now three weeks that she had been living in this new way—sitting on her nest night and day, and with kind little Phœbe bringing her what she needed to eat and drink.

And now, at the end of the three long weeks—twenty-one days—a most wonderful thing happened. Speckle heard some faint little sounds, which seemed to come from the eggs beneath her breast. It was certainly like the sound of an egg-shell being broken. Speckle listened and waited. Soon she actually felt something moving beneath her, and then she knew instantly what had happened. Do you know? A little chicken had come out of one of the eggs. It had been growing inside the shell all these twenty-one days, until, being all ready for life in the world, it had broken its shell and crept out. Before long there were several others fidgeting about in the nest, as, one after another, they broke open the pretty white houses in which they had lived so long; and at last there were ten cunning baby chickens, covered with bright yellow down, stepping about on their wee bits of legs, and staring at the new world with round black eyes.

Speckle could scarcely contain herself for joy. All these pretty creatures were hers, her very own! She began to cluck softly—a little song she had never sung before, and yet knew perfectly from the love in her heart. And the little chickens, as they listened, nestling under their mother's soft breast, chirped in answer; and though all they said was "peep! peep!" it made Speckle happy to hear them.

After she had cuddled them long enough, and they were ready to take

a walk, Speckle started out as proud and happy as a hen could be. Fortunately, the barn was not far from the house, or it would have been too long a walk for the chickens. What a walk that was! Speckle found something to cluck about every step of the way, and the chickens looked in wonder at all the strange new things. They found it a great comfort to keep calling to their mother, and to run very close to her many times.

On the way from the barn to the house they met the farmer driving old Dobbin. Speckle clucked loudly to the chickens for fear one might get in the road and under the horse's feet. This attracted the farmer's attention.

"Ho, ho, Speckle! That's a fine brood, upon my word," said he, counting the ten.

Dobbin said nothing, but rolled his eyes around toward Speckle with an expressive glance, which meant as much as the farmer's kind words.

Speckle led her yellow train on toward the farm-house. The pasture was on one side of the road, and Speckle chose to walk on that side, hoping that some of the cows would see her. Yes, Lady Jane, the oldest and the leader of the herd, was standing near the bars. Again Speckle clucked very loudly to her chickens, for she was afraid they might run into the pasture. Lady Jane looked up from the tender grass she was cropping. She made no attempt at speaking, any more than Dobbin had; but by the way she put out her head and took several deep breaths and switched her tail, Speckle knew that Lady Jane noticed her chickens with due astonishment and admiration.

But Fritz, the dog, was more surprised than either the horse or the cow, for he had only been on the farm a short time, and these were the first baby chickens he had ever seen. He thought it must be that Speckle had found a whole troop of canary birds, like the pretty creature who lived in the cage, and whom Phœbe loved so much. So off he ran ahead of Speckle, barking loudly.

The chickens were greatly frightened at this noisy monster, and ran to their mother—in front of her, and under her, in their panic; but she clucked soothingly, and presently succeeded in quieting them. So when Phœbe opened the door to see what Fritz was barking at, Speckle and her brood were walking quite properly across the dooryard, and Fritz stood wagging his tail and looking up into Phœbe's face as if to say, "There! Are you not glad I called you?"

Phœbe shouted with surprise and delight. She was soon close to Speckle, and was so quiet and gentle that Speckle could not be afraid of her very long, and even the chickens forgot to be afraid when Phœbe brought a nice pan of meal for them.

While they were eating this, the farmer came up, carrying a new coop. He set it down under a cherry-tree.

"O father! is that for Speckle?" asked Phœbe.

"Yes, it is for Speckle," said the farmer. "She would trot those chickens all over the farm if I did not put her into a coop."

So, before Speckle knew what was going on, she found herself looking out between the slats of the coop. She called anxiously to her chickens, and though they ran about wildly for a little, they soon found their way into the coop and under her wings. They rested there a few minutes, but dear! dear! there was so much to see outside, and they were such lively little creatures, that before long they were out again. Speckle watched them and talked to them all the time, stretching her head away out between the slats of the coop, and calling the little ones back if they were running away.

Suddenly a bird passed by, flying low, and Speckle looked up in alarm lest it might be something to hurt her chickens. Again the bird passed, and this time Speckle saw that it was her friend, the barn-swallow, the one who had spoken to her when she was sitting on her eggs.

"Look, look! Look, look!" called Speckle in great joy, delighted that the swallow should see her treasures; and the swallow twittered as joyously in return, for she, too, had glad news to tell.

"Happy, happy, happy!" she chirped. "Long I sat on my nestful of eggs—now it is a nestful of birds." And away she darted to the barn, whither she had been flying, as full of rejoicing over the baby swallows awaiting her as Speckle was over her yellow darlings.

INFLUENCE OF EXPRESSION ON THOUGHT.

BY MISS GIDDINGS, PROVIDENCE, R. I.

One of the most prominent educational men of the country has said that "one definition of education is the realization of possibilities," and the spirit of this statement has been the inspiration of the world's best thinkers whenever and wherever they have lived. The harmonious development of the individual has been the aim of all educational philosophy from the days of Plato to the present. A recognition of man's three-fold nature formed the foundation of the educational system of the Greeks. The Grecian youth was trained in a religion unrivaled for its beauty among the pagan nations; in a philosophy profound and exhaustive; in athletics to the perfection of all his physical powers. Reverence for the human body was a part of the Greek's religion; to him the fleshly vehicle was a means of leading the soul on to what is eternally and imperishably beautiful; and to educate the body from the soul side was the aim of Grecian culture. Beauty was to the Greek thought the outshining of

divine radiance, and as the body was looked upon as the natural manifestation of the soul, it was educated from within outward.

Orators, poets, philosophers, sought by every possible means to win the favor of gods and of men by a synthetic development of all the powers. The Grecian sculptor revealed the result of this study. Every part of the figure portrayed the central thought. The hand emphasized the expression of the face, the chest was in harmony with both, and it was the unity in expression thus produced which gave perfection to the whole work.

Movements merely mechanical, or exercises purely physical, could no more have produced the beauty which made the Greek immortal than the drawing of heavy burdens can make the dray-horse a study in grace for artists. The beauty of the Greek was the outcome of harmonious development, and as we emerge from the superstitions which have so long blinded us in our pursuit for truth, we shall recognize, even as Plato and his countrymen did, the divinity of harmony as revealed in the human form.

As the Greeks revered beauty of form and grace in motion, so have the later ages reverenced intellectual power; and in the desire to magnify man's mental attributes, his physical powers have been consciously belittled until upon the minds of the more progressive thinkers has come a dawning realization of the great truth that mind and body are one in their dependence upon each other. How to realize all the possibilities, is the question to-day of supremest interest to educators.

In the attempt to solve so difficult a problem many mistakes must, of necessity, be made; but honest purpose and determined effort must ultimately achieve success. All thinkers are agreed that culture of mind and body must keep pace with each other for the best possibilities of the individual life to be accomplished, but the methods suggested whereby this harmony of culture is to be attained are both varied and numerous. Some educators emphasize the importance of muscular training; others urge the value of rigid calisthenic drill; others contend for exercises allied to the movements taken in manual training; and yet others hold that the body should be educated to express the psychological divisions of the mind. One of the most successful teachers of what is known as psycho-physical culture, says: "The body should be educated from the soul side—that is, educated from within outward—expressively rather than mechanically. A perfect line of correspondence should be developed between the inner states of being and their physical manifestations. The body should be looked upon as a natural manifestation of the soul, and educated according to that principle, and not trained as a machine merely; for, while it involves mechanical principles in its structure, it is vastly more than that, being, as it is, the outward medium of the mind."

However reluctant the formalists may be to accept a philosophy which recognizes the need of a culture deeper than muscular strength, and freer than automatic motion, the kindergartners have too thoroughly

studied the doctrine of the "unification of life," as set forth in Froebel's works, to oppose a system of education which makes the attainment of unity its primal thought. What is unity? Unity is the whole expressed in each and every one of its parts. Its possession means a free medium for the expression of the soul. Just as the Greeks taught that the body was the expression of the soul, so Froebel believed that the divine essence of things and of man is known by its outward manifestations. The inner life expresses itself in outward manifestations. In the foliage of plants and trees we see revelations of the natural life. In the song of the bird, in the gambols of young animals, we behold an expression of the vital impulse. But just as the influence of external elements is required to stimulate the growth of nature, so the inner life of man depends upon external aid in its efforts for full and free expression. The first expression of childhood, whether of the race or of the individual, is through gesture.

"The conscious possession of his own body by emotion," says Professor Curry, "awakened man, as his conceptions widened and his feelings deepened, to mold matter as a new embodiment of the expanding soul." Through physical expression the soul awakens, and it is by conscious recognition of this truth that the work of the true kindergartner is so stimulating to the spiritual nature of the child.

Study the games of the kindergarten under the direction of a true disciple of Froebel, and note the marvellous influence they have upon the whole being of the child. "Because," as Froebel says, "the child himself begins to represent his inner being outwardly. He imputes the same activity to all about him, to the pebble and chip of wood, to the plant, the flower, and the animal, and thus there is developed in the child at this time his own life, his life with parents and family, his life with a higher invisible spirit, and particularly his life in and with nature." In the plays of childhood the creative energies are quickened into life, imagination is awakened, the intuitions are developed, the emotional nature is aroused, the whole being is stimulated. "The feelings develop," says a writer on psychology, "like other faculties, only by exercise. The oftener a certain emotion is entertained, the stronger it grows, and the more readily it comes into play. To develop the feelings we must call them into exercise."

The kindergarten in its games and songs, arranged according to the instinctive needs of the child, calls the emotional nature into activity by ideas. "There is a time," says Colonel Parker, "when all the brain-parts are ready for cultivation; there is an order of growth and evolution. The child is unaware of this time; it is unaware of the possibilities that exist within it. Therefore it is safe to conclude that if the child has not proper conditions presented for its development, it will not of itself develop to the utmost capabilities. Early development of the modes of

expression means freedom." Froebel taught that "all education was emancipation," and as the life of the child expands it gains in freedom.

No faculty is more alive in the child than that of imagination. Through its culture the artistic side of nature is developed and all life exalted and purified. Yet it is only through freedom in expression that imagination can grow. By portraying the life of other things the child enters into new relations of thought. As he imitates the movements of birds he becomes conscious of a sympathy for the little warblers; out of his representation of their life comes a desire to study more closely their habits. New thoughts are awakened, powers of observation are stimulated, and a reverence for God's creatures is aroused.

As he seeks to represent the gambols of animals, his physical and mental life receive conscious stimulus, and this is true also in the representation of many of the occupations. True always, if the kindergartner directs in true Froebelian spirit, the activities of the child. When work is made mechanical to the child it loses life and spirit. Teachers in all departments realize this. If a child is *taught* to assume certain attitudes, they cramp rather than free the little spirit. If, on the contrary, the attitude is the expression of an instinct, an emotion, it means growth. All bodily action affects the mind and soul; it is the province of the wise teacher to develop soul-life, not restrict it.

A teacher may enter into the games and plays of her little ones, but the thought to be expressed, the emotion to be awakened, must be *called* forth, never formulated.

The plays of childhood show, as Froebel has taught, the man. They reveal the elements of the inner life, and in their revelations are many lessons for the wise teacher. The natural tendencies of the child may be discovered by a critical study of his movements in play; by judicious control the evil may be repressed, the good encouraged. Not by talking to the child; to discuss a fault is often the surest way to confirm it. The thought to be presented to the young mind must thrill the imagination in order to touch the heart.

It was once thought that any one possessed of the first elements of education was capable of teaching young children; as the world grows wiser it begins to realize that the wisdom of its best minds should be given to the evolution of the child nature. The philanthropists in our large cities are concerning themselves more and more with the children, realizing that in their salvation is the hope of the future. One of the most successful trainers of kindergartners in New England refuses to receive very young girls into her training class for the reason that she has found them incapable of comprehending in its entirety the complex nature of the child. The kindergarten is unquestionably full of inspiring influences for the youngest teacher, but the wise mother would prefer that the one to whom she intrusts for three hours every day the soul of her little child

should be herself an awakened spirit. She who would study expression in others must first have studied the laws of her own being.

The senses are most keen in childhood, and the character of the teacher is revealed with wonderful clearness to the intuitions of the child. To his little mind her every motion is full of a language that presents *ideas*. If she is awkward, rigid, narrow, through the physical manifestation she influences the young life. Children are ready imitators, and if the teacher's deformities of character present themselves in her body, the child, through the physical, dwarfs his inner growth. Attitude—*gesture*—is always a revelation of character, the surest revelation. When this is more fully understood, we shall demand *more* of our teachers than we do at present. To the susceptibilities of the child, only the best influences should be presented. He should live, so far as possible, in an atmosphere of harmony. Every expression of the real life should be studied by one who is to direct the education of the young. And one of the most valuable manifestations will be found in the tones of the voice. It is impossible for a woman with imagination, feeling, intensity of emotion, to have a cold, narrow voice. Such an one may have philosophy enough to start a modern symposium of philosophy, but the emotional and imaginative elements of her nature require cultivation.

What has voice to do with gesture? Everything. Gesture defined in its broadest sense means bearing of the individual—physical expression; and no influence is more potent in stimulating physical and mental being than that of voice. Tones express character, the gradations of spiritual life. Culture, vocal training, will, of course, do much toward improving the quality of the natural voice, but the growth of the inner life will reveal itself always in the colorings of tone. It is true, also, that tones have a reflex action, and that the emotional nature may be influenced by vocal expression.

All the various emotions which exist in the adult are not found developed, the psychologists tell us, in children. The selfish emotions awaken first, and in dealing with them the voice is too powerful an influence to be overlooked. All the avenues of expression should be studied by one who would be a successful instructor.

Because the mind requires physical assistance in its manifestations, the best means for securing harmony of development should be sought. These means the kindergartners have more closely approximated than any other class of educators. They have rejected ordinary gymnastic methods as tending to hinder perfect growth. They have sought the child's normal development by guiding his activities in natural directions. Stereotyped movements, mechanical exercise, have always prevented the harmonious growth of the child. Sympathetic culture of all the being is the aim of true education. To train one part and ignore another is contrary to the very spirit of life. The kindergarten seeks to make all the

activities of the child spontaneous, and what it does for the little ones, the physical culture systems will ultimately do for children of a larger growth. All systems of education are false which prevent spontaneity of expression.

It is as true now as it has been from the beginning, that to childhood we must go for our noblest lessons of life. Through Pestalozzi and Froebel and their worthy followers our hearts awaken to new reverence for the divine lessons written all over the souls of our children. In their faithful study we shall grow in knowledge of God and man.

PROCEEDINGS AND ADDRESSES

OF THE

ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT.

DEPARTMENT OF

ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.

SARATOGA, N. Y., July 14, 1892.

THE Department of Elementary Education, of the National Educational Association, was called to order at 3:30 P.M. President, Miss Julia S. Tutwiler, in the chair.

Prayer was offered by Dr. Richards of Washington.

Brief introductory remarks were made by the president on "The Individualization of Children in Public Schools."

A paper on "History in Elementary Education" was presented by Hon. M. A. Newell, of Maryland, and was discussed by Dr. Richards, of Washington, L. B. Corey, of New York, Prof. S. G. Williams, of New York, Mr. W. I. Twitchell, of Connecticut, and Mr. G. R. Shawan, of Illinois.

A paper on "Moral Training in Elementary Schools" was offered by Dr. Z. Richards, of Washington, and was discussed by Mrs. Rebecca D. Rickoff, of New York, Dr. Richards closing the discussion.

On motion, a Committee on Nominations was appointed as follows:

Prof. S. G. Williams, of New York, Mr. W. I. Twitchell, of Connecticut, and Miss Bettie A. Dutton, of Ohio.

On motion, the department adjourned to 3 P.M., July 15.

SECOND SESSION.

SARATOGA, N. Y., 3 P.M., July 15, 1892.

DEPARTMENT of Elementary Instruction, National Educational Association.

The department was called to order at three o'clock, by the president, and the minutes of the preceding meeting were read and approved.

Dr. S. G. Williams, of Cornell University, presented a paper on "The Natural Sciences in Elementary Education."

The paper was discussed by Messrs. Richards, of Washington, Corey, of New York, Supt. Marble, of Massachusetts, Van Reed, of Alabama, Wise, of Maryland, H. S. Purdy, of New York, Miss E. E. Curtis, of Missouri, Mr. Shawan, of Illinois; Prof. Williams closing the discussion.

By special invitation a paper on "Language" was presented by Mrs. Rebecca D. Rickoff.

Mrs. Delia Lathrop Williams, of Ohio, having been called, responded by saying that she quite agreed with what Mrs. Rickoff had said of language lessons, but her own experience had led her to believe that every school exercise should be a lesson in language. Language is the instrument of thought; and while it is true, as stated, that there is no satisfactory use of language without clear thinking behind it, it seemed clear to her that it is quite as true that there is no clear thinking without language in which to embody the thought.

Language is the means of communicating thought, and often our pupils do not get clear conceptions from the text-books they use, nor from the statements of the teachers themselves, because they have no exact appreciation of the language used to convey the thought.

Pupils should be tested at every step upon the meaning of the words and phrases they are using. When teachers do this they will be surprised at the crudeness and indefiniteness of conception and the pitiable blunders their pupils are perpetually making through total misapprehension of the meaning of language.

The poor pupils in geography, history, even arithmetic, are those who cannot read understandingly. When we have taught pupils to read appreciatingly and to enjoy reading, we have done the best school work we can do for them.

She was so impressed with the value of a love of good reading to a child that she sometimes thinks it would be well to go back to the good old times when children read in the morning, read at mid-day, read in the afternoon, did nothing but read, for the first three or four years of school.

Certain it is, when we have made our children good readers, and have taught them to express their own observations and thoughts clearly and correctly, we have put them a long way on toward the goal of *an education.*

Mrs. Rickoff's paper was further discussed by Miss Virginia C. Piper, of Philadelphia, Mrs. Belle Speed, of Kentucky, and Mr. Wise, of Maryland.

The committee on nominations presented the names of the following officers:

For President, Mrs. Rebecca D. Rickoff, New York; for Vice-President, Supt. Aaron Gove, Colorado; Secretary, Supt. F. Trendley, Ohio.

The report was approved, and, on motion, the department adjourned.

MISS BETTIE A. DUTTON,
Secretary *pro tem.*

PAPERS.

INDIVIDUALIZATION BY GROUPING.

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE DEPARTMENT.

I AM told that it is my duty and privilege, as your president for this year, to call to your attention some one point toward which your attention may be specially directed during the coming year. I will, therefore, urge upon you to consider the possibility of doing more to individualize the work of the public schools. The advisability of this has long been seen and acknowledged, but let us consider its possibility. As God has fashioned every human soul and mind after a distinct and separate pattern, of which there is no replica, the ideal school would provide each child with a teacher and a set of studies chosen with reference to his needs and capacities alone. Perhaps in the far-off land of Utopia each child will have two teachers—one for the spiritual and emotional part of his nature, and one for the physical and intellectual—and these will be the father and mother.

But let us be practical. The individual teacher and course is an impossibility, until we have the ideal father and mother, and the ideal state of life which will enable them to devote their whole time to the training of the next generation. Yet something can certainly be done to improve the present condition of school life. I have no doubt that the twentieth century will look back upon our vast system of machine education, in which, as President Harrison remarked to us the other day, the children are treated like pins manufactured in the same factory, with the same pity and surprise with which we look upon the crude institutions of mediæval superstition. Is there any practical step which can be immediately taken in the direction of individualization? I think there is. It cannot be tried in the small schools of villages and country places; but in the large cities, where generous hearts and well-filled purses are ready to respond to every call for an experiment which promises to promote human progress, I think you can at once try this experiment. Every primary teacher knows that she finds now and then among her little ones one whose deft fingers on the slate or blackboard move with almost magical touch, and produce practical results, which the average teacher, taught drawing for class purposes, sees that she cannot teach.

Again, she hears from another pure, cherubic notes, accurately and correctly uttered, which touch the heart and bring tears to the eyes with an untaught skill she cannot equal.

Have not some of you also sometimes received from the little ones, who have been told to write a story, a little tale, infantile it is true, but bear-

ing traces of an imaginative and poetic faculty in which you felt yourself wanting? Here and there, also, we find a child who can solve the problem of intellectual arithmetic more rapidly than his teacher can follow him. Another is a natural mechanician, and his frames, water-wheels, and windmills are the delight of his companions. Long before there was a science of pedagogy, Cicero's keen powers of observation evolved the remark, that children seem to know many things which they have had no opportunity of acquiring, and which they may, therefore, be supposed to have learned in a previous state of existence. The wonderful discoveries made in the study of heredity confirm this bold doctrine of the great orator, and show us that the child does actually bring into this world with him much that had been acquired not only in a previous life, but in a previous individuality. We know now that his education began not merely a hundred years before his birth, but perhaps many thousand. Now, shall we, who boast of our practical course of education, and this great economy of time and labor, put this child, who has even at birth advanced so far into knowledge of music, of art, of style, of mechanics, in the same class in these subjects with one who is merely beginning them? Is it not possible, by the expenditure of additional money, to group the children of our public schools according to their natural bent? Perhaps we shall do it roughly at first, but we shall learn better methods of classification all the time. I should propose, as a first experiment, the following groups: The musical, the artistic (using this word in its ordinary sense), the literary, the mathematical. Let the child for the first two years of its school life be placed under the care and observation of a practical psychologist and teacher, and let her discover during this time to which group he should afterward be assigned. Who can say how many artists, musicians, and poets have been lost to mankind by the Procrustean bed on which we have stretched the short and lopped off the long? These words are merely suggestive. I wish you would consider them during the year, or two years, which must lapse before our next meeting, and see whether you can evolve from them something which may be put into practice.

HISTORY IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

BY M. A. NEWELL, HAVRE DE GRACE, MD.

A PERSONAL reminiscence will furnish an introduction and give the keynote to this brief essay.

When I was between ten and thirteen years of age, I was very fond of reading. Books for the young were not as plentiful then as they are now—a loss not altogether without compensation. I had "Robinson Crusoe" and "Sandford and Merton," but they were soon exhausted. I had also

a small old-fashioned library abounding in theology, but destitute of fiction, with the exception of the books just named and the romances which might be found in the Apocrypha of the "big ha' Bible;" and this last I reserved as a Sunday treat, alternating with Fox's "Book of Martyrs." The only poetry I could find was Young's "Night Thoughts" and Thomson's "Seasons." These I took in homœopathic doses, and (*similia similibus curantur*) my slight craving for poetry was abated. Then I happened on a shelf of history; Hume's "England," Rollin's "Ancient History," Mosheim's "Ecclesiastical History," Jones's "History of the Waldenses and Albigenses," and many others of the same stripe, whose names I have forgotten. These I devoured, dry and indigestible as they were, and suffered no dyspepsia nor loss of appetite. But at an early day I was sent to the Latin school, and one of the books put into my hands was Goldsmith's "History of Rome," which I was to memorize at the rate of four or five pages a day. I finished my task, and it put an end to my enjoyment of history. From that time till Macaulay's first volume was published, I never voluntarily opened an historical book. Then my appetite returned and has been in vigorous operation ever since.

Need I point the moral? The main purpose of learning history in schools should be not the acquisition of facts, but the creation and fostering of a taste for historical literature.

It is necessary to be as precise as possible with regard to the range included in the term "elementary." Babes must have milk, and schoolboys bread, and there comes a time when meat is alleged to be proper and necessary. I do not care to speak positively on this last point, because there may be a vegetarianess among us, and I do not wish to arouse her bump of combativeness. But who shall draw a chronologic line between milkhood and breadhood, or between breadhood and meathood?

In like manner we have a general notion of the primary school as distinguished from the so-called and mis-called grammar school, and of the grammar school as distinguished from the high school; but who shall draw with any precision the lines of demarcation? Let it be understood, then, that in the present essay the term "elementary" is meant to exclude the lower half of the primary and the upper half of the high school course. In other words, it begins where mere story telling leaves off, and ends where original investigation, properly so called, may be supposed to begin. In reality, story telling, story hearing, story reading never leave off. It is a permanent instinct—it is a necessity to the young; an occupation, a rest, and an amusement to the grown-up; a comfort and a solace to the old. But at a certain period, not to be indicated merely by years, it ceases to be educational. It is at that juncture that our work of elementary history begins.

History, according to an old definition, is "philosophy teaching by example." I should prefer to say "philosophy taught by example."

Who can tell when, in a child's mind, the example—the story—begets the philosophy? I have in my own experience a child under six years of age, to whom his mother was in the habit of telling every evening a historical story. Among others was the career and tragic death of Julius Cæsar. The child was overwhelmed. His sympathies were all on the side of the great Julius. But next evening—he had evidently been philosophizing in his childish way—he apologized for his enthusiasm, and said, "Mamma, perhaps Brutus was right—Cæsar might have become too strong for Rome."

I draw this moral: The story may and must be told, orally or from the printed page. The philosophy should be the spontaneous product of the mind. A ready-made philosophy is like peptonized food—useful in individual cases of chronic dyspepsia, but fatal to the healthy development of normal strength in constitutions of normal health. It is here that our advanced and "improved" school books make a great mistake. It is desirable, and one might say indispensable, that a learner should draw a certain inference from certain facts; and the book proceeds to draw the inference, which is valuable only on the condition that the pupil should make the inference for himself. If the moral has to be added to the fable, the fable has been told in vain.

But it will be said, "The child will draw the wrong inference." I answer, "Better so, than that he should draw no inference at all." It is desirable that he should think *rightly*, but it is of prime necessity that he should think *freely*.

Professor Lavisse of the Sorbonne, the author of the latest philosophical compendium of the history of Europe, an admirable work, says in his preface: "This volume presents the sequence of the great phenomena of history, and it also attempts to give the *how* of things. It would be well to add the *why*, if it were not too bold an undertaking." The "why" would certainly be a bold undertaking; and the question is also ambiguous, as some would understand it to apply to the reasons or motives which influenced the actors, and others would refer it to the final cause, known only to the Almighty, and hardly to be even guessed at by mortals. A ludicrous misapplication of the "why" is exemplified in the story of the teacher who asked her class "why the Almighty had caused great rivers to flow by great commercial cities." I adopted several years ago, and followed with satisfactory results, a similar arrangement, but in terms better adapted to the capacity of the class under instruction:

1. The phenomenon—event, occurrence, or historical fact.
2. Its conditions in time and space.
3. Its causes or preparatory antecedents.
4. Its consequences, or subsequences.

Causes again were subdivided into immediate and remote, and consequences into direct and indirect. It seems to me that a course of this

kind helps the learner to consider historical facts in their proper and necessary relations—time, place, cause, and effect. It also provides the means of extending historical knowledge on the same plan from the beginning to the end of the course. The elementary scholar, in studying the history of the civil war, would probably give as the cause, the desire of the South to perpetuate, or at least to regulate without interference, their peculiar institution; and as a consequence, the abolition of slavery. As he advances, he will recognize other contributing causes and a long chain of consequences, until finally he connects with this one historical phenomenon a very long chapter in the history of the United States.

It need not be stated before this audience, that the knowledge of unrelated facts is not permanent, and, even if permanent, would not be educative. Neither need it be said that the knowledge of facts linked together merely by the sequence of time is apt to be among the things that are "shed" soon after leaving school, if not long before that time. But, bound together as links in the chain of causes and consequences, they become part of the permanent furniture of the mind.

The question whether original investigation should be attempted with elementary pupils ought not to be passed over without brief notice. Such a course is certainly desirable, if it were practicable; but I fear it is not practicable. The investigator requires not only material, but a certain amount of skill in the use of the material; he needs a considerable fund of collateral information, which, by the conditions of the case, he has not yet acquired. But even the material is not easily procured. Pupils in cities where they can have access to libraries may do something in this line; but the majority of elementary pupils in the United States have not this resource, and those who have would in many cases simply substitute another piece of second-hand information for that given in their text-book —a useful practice sometimes, but not akin to original investigation. A highly skilled teacher, with an enthusiastic class and a fair supply of material, might accomplish something in this line; but these conditions are exceptional.

Some kind of *work*, however, must be done by the learner, in addition to the exercise of the memory, if history is to be made palatable or even endurable. I can only hint at some of the practicable forms of work; and I assume that the pupil has access to no historical authority except his text-book. This assumption limits the work to the various modes in which the information of the text-book may be thrown into various forms. The work should spring from the lesson of the day, but it is not necessary that all the information should be found in that lesson. It may be contained in previous lessons or in subsequent lessons; for the habit of searching a book for needed information is the first step in original investigation. The pupil may be required to write in a short compass, say in words numbering one-fourth of the words in the lesson, what he considers

to be the most important points. This will stimulate him to compare one event with another and to exercise his faculty of judgment. He will often go wrong, but his error will be the teacher's opportunity.

He may be required to re-write one or two paragraphs, using his own words as much as possible. This will test his power of comprehending the text, and will give the teacher another opportunity.

He may be asked to give in writing his opinion of some prominent character named in the lesson, although he may have to search further for the information needed.

He may be called on to compare two similar characters, or to contrast two dissimilar characters.

He may be required to answer hypothetical questions; such as, What would probably have happened if André had not been arrested? if the French had not aided the Americans? if Mason and Slidell had not been surrendered? if General Lee had won the battle of Gettysburg?

I have considered this problem in its most difficult aspect, on the assumption that the class has access to no historical information outside of the text-book and the teacher. It is to be hoped that this condition is seldom met with. If there be but one pupil who knows something not in the book, he should be encouraged to tell it, *pro bono publico*. If there are several such pupils, there is the beginning of a historical seminary. If auxiliary books are within the reach of all, the teacher will direct the attention of the pupils to the best books; and, if authorities should happen to differ, a beginning will be made in original investigation—a beginning which may be compared to a child's first attempt at walking; but the feeblest beginnings of the infant in the way of self motion are incomparably better than being always dandled in the nurse's arms.

The daily or weekly newspaper is one of the original sources of history, and should be used as such. Some teachers divide the world into sections, and investigate the United States on Monday, the countries north and south of our boundary on Tuesday, England on Wednesday, continental Europe on Thursday, and the rest of mankind on Friday. Others parcel out the topics among the pupils, giving amusements to one, accidents to another, politics to a third, and so on. Ingenious teachers can devise a great variety of methods by which a newspaper can be made one of the most effective of school-books.

There is no need to insist further on the fact, that in the elementary grades it is not acquisition that is of prime importance, but power. And here the examination steps in to mar our theory; for the examination, as usually conducted, tests nothing but the apparent amount of acquisition. May we not hope, however, that the day is coming when some sage superintendent will invent a method of examination which will call into exercise some mental faculty besides memory?

What faculties are cultivated by the judicious study of history in school?

1st, The representative imagination. If the learner cannot form a mental image of the objective phenomena which history describes, his studies have been in vain. If rightly exercised, he will see the spot where "the embattled farmers stood," and will hear "the shot heard round the world;" he will see the red-coats climbing the breastworks at Bunker Hill, twice driven back, and at last successful; he will see the blood-tracks in the snow made by the bare-foot soldiers at Valley Forge; he will see Cornwallis giving up his sword; he will weep with the soldiers who crowded around their loved commander to bid him farewell; he will see the flag floating in "the dawn's early light" over Fort McHenry; he will see the assassin leaping from the box in the theater to the stage; he will see that tremendous charge of Pickett up the rugged slope of Cemetery Ridge, and he will see the recoil of that gallant but shattered column; and he will see the old house at Appomattox, where the two greatest living generals in the world met as enemies, and parted as friends, on terms alike honorable to the victors and the vanquished.

2d, The right study of history stimulates and cultivates all the mental powers involved in the complicated processes which we call reasoning. Acting on the data furnished by the representative imagination, the pupil learns to classify, to compare, to judge, to draw inferences. He learns the art of prophesying—not certainties, but probabilities. He learns that in the moral and political as well as in the natural world "similar combinations of circumstances are followed by similar results." The only obstacle in the way of foretelling certainties lies in the difficulty of determining how far the "circumstances" are similar. He will be able to announce, among the "probabilities" which approximate certainty, that oppression leads to revolution; that a revolution may have a temporary counter-revolution, but that revolutions never go backward permanently; that power once given to a people can never be safely withdrawn; that the most sensitive part of a nation is not individual *life*, but *property;* and that all attempts to make money out of that which has no intrinsic value have proved and must hereafter prove a disastrous failure.

Something ought to be said about dates. Every one says that but few dates should be memorized, and yet almost every teacher requires at successive recitations a very great number of dates from his pupils. The consequence is that pupils get into the condition of Paul Dombey under the instruction of Miss Blimber—awfully mixed. For "whether twenty Romuluses made a Remus, or hic, hæc, hoc were a Troy weight, were open questions with Paul."

Some dates *must* be learned, even as we must learn the multiplication table. The question is how to limit the number so that the memory may have a permanent possession of them.

I have a few suggestions to make, which I hope will lead to discussion:

First, A very few dates must be learned with absolute accuracy. The number I would limit to ten, or at the most twenty.

Second, Many events can be well timed by centuries—the beginning, middle, and end of such a century; *e.g.,* the French Revolution occurred at the close of the eighteenth century, the English Revolution near the end of the seventeenth.

Third, Many events can be placed between two fixed points of time, and the *order* of sequence may often be determined by the principle of cause and effect. And this leads me to say that the important fact in chronological history (having in view elementary history alone) is not the exact year of the event, but the order of sequence between two given dates.

DISCUSSION.

In opening the discussion on the paper on "History in Elementary Education," Prof. S. G. Williams of Cornell University said he desired to bear testimony to the excellence of the recommendations made in this paper. They were all wise and timely; they were capable of being used effectively by any intelligent teacher; and, besides, they recognized, as fully as it could be done by elementary pupils, the threefold work of history study; viz., the search for authorities, the weighing and verification of testimony, and the grouping of facts to a probable historic picture. The important thing with elementary pupils must always be to gain what Montaigne termed the ability to judge histories, and this the paper kept fully in view. It contemplated, however, only text-book work, and work auxiliary to this. But there is a very important work that may profitably precede this and rouse interest in it, by the oral presentation of a series of vivid historic narrations illustrated, where possible, by pictures. These lay hold of the lively interest of children in heroic stories, and if such stories follow a chronological order, they will later be a great aid in fixing the causal sequence of events. Archbishop Fénelon in "L'Education des Filles" suggested such a plan for biblical history, in which the stories were, possibly by design, arranged in the order of time, and later in "Dialogues of the Dead" he gave it somewhat of a dramatic form without following a chronologic order. Dr. Arnold of Rugby, in 1832, advised a series of heroic pictures with appropriate descriptions, chronologically arranged, to aid the historic imagination of boys in the English schools; and two decades later two German teachers, Drs. Spiess and Verlet, prepared a series of biographic narrations extending in chronological order from the myth of Hercules down to the present century. To this they added afterward two other series, each intended to overlap and review the preceding series, and thus to form a set of *vitalized centres* extending through time, about which all future historic acquisitions are likely to group themselves. Such a series of stories introductory to American history has very recently been prepared by Edward Eggleston; and the speaker was inclined to think that the idea might be very profitably utilized in preparing young pupils for the more formal study of history which the paper had in view.

MORAL TRAINING IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

BY Z. RICHARDS, WASHINGTON, D. C.

WITHOUT attempting to discuss the psychological or physiological, the egotistic or altruistic, terminology of "ethics," I propose to consider the subject of "Moral Training in Elementary Schools," by attempting to answer the following question, viz.:

WHAT SHOULD BE TAUGHT IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS?

In the present advanced stage of public school instruction, the number of persons is small who would confine a free public school education to the narrow limits of the three R's, "reading, 'riting, and 'rithmetic." If the largest meaning possible be allowed to reading, we may be able to see that to become fully master of the three R's, would be about all the common school education which nine-tenths of the people of any country actually need.

Of course, reading, in such a case, is not to be understood in its usual narrow and restricted sense, of calling words readily at sight, however important such an accomplishment may be.

If a person becomes not only qualified to call all English words readily at sight, but becomes also sufficiently familiar with their meaning and use to be able to use them, intelligently and intelligibly, in communicating the full import of all words to those who listen to him, he must be a thoroughly educated person. Fruitful as the topic of reading would be, I do not propose to discuss it now.

The only appropriate answer to our opening question, "What should be taught in our public schools?" is briefly given as follows, viz.: "Such branches of education, and only such branches, should be taught in our public free schools, which are sustained by public taxation, as are necessary to make good, honest, law-abiding citizens under the Government."

But as the people of our country are divided into parties and sects, denominational and undenominational, there will be different opinions as to what is necessary to make our youth honest and reliable citizens.

All will agree, probably, that our youth should receive as much of what may be called "secular education" as their time and means will allow.

Very many, perhaps the majority of parents, would be glad to give their children a good and thorough moral training in the public school.

Some would go further and insist upon some system of religious instruction along with secular training. Some, we regret to say (but the number is very small and generally uninfluential), would have neither moral nor religious instruction formally given in public schools, because

they do not want any moral or religious bias brought to bear upon their own children, but would leave them to choose their own course of life; and others because they want their children's moral and religious sentiments to harmonize with their own.

It may be taken for granted that every upright and reasonable parent would be glad to have his own children grow up to become honest, reliable, and respectable in the world.

Now, in view of the fact that the public school system, in this country, has come to stay, what shall be the course of studies best calculated to meet the wants of the several classes of parents above referred to?

This is the question which now claims the attention of all true friends of universal education, and which we now propose to answer.

In the first place, all sound educators agree that a certain amount of what may be called "secular education" ought to be acquired by every child. We may assume, also, that much the largest portion of all respectable people desire to have their children carefully trained in all the moral virtues, as a necessary preparation for good citizenship. And we may also assume that they would prefer to have this moral training given during the school period, while receiving their secular training; for the most effectual moral and intellectual training is always given in the days of childhood and youth.

This is the period also for giving the most effectual religious training. But on account of the numerous conflicting and antagonistic views of religion entertained, both by religious and non-religious people, no one system of *religious instruction* can be required in a free public school supported by common taxation. The public free school, therefore, is not the place for teaching sectarian dogmas or denominational rituals. In this country these must be ruled out of the State schools.

It is somewhat remarkable that most of the hostility to our public school system, on account of alleged godlessness, arises more from the fact that the peculiar denominational and non-essential dogmas and rituals are not enforced in them, than that the essential moral virtues are ignored in them.

But as the prejudices and inconsistencies of people cannot be easily overcome, we must meet them by providing a public school system for all our youth, in which the secular branches, combined with a good training in the moral virtues, shall be faithfully taught and exemplified. This is the kind of public school education which we must have; and if any of the religious denominations insist that their children shall be taught any of the Church dogmas, which are not included in such a system of "moral virtues" as constitute the basis of good citizenship and of a sound moral character, let them resort to the churches, the Sunday school, and the private parochial school, or teach them at home. But if there are any persons who do not want even the "moral virtues"

taught to their children in the public schools, which the State in self-defense is obliged to provide in order to make good citizens of all the youth, let such persons be ignored and treated as unpatriotic ultras and as enemies of good government.

Every State, or every municipality under the State, is obliged, for self-defense and self-preservation, to provide an efficient system for training all the youth in the moral virtues, as well as in secular branches.

No school curriculum ought to be considered as good, or as even tolerable, which does not make moral training the first and the most important element in its course.

We will venture here to specify the most important of the moral virtues, in which we think all our youth ought to be taught.

First, Every child should be taught appropriate reverence for his Creator, and obedience to all His known laws.

Second, Reverence and obedience to his parents, to his guardians, and teachers.

Third, Obedience to all civil laws, and to the civil government of his country.

Fourth, Courteous and proper respect for his superiors, his equals, and even for his inferiors—or a proper regard for the rights of others.

Fifth, The intelligent government and control of his will, including self-control.

Sixth, Conscientiousness, or the controlling of human actions by the dictates of conscience.

Seventh, Honesty, and its kindred virtue, truthfulness.

Eighth, Benevolence, and its companion virtue, beneficence ; including love and acts of charity.

Ninth, Personal cleanliness, or purity of body, of speech, and habits of life.

Tenth, Self-denial, including temperance and all its concomitants—or physical control.

Eleventh, Integrity, or a whole moral character, a harmonious combination of all the moral virtues.

Twelfth, All these virtues should be taught by contrasting them with their corresponding vices.

An appropriate manual or text-book of morals, based upon the foregoing or some similar system of the moral virtues, should be introduced into every elementary school at least, and be judiciously used with as much regularity as any text-book on secular studies.

Right here we meet with formidable difficulties in the way of introducing regular lessons on morals into our public schools.

It has doubtless been observed by many, that for many years past there has been a growing impression in the minds of public school men, that religious and moral training are not a specific work of the public free

school; that it is not the duty of those who employ teachers, nor of those who teach, nor of those who are preparing to teach, to seek for special, personal, moral qualifications, and trained ability to impart and exemplify the moral virtues.

Such qualifications seem to be non-essential, so far as our schools are concerned. Still we are happy to know that not all public school men belong to the class above described.

As the moral, or spiritual, part of our being is of more importance than the physical; in fact, as the physical being derives its chief value and importance from its being the dwelling-place of the spiritual being during its probationary existence, the natural order in the processes of youthful training requires that the spiritual, or moral, being should receive the first and the most important care in all the educational processes.

In the days of our fathers, who originated the public free school, this subject was more highly appreciated and better understood than it is at present. Yea, from the days of our blessed Lord, who said, "Suffer little children to come unto me," rebuking his too fastidious disciples, who, like many of our modern educators, seemed to consider it undignified and weak for their Master, the Great Teacher, to condescend to give moral lessons to the young children who were brought unto him—from our Lord's time, we say, to the present day, the really great and good men and women, who are considered model educators, have not failed to put moral and religious training first and foremost in the school curriculum.

The necessity for early moral instruction seemed to dominate the minds of nearly all the early European reformers in school training.

Comenius, in 1600, said, "The children should early be taught, that not the present, but everlasting life is the object of our being—that time is a preparation for eternity."

Pestalozzi said, "Education ought to be essentially religious and moral. It should penetrate and regulate the entire being."

Froebel, and his most intelligent and earnest disciples, insist upon making the earliest impressions of the child's mind those which will give direction to his moral character. Make the first impressions pure and truthful, as the best preparation for the reception and the controlling influence of sound moral instruction in after life.

It is a latter day notion that pure morality—or, if you please, that sound religious instruction—is to be ruled out of our free elementary schools.

Within the memory of some of us, in some parts of our country, the first step in the examination of a common school teacher was the presentation of a well-vouched certificate of a good moral character. And the civil law, even, required that "sound morality" should be the first essential element in a course of public instruction. But in these days of boasted improvement and enlightenment, we have become so refined and reformed (?), that

in some places the Bible, prayer, and even "instruction in morals" have been expurgated from the school curriculum.

What is stranger and more alarming than all, the moral and religious qualifications of teachers are so far ignored that no preliminary test of moral and of religious fitness for teaching is required; and rarely, if ever, in these days, is the candidate's moral qualification examined. Not only so, but even in our normal and our pedagogical schools and departments, it is very rare that any systematic and thorough moral instruction is given as a preparation for teaching. Of course, all the graduates of such professional schools will not only come from them unqualified morally, but with low ideals of moral character.

The two great and most vital questions in regard to the education of our youth, which merit and demand positive and immediate answers, are as follows:

1. How shall the public sentiment of our people, of the fathers, mothers, and guardians of our youth, be so aroused, reformed, and molded, that the properly recognized authorities shall demand and provide for a course of sound instruction and training in the universally recognized moral virtues in our public schools?

2. When and how shall all the teachers of our public free schools be trained and qualified to give sound moral instruction, theoretically and practically, in all our schools?

The public mind has probably never been so ripe and ready for a proper settlement of these questions as it is now. The importance and claims of these questions have always been acknowledged by thoughtful philanthropists, and they have long been felt by a small number of conscientious educators. What we need now is not so much a "renaissance" as a new creation of public sentiment on moral education.

While we abhor pessimism and chronic fault-finding as among the troublesome evils of human society, we nevertheless feel constrained to say that there is at the present time an alarming amount of fastidiousness and sensitiveness, if not of irreligion, in regard to the subject of moral and religious instruction in public schools. Many who are bold and courageous in political and sectarian matters are fearful and cowardly on the question of moral instruction in schools. Yet these fearful souls are oftentimes ready to denounce the deficiencies and inefficiencies of our public schools.

They see, what we all know exists, an alarming amount of youthful depravity in almost every community; but, strange to say, they are inclined to attribute the evils of this depravity to the teaching in our public schools, and see no way of overcoming them except by teaching history, mathematics, and the sciences more thoroughly. Some tell us that the four cardinal virtues are effectually taught in our schools, when they secure "regularity, punctuality, silence, and industry." These are indeed im-

portant factors, or rather conditional aids, in securing a correct moral training; but they cannot be considered as positive virtues, for they are just as essential to a perfect, unintelligent steam engine as to an intelligent human being.

It must be evident to every one, that mere abstract negative principles can never supply the place of pure and positive moral virtues. If there must be four cardinal principles of human training, let them be: 1st, the training of the motives; 2d, the training of the will; 3d, the training of the conscience; and 4th, the training of the sense of accountability.

Now, the great question before all philanthropic educators is, "How shall the public conscience and the hearts of the ruling masses be so aroused, enlightened, and inspired, that the people will take hold of this question and agitate it in the family, in all public gatherings, in the halls of legislation, in the sabbath-schools, in the churches, and in every public gathering, until our legislators shall give their constituents such laws as will require public instruction in the moral virtues in every free public school, and at the same time provide professional schools where all the teachers shall learn how to impart and exemplify sound instruction in morals, as well as in secular branches?"

To secure these important results, the following suggestions are submitted:

First, Every parent must, by some means, be made to believe and feel that the moral training of his children is of more importance than any or than all other kinds of human training, because it is the only sure and safe guarantee of their present and future success and happiness, even in this life.

Self-interest, if they have no higher motive, should be sufficient to inspire every parent. It is of vital importance that parents should be in earnest about this matter, or it will be next to impossible to make the guardians of our schools and our lawmakers feel that they have something to do in this noble work.

Second, Every patriot and lover of his country should be made to see and feel that neither property nor life nor the public welfare is safe and secure in any country or community where the children and youth grow up without receiving sound moral instruction and training.

True patriotism is the result of virtuous citizenship. An immoral man cannot be a good citizen; and good citizens do not grow up by accident nor by spontaneity, but they become such by virtuous, exemplary training.

Every lover of his country should, therefore, not only take a deep interest in public school education, but use his positive and constant influence to have a systematic course of moral training made the leading and prominent part of the school curriculum; and not, as now, a neglected or merely incidental *ad libitum* branch of instruction.

Third, Every legislator and friend of the physical prosperity of his country should be made to see and feel that the careful moral training of all our youth constitutes not only the basis, but is really the chief promoter of commercial and national growth and strength.

Railroads, merchant vessels, mining and banking corporations, manufacturing companies, geological surveys, and astronomical observations, are chiefly valuable only as they serve to promote the moral development of the masses of the people.

Our legislators, therefore, should provide, by judicious laws, for a systematic moral training in all our State normal and common schools.

Fourth, Every philanthropist and Christian should be profoundly impressed with the fact, that the careful training of our youth in the moral virtues is the best preliminary preparation for works of true charity, and for a righteous and holy life. Whether such youth ever become Christians or not, they make not only the best citizens, but are the more likely to become positively religious.

In answering the question at the head of this paper, we have not intended to formulate a curriculum, nor to speak of all the branches of a necessary course of school training, but particularly to emphasize the necessity for embracing a branch of instruction which in many places is entirely ignored, and nowhere used as it ought to be. But what is worse than all, in view of the fact, which almost every one will admit, that "moral training" is more important than any or than all other branches of school training, this most important part of youthful training is becoming more and more neglected; and we are constrained to believe, that as a result of this neglect, so far as our schools are concerned, the youth of our country are becoming more and more demoralized and unfitted for good citizenship.

Our motive for preparing this paper is to awaken, if possible, more interest, and to secure some decisive action toward placing "moral training" at the head of all public school curricula, and securing its general and thorough enforcement in our schools.

THE NATURAL SCIENCES IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

BY PROF. S. G. WILLIAMS.

In this closing decade of the nineteenth century, and in this representative body of enlightened teachers, it will doubtless be safe to take for granted that all will agree that the great leading purpose of youthful education is a harmonious and all-sided development of the human capabilities; that the attainment of certain kinds of knowledge, which is the

essential school means for developing the powers of the young, is useful only in so far as it coincides with the growth of power to use this knowledge in appropriate ways; that hence every desirable form of knowledge should be so presented as not only to insure its retention, but also to assure the exercise of the very powers it is fitted to develop; that, in truth, acquisitions can be *vitalized* only by *method;* and, finally, that a harmonious development of all the human capabilities will demand the *duly proportioned* and *continuous* use in all classes of schools of means suited to develop efficiently in the child all these capabilities, and to enable him to sympathize intelligently with all the leading interests of his race.

The employments that may be used in schools fall into five somewhat natural groups, *viz.*, language, mathematics, the sciences of nature, history, and those exercises which, like writing and drawing, train the physical dexterities and react on taste. Each of these has its own special kind of truth and its own special method of striving after it. Each, rightly pursued, trains the powers of the student in its own peculiar and salutary direction. Together they store the growing intelligence with knowledge which may gradually interact and combine to form *wisdom,* and to fit the mature man to grapple successfully with all the problems that life may present. Together, also, they correspond with the great currents of lively human interest. These, then, together with those other subtle influences which shape character, and in which studies rightly pursued only indirectly yet powerfully coöperate, are our school means for promoting a harmonious and all-sided development. All should be provided for by suitable representatives in every part of a well-constructed curriculum, from the lowest primary to the university where specialization properly begins.

It is no part of the purpose of this paper to discuss the interesting question of the proper proportioning and arrangement of these several parts of a truly liberal education. This is a question which may well tax the powers of our wisest and most experienced schoolmen, as it is even now doing in Germany. What is essential to our present purpose is the idea of *unbroken continuity* in the use of every group of studies, remembering always that in the higher stages of advancement, the mathematics and physical dexterities, by becoming useful tools, may need little special attention.

So much has seemed necessary to be said in a general way that we may be properly oriented for the subject that we have immediately in view. For if all groups of subjects should be represented in instruction, then the sciences of nature should not be neglected. If, for the purpose of insuring desirable intellectual habits, such instruction should be unbroken, then it becomes us to inquire, what portions of science may profitably be used in the most elementary classes, in what way these portions should be presented, and what aim should be kept steadily in view in such instruction.

But the first two of these inquiries can receive a satisfactory answer only when we have a clear idea of what the sciences of nature should contribute to the equipment of the completely developed man. Knowing this, we shall know for what the teacher should be held responsible in science-teaching. We shall have a definite purpose to attain, and shall thus be in a better position to select our means judiciously and to use them efficiently. Hence, as in all other teaching, so emphatically here, the question of *aim* to be gained must take precedence of all others; and it hardly admits of doubt that the unsatisfactory results of past science-teaching are due more largely to vague notions in this respect than to any other cause. Although animated instruction in science is pleasing to the young, its primary purpose is not merely to afford innocent pleasure. Although correct science-teaching opens wide fields of useful information, its chief purpose is not knowledge, but the ability to gain knowledge, and therewith the ability and the disposition to be all one's life a learner.

Now, all sciences of nature have their very foundation in correct and definite *observation* of the facts which nature presents. It is therefore of the very essence of science that the pupil should first of all be taught to *observe*—to use his own senses directly upon appropriate objects—and thus to increase their delicacy and power by repeated use; and, moreover, to give an account of what he has in any way experienced, that the fact of observation may be assured, and that its results may be embodied in language. But when even the youngest child is thus brought into direct contact with nature, he is quick to note the infinite variety which she presents, to see that this object is similar to that and quite unlike the other. Incipient powers of comparing and judging emerge, and should be appealed to in all possible ways; for ripeness of judgment results only from repeated acts of judging. Rude and then more perfect classifications result from the grouping of the like and the separation of the unlike; and the beginning of class notions is made which future experience shall fill with ever clearer and more definite meaning, until gradually and almost unconsciously the pupil grows to a considerable mastery of the general and abstract terms which make so large a part of the language of the more enlightened members of his race. Even those larger operations called generalization and induction from observed facts and phenomena should have their definite beginnings in some parts of the elementary course, and especially in certain easy and natural observations of physical phenomena. The youngster whose attention has a few times been directed to the flash of a distant gun, and to the report which more tardily reaches his ear, can readily be taught to infer that sound travels more slowly than light, and to apply his generalization to lightning and the resultant roll of thunder.

Thus it is obvious that the aim which the science teacher should keep ever clearly in view is first of all to train the senses to ever-growing

accuracy and completeness in observation ; as accessory to this, to secure the expression and interpretation of what is observed ; to neglect no opportunities, however slight, for the exercise of judgment ; and to advance, gradually, indeed, but always with definite purpose, toward the classification and generalization of results secured by direct personal observation. It will be observed that the keynote of the whole matter is *direct contact* with nature, and a diligent study of what she has to teach through the proper use of trained senses. Through these, important *vitalized centres,* or, in Herbartian phrase, apperceiving masses, are gradually formed, to which all later acquisitions naturally gravitate, like to like. And when we consider how deeply the results of early habits of observation affect all the higher uses of the intellect, and how frequently through their lack the results of the highest intellectual and spiritual efforts are clouded by doubt or vitiated by error, we can but be surprised that so little definite attention has hitherto been given to this primal source of knowledge, and to the most effective means for its development, the elements of natural science.

The aim which we should strive to reach in elementary science-teaching being definitely determined, we come next to the consideration of the means that may be used. Here it will be found that a considerable latitude is afforded for choice, depending in part on what the locality most abundantly supplies; in part, and even more largely, on the tastes and acquirements of the teacher. In one place these circumstances may combine to dictate the study of plants, in another of insects or of living higher animals, in another of minerals and rocks, and in still another of the objects of the sea—its pebbles and its plant and animal life. In every place the definite study is at hand, and ought never to be neglected, of the relative position, direction, and distance of various local objects, which the Germans aptly call "knowledge of the home," as a key to the wider study of the globe on which we dwell. By the faithful and skillful use of any of these means, extending over large portions of the early school life, the powers of observing and judging may be efficiently trained, while a love for nature and the objects she presents may be inculcated which will not only foster the germs of good taste, but also prove a great moral safeguard in the critical period of youth.

Of these various branches of the wide tree of science, it will probably be found that the study of plants will be the most widely available, furnishing objects everywhere attainable and interesting, affording the most abundant means for multiplied observations and easy comparisons suggestive of classification, and cherishing most directly a love for the beautiful in nature. Next in general availability to the study of plants is doubtless the observational study of minerals and rocks. Few places, even crowded cities, fail to supply abundant materials for such study to the ingenious and observant teacher; and where crystalline minerals can be obtained,

they have the advantage of furnishing an introduction through natural forms to the later study and description of geometric forms of which some city schools make use for training to habits of observation. A ground of preference of the two subjects here named, over any of those involving the study of living creatures, may be found in the fact that they furnish no occasions for giving pain or uneasiness to animals, whilst they give a wide and harmless range for observation and comparison. Doubtless at more advanced stages of the work of the elementary schools, when pupils have become more considerate, and when careful training in observation and comparison has made them able to detect higher similarities amidst puzzling adaptive changes in structure, certain elementary zoölogical observations may with good teaching be made profitable. Yet beyond the barest elementary comparisons of the more obvious points of structure, such zoölogical studies may well be left to more advanced stages of progress than we are considering, and the attention of the more experienced pupils directed to the always attractive play of physical forces. In this, it need hardly be said, a great field is opened for the highest skill of the teacher; for here not only is observation to be exercised on phenomena rather than on objects, but generalization plays a larger part; with the occurrence of invariable sequences, causal relations are to be traced; and amidst all the interplay of blind forces the pupil is to be brought gradually to discern the reign of unchanging laws.

I am, therefore, inclined to recommend that in the elementary schools attention should be confined to the observational study of plants, of minerals and rocks, of the local features which introduce to geography, and of the simplest and easiest phenomena of physics, with perhaps some structural study of the common animals. Where circumstances permit the study of all these, the observation of some of the more striking parts of plants, like leaves, may be begun with the youngest classes, may at some distance be followed and *alternated* with the examination of local characteristics and of minerals, and may in later stages of progress be succeeded by the elements of physics; the elements of zoölogical structure occupying the latest place as demanding the greatest maturity of mind. Where but two can be used, they should be botany and physics, both of which admit of extended use without overpassing the growing powers of youth. Quite possibly in the schools of crowded cities, minerals and rocks, succeeded by geometric forms, and then by physics, may do good service. Certainly in at least one of the schools of Boston the study of minerals has met with great success.

We come now to the important question, how to use the means which the various branches of natural science offer for the attainment of the end that has been proposed. And first and foremost, all useful teaching in the elements of science must be purely oral and observational, the teacher bringing the pupils into direct contact with Nature, and the

objects that Nature presents. Let nothing like a text-book intrude; for such is the tendency of human nature in schoolrooms, that, when text-books on such subjects enter, Nature at once flies out of the window, and direct observation gives place to mere uninterested efforts of memory *about* Nature. Books may indeed play a most useful part in confirming and aiding to correlate what has already been observed; but their only safe place is in grades beyond the elementary, and even there they need to be carefully watched lest they usurp the place of both teacher and Nature, and arrogate to themselves functions which do not at all belong to them. This last remark is true also of subjects other than scientific: in science it points to a source of positive danger. Hence let teachers of elementary science, in preparing their lessons, study carefully the objects they are to present, and glean useful hints from books; but let them when they enter the class-room leave all books behind.

A second suggestion, which is of first-rate importance, is this, that in the class-room the pupils, even the youngest, should make their own experiments, use their own senses, handle with their own fingers. To be sure at the outset they will be awkward and purblind. Practice only can make them acute and dexterous. At first they will see little save the most salient points. Questions brief and skillfully directed will guide them to still others, and interest will grow with that on which it feeds. The duty of the teacher here is to be the unobtrusive guide, the sympathetic friend, the wise suggester, while Nature herself instructs. Such mere guidance is not always easy. The teacher is often tempted to *tell* the pupils what is plainly before their eyes. But don't. Wait a little, drop a suggestive question, show eager interest, and when your pupils have overcome the difficulty by their own efforts, both they and you will be repaid by their feeling of growing confidence for future trials of their powers. What is told is apt to lack life and to slip soon away; what the child experiences remains. If something needs to be told—and who can say that occasions for telling may not arise?—tell it freely at the outset, and illustrate until the matter is brought clearly within the range of the child's experience; but consider carefully whether there is not a way in which the pupil may discover what you would tell by his own effort under your guidance. What needs always to be borne in mind in this teaching is that your pupils' ability to observe and judge can be developed to readiness and strength only by their own use of such powers, not by your ready use of yours. You can as easily digest their food for them, as train their senses and powers of comparison by merely using yours.

My third suggestion is that the child's ability to embody his sense-experiences and his efforts of judgment in appropriate language should keep even pace with his progress in these regards. When he has fully grasped some new fact, if the words of his present vocabulary will fitly express it, let him use them. If not, give him the essential new words,

write them before him, and see that he uses them correctly both now and when future occasions arise. In this way alone can his ability to use with precision language, that peculiarly human instrument, keep pace with his intellectual growth. With regard to scientific terms, it may be said, that, as they have been devised to express certain characters or facts with precision and brevity, it will probably be found expedient to use them frankly from the first, taking care always that the idea bring with itself the need of the word. When clear ideas are to be embodied, the young learn needful new words readily enough. The difficulty with scientific terms arises when they are presented without any facts to correspond to them. Properly introduced, they will be found helpful rather than troublesome, and they will save pupils the inconvenience in more advanced stages of progress of changing from somewhat vague common words to terms more precise.

When pupils have learned to write and to draw with some degree of readiness, very effective means are afforded for assuring acuteness and definiteness of observation. "Writing," says Bacon, "maketh an exact man;" and when pupils attempt to delineate what they see, it will be found that vision penetrates more deeply into the characters of objects and discerns those that are less obvious. Hence they should be encouraged, if not required, to write about what they observe, in the form either of systematic lists of characters or of connected descriptions, and to resort to the pencil as another means of expression. Even somewhat more advanced pupils who have had no lessons in drawing show a surprising readiness in the use of the pencil when they see a useful purpose which it may subserve. I have very recently had a convincing proof of this in several collections of botanical drawings, by such pupils, which have been sent for my inspection.

Written notes and careful drawings are an excellent preparation for the more advanced work in classifying numerous objects to which the elementary work in botany should lead. It is obvious from what has already been said that definite and complete observation should precede every attempt at classification. Probably such work should begin by the separation of collections of objects, whether plants, minerals, or rocks, into groups based on their prominent observed characters, and the rectification of these groupings by a closer comparison of characters. When, however, the time comes for the use of manuals with analytical keys, great care will be needed that pupils first do their work of observing carefully and systematically, and advance as far in the classification as their knowledge will permit, before resorting to the manual. For example, in botany, if pupils have made a study of some member of the rose or lily family, they should thereafter be expected to need no table of analysis in the recognition of any new members of the same families. It may be remarked here that in botany the assignment of plants to their classes has the great

merit of serving as a *test* and keeping an effectual check on the thoroughness of our observation. A like advantage, but on the side of generalization, is presented in the case of physical science.

Finally it will be found most serviceable, in securing a healthy and enduring interest in natural history studies, and in training youth to have their eyes and thoughts about them wherever they go, to encourage the making and arrangement of collections of natural objects. These collections may be for the school, in which case they should be so cared for as to express value ascribed to them, or they may belong to the collector. Children and youth have an instinct for collection; if they find nothing better, they gather postage stamps or coins, or even buttons. This craving may be turned to good account in the elementary study of nature; and if to this be added, as an auxiliary, class excursions for the study of certain phases of nature, the strong social instinct will be enlisted in behalf of such study. German elementary schools, under less favorable conditions, find such excursions both feasible and instructive. Why may not also we?

Throughout this discussion the competent teacher, gifted with sound pedagogic sense, has been assumed. A somewhat thorough previous acquaintance with the sciences of nature is of course desirable. Yet it is by no means impossible that an earnest and progressive teacher, thoroughly alive to the value of the kind of training here advocated, and disposed to do vigorous work, may fit herself by private observation and study, not only to give most useful lessons to young pupils, but also ultimately to do the highest work demanded by elementary schools. Such teachers will find some of our best summer schools very helpful. There are, besides, numerous elementary works to aid them by suggesting how to attack the problems that the study of nature presents. Several highly suggestive "Guides for Science Teaching," under the auspices of the Boston Society of Natural History, have recently been issued by D. C. Heath & Co. For the teacher of botany, Miss Youmans's First and Second Books of Botany, with Gray's Lessons, would be excellent, as also No. 2 of the "Guides" just named. Nos. 12 and 15 of the same "Guides" would be very helpful in the study of minerals and rocks, to which I may be permitted to add the first two chapters of my own work on "Applied Geology." For elementary physics, a recent work by Dr. Edward R. Shaw, entitled "Physics by Experiment," and the "Elements of Natural Philosophy," by Prof. Cooley of Vassar, would be valuable aids. In this brief list of books which would be suggestive to the teacher in preparing for her work, I do not intend to give any preferred catalogue, but merely to name some of the helpful treatises that lay at my hand in the preparation of this paper. Doubtless many that are equally helpful and equally suggestive may be known to many of you. But pray remember to use them only as helps, and by no means permit them to intrude upon your work in the elementary class-room.

Let us, in conclusion, briefly recapitulate the positions of this paper on the elementary teaching of natural science. (1) The teaching should be progressive and continue through the entire course of the elementary schools, with lessons as frequent as the relative importance of the subject demands. (2) Its aim should be to assure habits of careful and definite observation, of comparison, and finally of classification and generalization. (3) Its most available means are likely to be the study of plants, of local features, of minerals and rocks, and of the most interesting physical phenomena. (4) The work should be done through the direct observation of objects and phenomena, and without text-books; the pupils themselves should do the work under the wise and sympathetic guidance of the teacher, and embody its results in fitting language, oral or written, or in drawings; the work should lead ultimately to classification and easy generalizations; and throughout its course the making of collections, and field lessons and excursions, will be very serviceable.

DISCUSSION.

Prof. Williams, of Cornell University, closed the discussion on "Elementary Science in the Public Schools." Controverting an idea that had been expressed, that no special training was needed for the observing powers, since the unaided experiences of the child developed them sufficiently, he said that this too common opinion was negatived by the general experience of the race. Nothing is more common than errors of opinion arising from failure of exact observation of the most simple facts and circumstances. Professors in charge of laboratories usually find that they must begin by teaching young men how to use senses that ought to have been trained in elementary schools. Such training, skillfully and systematically given from the very outset of school life, would not only give pupils a lively interest in the school, but would prove of incalculable advantage to all the other work of the school, since its difficulties spring largely from lack of definite use of the senses, and especially of the sense of sight. It is a mistake to suppose that the elementary knowledge of science that may be gained in the public schools is of little value. To the vast majority of pupils it is all they will ever acquire; yet, after all, the mere *information* that is gained by any one, whether in school or college, is of far less importance than that familiarity with the *method* of science which may enable a man to be all his life a learner. If the boy at school has learned to observe thoroughly and accurately, to compare and judge habitually, and, finally, to classify and generalize his experiences, he will be equipped for a successful life, whether the number of scientific facts that he brings away with him be many or few. The method vitalizes the facts, and gives them a value they could not otherwise attain.

PROCEEDINGS AND ADDRESSES

OF THE

SECONDARY DEPARTMENT.

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY INSTRUCTION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.

THE department was called to order at 3 P.M., in the First Presbyterian Church, Saratoga Springs, N. Y., by the President, Frank E. Plummer. The Recording Secretary being absent, the Corresponding Secretary acted in that capacity.

President Plummer delivered his annual address, after which Superintendent Denfield read a paper on "High School Discipline." The paper was discussed by E. W. Coy, M. H. Paddock, J. T. Buchanan, J. M. Starke, and W. W. Birdsall.

A paper was then read by Walter A. Edwards, on the subject of "History."

The third paper, by J. L. Halloway, on "The Duty of the Secondary Schools in Relation to the World's Fair," was discussed by Messrs. McBroom, Curry, Paddock, and Denfield; Mrs. Wilmarth and Miss Spencer.

After appointment of the usual committees, the department adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.

SARATOGA, June 14th, 1892.

At 3 o'clock the programme was opened by a selection on the organ. After this the Committee on Nominations, through the Chairman, E. W. Coy, of Cincinnati, reported as follows:

President, J. S. Crombie, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Vice-President, Amelia E. Trent, Buffalo, N. Y.

Secretary, W. H. Bartholomew, Louisville, Ky.

The report was adopted.

President Plummer then read a report which he had been requested to prepare on matters contained in his Toronto address of last year.

The paper was discussed by M. H. Paddock who favored the plan proposed, and also by E. W. Coy who opposed it. Mr. Paddock then read a set of resolutions favoring the appointment of a committee, and moved that the report be adopted. The resolution was discussed by Mr. Curry, of New York, and Mr. Kirk, of Chicago. Mr. Bacon, of Boston, moved an amendment to the resolution, striking out the enacting clause, which was carried. The original motion, as amended, was taken up and passed. It is as follows :

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed, of which Frank E. Plummer shall be Chairman, to devise a plan of high school extension in accordance with his report, and to report at the next annual meeting.

A paper was then read on "Usage as Authority in Matters of Language," by Brainerd Kellogg, of Brooklyn.

Next was read a paper on "Physical Education in our Schools," by Miss R. Anna Morris, of Des Moines, Iowa.

The paper was discussed by W. G. Anderson, of Brooklyn, New York ; Mrs. Annie Jenness Miller discussed the subject; Principal Hovey, of Newark, N. J., made remarks upon the question and propounded several inquiries. Miss D. E. Voll, of Hornellsville, N. Y., also gave some interesting facts on the topic. Dr. Claes Einesbuske gave a talk on the Swedish method of physical education. Mrs. Homans, of Boston, indorsed the Swedish system. Mrs. Leiter, in the same connection, stated her views in regard to what she thought were defects in modern education as regards physical training. J. M. Hawley, of North Carolina, Mrs. Spencer, of Washington, Mrs. Douglas, of Brooklyn, all debated the different systems pro and con. Next came the report of the Committee on the Exhibit at the World's Fair, which is as follows :

Mr. President : Your committee, appointed to confer with the State superintendents relative to the best steps to be taken by this department to secure a complete and thorough exhibit from the secondary schools of the country, beg leave to report as follows: We think it advisable for this department to adopt the following resolutions, to wit:

Resolved, First, that it is the sense of this department that the appointed power of each State appoint a sub-committee from the members of a general committee already appointed, whose attention shall be directed solely to the exhibit of secondary schools.

Second, That this body urge upon all representatives of secondary schools the earnest prosecution of this work and their cordial coöperation with the special committee of their respective States in securing a complete exhibit of every phase of their work.

Respectfully submitted.

J. L. Halloway,
D. B. Denfield,
H. S. Purdy,
M. H. Paddock,
Ray Greene Huling,
} *Committee.*

The report was unanimously adopted.

W. T. White then offered the following resolution, which was also adopted:

Resolved, That the committee on exhibit of secondary schools at the World's Fair be continued, with power to add two members to their number to correspond, gather information, make suggestions, and serve in any capacity as representatives of the secondary section that may seem advisable.

The following were appointed as the extra members: E. H. White, Des Moines, Ia.; J. L. Taff, Austin, Tex.

After some remarks by the president, the meeting adjourned.

W. T. WHITE, *Secretary.*

PRESIDENT'S OPENING ADDRESS.

BY FRANK E. PLUMMER.

Ladies and Gentlemen, and Fellow Teachers of Saratoga and of this Continent: I greet you. I give you welcome, free and warm. What a great gathering this! How representative! How significant! How important! From every section of the Union, and from the remotest parts of this continent, ye come. New England is here—New England, with her older civilization and honored institutions of learning; New England, whose great men and women, great in heart and intellect, have gone out over our country in steady streams, bearing kindness and culture with them. The West is here—the West, the land of gold and glory, the land rich in mines and men, and richer still in climate and character; the West, with its mountains and its valleys, its minerals and its pasturage, its sunshine and its hopes. And the South-land of America is here—the South-land, with its hospitality, its eloquence, and its future; the sunny section of our country, snow-white with its cotton fields, fragrant with blended perfumes of the magnolia and the jessamine, and always esteemed for its delicate refinement, its beauty, and its chivalry.

And the great Central Plain, the heart of our nation; the central section, as priceless in her possibilities as in her present possessions; rich in her fields of waving grains, proud of her virtuous homes, safe in her schools and churches, and honored for her thrift, intelligence, push, and power. Then, too, the "Land of Montezuma's Children of the Sun" is here—"a land in which three great civilizations, and the remains of the fiercest barbarism, side by side, in peace, beneath the stars and stripes, abide." And Canada, the land of our cousins to the North, is represented here—the land of piety and peace, of industry and happy homes; she who last year invited us to her domains, intertwined our flag with hers, and welcomed us and entertained us as only the great warm heart of a cold country can. Yes, from all these great sections of a great continent we come. And our coming is significant, our marshaling important; for we come with a purpose.

True, this is our vacation-time—our outing. We seek change and pleasure. These we need, and these we shall find. Here we may find congenial society and worthy fellowship. Then let our hearts glow with fraternal feeling toward our friends, whilst we strive to strike responsive chords in the hearts and feelings of our new-found acquaintances. But we must not forget that close to our hearts one great central purpose lies—a purpose better than personal pleasure; above personal influence. You

are here possessed of a grand purpose. You are here to lift still higher the standard of universal education. The particular mission of this especial meeting is to thoughtfully and profoundly consider how best to make our high schools and academies accomplish their difficult, double duty as fitting and finishing schools, that the American boy and girl may be rightly prepared and richly equipped for the duties of both business and social life. You are here to deliberate how best to plan and how best to execute the work, that the boys and girls of the future may know the full value of a virtuous, free, and enlightened people. At this meeting we must accomplish more than the mere reading of papers. You are leaders of thought in your respective sections. You are able and ready, and it is expected of you to here declare your intelligent thought on the topics about to be discussed. You should crystallize your conclusions into acceptable, well-defined policies, which shall settle mooted questions, and which shall go far toward making method and matter in educational science definite, reliable, suitable, sufficient. Let what you say to-day go out as worthy measures, definite policies, and crystallized conclusions, so that the young teachers of our land, and the rank and file of the profession, hearing them, from them may be informed, and may shape their work and the general trend of educational progress with confidence, without experiment and without doubt. So, too, I urge that each of you, as you go from this meeting, go strengthened and enthused by the results and conclusions here arrived at, that your own work during the coming year may be a sweeping, onward stride in educational principles, thus lifting it yet higher toward an ideal perfection. And you will do this, for you are of the number who believe in educated masses, rather than amassed millions; in decrease of illiteracy, rather than in expanse of territory; and, while you know that natural growth is good, you are firm in the belief that intellectual development is better, and so your lives will be devoted to the great aim and end of securing it. I feel constrained at this time to mention, briefly, important matters especially relating to the teacher and to the profession. I believe in thought-kinship. There is such a thing as intellectual ties; such a thing as a family circle of culture; such a thing as a hearthstone of educated mind, around which to gather and talk over some of the brainwork of life, and where, as we sit peering into the glowing embers on the grate, we have our thoughts and our feelings warmed and enkindled until they fuse into a refined, harmonious, liberal conclusion, acceptable to all alike. We are gathered around that intellectual hearthstone to-day. All here congregated are intellectually related, for your scholarly attainments were secured under a common tutor—thought; for your high culture came from an exercise of the same powers—energy, application, persistency; for your successes and your reputations as teachers have come to you from a similar source—the high schools and academies.

Therefore, O ye lovers of learning, ye miners in deep philosophic truths, ye sailors on the limitless ocean of literature, ye hunters in the labyrinthian forests of psychological principles, ye brain workers for the improvement of humanity, "know your brothers, recognize your kin, greet your intellectual fellows, and strengthen each other by a generous appreciation of each other's work." Let each one here catch the idea of this thought-kinship, that a thought-sympathy and a heart-sympathy may spring into a glowing, vivid reality toward all others engaged in the same great work. This sympathetic feeling and loyal support in the great thought-lines of life are duties which every man and woman of honest heart, earnest purpose, and breadth of intellect owes those pursuing a common trend of study and work. Extend this sympathy and this assistance to your fellow teachers, and your profession will be ennobled, the cause of education subserved, and you yourselves will grow strong in honesty of purpose, loyalty, and love. I believe teachers as a class need to feel a deeper professional responsibility. Every profession is debtor to the world, and each individual is, in turn, debtor to his profession. Your profession, and your skill in it, is society's investment in you, from which returns are rightfully expected, and will be demanded at your hands. Yes, a universal law of compensation requires you to give back to humanity through your profession, in equal measure and with equal liberality, all of which your powers and your opportunities will permit. Thus will a generous public be justly dealt with; thus will you contribute your quota to the sum of human happiness and human usefulness; and thus will you build high your noble calling. This is your duty. The teacher's calling, which belongs at the head of all occupations, especially deserves loyal and hearty support. That distinguished artist, Gustave Doré, exclaimed, "I think for my art!" Herein lies the secret of his success; here is the element of his greatness. God grant that we, fellow teachers, may be imbued with this same sentiment, and acclaim in truth and with power, "I live for my profession, my intellectual calling, my chosen department of the high work of life."

When we can bring ourselves to think kindly and helpfully of our fellow teachers, when we come to live loyally and constantly for our profession, human advance will be more sudden and certain, and the greatest educational good and growth will be the consequence. Then professional courtesy will be practised by all; then jealousy, that curse of the teacher's profession, will no longer limit individual and professional growth; then instruction will be effective, because aid in methods and encouragement in efforts will be freely bestowed; then discipline will be easy and just, because love, and generosity, and knowledge, will enter in as principal factors. One word more. Some of us never fully realize, while others of us often forget, what *a great charge* we assume when we take up the noble, difficult work of teaching. I shall never forget the impassioned,

sensible words of a patron to a member of the Des Moines school board—the member, a Christian; the patron, an unbeliever. He said, "John, you have for your daily model, your constant example, a Christ. My children are with their teacher three-fourths of their daylight hours, and she is to them throughout their childhood years their model, their example. Do I ask too much when I ask you to select for their model the best teacher to be found?" Fellow teachers, let us ask ourselves three plain questions: Do we love our fellow teachers well enough? Do we rank our profession high enough? Do we feel sufficiently the deep responsibility we assume when we accept the position of being a living, ever-present example to a community of young people, who will pattern after us, appropriating our virtues and our vices with equal avidity, and which will with equal certainty show again in their lives, and in the lives again of those whom they in turn influence? Let the teachers select for their principles a trinity of virtues—mutual helpfulness, loyal professional support, and a higher standard of fitness—and on these erect a mighty brotherhood. Let the teachers establish a fraternity on these sublime principles and high purposes, and their labors of love and works of mercy will outweigh and outlast all the good deeds of all the oath-bound civic orders combined, and the teachers can and will then proclaim, "Peace on earth: good-will to men."

DISCIPLINE IN HIGH SCHOOL.

BY R. E. DENFIELD, DULUTH, MINN.

So many well-known conditions enter into a discussion of this subject that it is impossible to present it in phases that are new.

In reviewing the position of the high school with reference to other educational institutions and the community, we find that it is indeed the crowning point of common school education, and, as such, occupies a sort of middle ground between the grades and the colleges and universities. It aims to prepare for business life, and at the same time, in a limited way at least, for the more advanced work pursued in colleges or in special schools.

When one considers the number of pupils whose term of schooling ends with the high school, and compares that number with those who enter more advanced institutions, one cannot fail to be impressed with the fact that the general training of this school must conform to the needs of the public as those needs are manifest.

Where State boards exist, the tendency is to make the school a feeder to the university, and its curriculum correspondingly changed. Where

there is no such superior authority, public sentiment demands shorter courses; and the school becomes, as it were, a high grammar school, nominally, for the sake of economy, and to meet the charge that the community should send such as desire a collegiate training to some preparatory school, the desire being to get nearer the practical side of life. From this it seems that the standard of the schools must vary, and exhibit, necessarily, different degrees of proficiency and training.

The discipline, however, in each will be very much the same, and merely a continuation of what was found best in the grades below, adapted, of course, to conditions dependent upon age, studies, etc.

Now, what is understood by the term discipline? We are told that it is that part of education, which, on the one hand, assures the industry of the pupils by maintaining good order in the school, and exciting their zeal, and which, on the other hand, working for more remote and higher purposes, prevents or represses irregularities of conduct, and tends to train resolute wills and energetic characters, capable of self-control; and that it thus serves the double purpose of establishing the actual government of the school, and of teaching pupils to govern themselves after school-life closes.

It is, therefore, a means, and not an end. Its main purpose is to secure attention and application, and so proper instruction and the development of strong characters.

That kind of discipline, then, is the best which attains its end with the least friction, and appeals most forcibly to the higher motives, repressive or preventive, and at the same time strengthening; it implies that rules and regulations are essential to the well-being of school, and that these should be few, and thoroughly understood, not for the sake of the rules, but for the object to be gained. It is dependent upon conditions which render it possible to secure the most beneficial results, without calling attention to the fact that stress is laid upon this particular phase of school-work. Among the conditions are the physical surroundings. Some one tells us that this is half the battle; indeed, the proper arrangement of class and study rooms facilitates the management of a school, as fewer opportunities for commotion arise, and greater regularity prevails in the movements.

A structure containing a large assembly-room, with class-rooms of good size, capable of seating thirty or forty pupils, particularly adapted to the needs of a high school, will materially aid. The assembly-hall would thus furnish a study-room for the pupils, under the supervision of the principal or some one of the assistants, where all aids to study are easily accessible. We are aware that objections are often raised against this plan, on the ground that one person cannot control so many at one time; still, we see no reason why a good disciplinarian cannot easily take charge of five hundred to a thousand pupils, although seldom so large

a number would be in the room for study, by far the greater portion being engaged under a class instructor. With the requisite number of teachers there is little to fear from this arrangement, and we are strongly in favor of it because it facilitates a change of divisions, as the movements are performed under the eye of one whose special business for the time is to direct them. The principal and his assistants, too, come into closer contact with all the members of the school, without restricting them to those of their respective divisions. It certainly is far superior to the plan adopted in some high schools, of assigning entire classes to certain rooms, and requiring the teacher who has charge to instruct, and at the same time supervise, those seated in the room, and not directly engaged in recitation work. This arrangement imposes double duty upon the one having charge, when his entire thought should be upon the lesson, to say nothing of the fact that pupils could not be assembled for general exercises as often as desirable. It weakens the school spirit, which should make itself felt among all, and restricts it, rather, to the class. To neutralize this effect requires great tact and ability on the part of the instructor, if the most satisfactory results in general training are to be obtained. It also suggests rooms of smaller size, adjoining the large class-rooms, thus making too distinctive a body of the class.

Another consideration is the session, or length of time pupils should be kept at work. The one-session plan, for the most part, prevails, and has many advantages, in so far as it entails upon teachers less supervision in study hours; many, if not all, the subjects being prepared for recitation at home or out of the regular hours. This plan, no doubt, is preferable, although in many of the smaller schools there are now two sessions, similar to those in the grades where the teacher is required to superintend the pupils more closely during the study period, and of necessity must give the pupils more personal attention and assistance in the preparation of lessons, which is unfavorable if the teacher is at all weak in discipline. It has some advantages, however, inasmuch as pupils are not confined to their work for too long a period. The one-session plan requires a short intermission, which may not give all the time necessary for recreation and rest; still, in large cities, where pupils come from a distance, it may be impossible to adopt any other.

It has been suggested that there be one session for the pupils and two for the teachers, thus allowing pupils sufficient recreation, teachers returning for the purpose of assisting in the preparation of lessons.

Another aid is found in the proper organization and classification. This is, indeed, a matter of importance and bears strongly upon the general discipline, as pupils entering the high school come from different teachers, whose methods necessarily differ, though the standard of admission would imply uniformity; still there are those not sufficiently prepared to take

up the work, and justice to them requires that they be placed where they can work to advantage.

The marking system is introduced to determine their proficiency, or the opinion of the teacher taken as to the pupil's readiness to enter upon the advanced work of the high school.

Right here there is room for the exercise of considerable skill in the arrangement of divisions, and in the selection of the courses to be pursued. At this time the principal has it in his power to relieve himself of considerable annoyance if sufficient attention is given to the aptitude of each pupil. This should be done by conference with the teacher under whose charge the pupil has been. In this respect, well begun may be half done. When everything is in readiness for work, the programme itself requires careful thought, and such an arrangement and distribution of time that there will be the least inconvenience to pupils, and the largest number occupied with class-work of some kind during each period of the day. There will be no difficulty in securing this if the requisite number of teachers is employed.

The question has been asked, whether particular subjects had anything to do with discipline. All will grant that the entire school should not be ground through the same mill, but that sufficient elasticity should prevail to enable each pupil to pursue that which is most congenial and best for him. On this account, there should be many electives. One may be more thoroughly disciplined and trained by studying the languages ; another, by the sciences and mathematics ; a third, possibly, by more practical studies, manual training. Music, drawing, and physical training, under competent instructors, are, indeed, great aids in the management of schools, and no one should be excused from pursuing them without good and sufficient reasons. In these subjects the training should be general.

Too much stress cannot be laid upon physical training as a separate branch, as it secures regularity and precision in movement, and impresses upon the pupil the necessity of obedience to every command. I am inclined to think we are not sufficiently progressive in this direction. A school that has regular and systematic work of this nature cannot fail to exercise the most salutary effect upon the deportment of its students. There are those, also, who believe that the sciences are conducive to this end, inasmuch as they more fully absorb the attention. Our experience has been that those pupils who have become thoroughly interested in manual training are more readily influenced and more amenable to the demands made upon them.

What are the means employed by the instructor ? Certainly they must be the same as those appealed to in all schools, although to-day a more humane view prevails than formerly. The feelings and sentiments enter largely into the internal government of the schools to secure good order

and to encourage pupils to difficult labor, correcting faults, and developing the best qualities. Considerable is accomplished by appealing to the pupil's self-love. A thoughtful and considerate teacher will see that this quality is properly directed and not unduly exercised. Many, however, believe that there should be no appeal to any motive that creates a spirit of rivalry, or rather emulation, in education. Such persons forget that men in business, and in the world at large, are spurred on by this very thing. In many schools throughout the country, prizes have been established for excellence in various departments. By some this has been called in question; yet it may be said, without fear of contradiction, that where they exist, great good has been accomplished, not only in raising the standard of excellence in the special lines where the prize has been offered, but the general management of the schools has been far better. Take, for example, those schools where there are prizes for elocution. The average ability of the boys and girls interesting themselves in this work is higher, and the so-called school discipline better. The large majority of pupils do not work from a sense of duty, so much as from a feeling that certain things have been imposed which they are compelled to do if they wish to enjoy its privileges, and it is necessary that they be stimulated and brought into sympathy with the aims of the teacher, by every means that can be brought into play. The indolent must be aroused; the stubborn, cajoled; the well-meaning, encouraged and led. Whatever means can be employed to secure this are legitimate.

Those who take the view that the discipline of consequences, so forcibly dwelt upon by a prominent writer on education, is more in sympathy with the workings of nature, set up a false standard of school life, in that they put off the day of reckoning until it is too late to counteract the evil of wasted energy.

We all know, from our college experience, the feeling that some had in reference to their work, thinking a recitation omitted was so much gained. If true at this stage of intellectual effort, why may not the same be true in the high school period, where pupils as a rule are more immature, and need something besides a knowledge of what follows a failure to attend regularly and promptly to tasks assigned? The skillful teacher keeps this in mind in the motives he plays upon to check such feelings, and prevent them from gaining the mastery, in that he realizes the necessity of constant attention to the training of the will. Indeed, a pupil may know what is good for him, and yet not be able to put himself in a position to obtain it; he may see something in the instructor which urges him on to acts against which his better nature rebels, and yet be powerless to resist the temptation; he may have in class some pleasing suggestions which he desires to communicate to his neighbor, and thus distract the attention of others. For such things the remedy lies wholly in the methods.

In taking a survey of a class, one will invariably select those who are

the least amenable to government, and the instructor's efforts should be directed toward these in a manner to gain their interest and command their support; and, when this is done, the great body of the class will give attention and be in harmony with the work. One might almost say that vigilance is the price of attention.

Everything cannot be done that should be done for the pupil during the recitation period, and there must be a great amount of personal labor outside the school, that the instructor may thoroughly analyze the character and fully understand the disposition of each, making his instruction as largely personal as possible. He must follow his pupil to his home, and seek the coöperation of parents, and with and through them endeavor to influence, so that right character may constantly take form. There are many ways of accomplishing this. The report system is one, by means of which the parents are notified of the standing and general proficiency of their boys or girls, and praise or censure bestowed as seems wise. Parents, as a rule, are willing to assist in placing their children in the right light with reference to their work, and will always take a more lively interest in aiding the school when they see that the teacher is interested in the welfare of their children. There should be many private talks with the pupil, so as to ascertain, if possible, the general bent of thought and amusement outside the school, with an effort to direct it into proper channels, encouraging to new and more stimulating lines of independent work. Indeed, every effort must be made to correct the faults that the pupil is guilty of—whether they be glaring or only trivial; whether they be the result of indolence, or a general desire to get along with the least possible exertion—and instil at the same time a high sense of honor.

Perhaps no greater good can be done a boy or girl than a careful training of his sense of honor, as upon it all real success in life depends.

When it is borne in mind that a very large number will drop out of school before completing the course, no teacher should fail to get as near to the life of his pupil as personal interest will permit, for no one can tell which of the seeds sown will germinate and fructify. As true manhood or true womanhood is the great aim of school discipline, it should be sought for by cultivating all the virtues that lie dormant in the individual.

Now, as to the qualities a teacher should possess. After everything has been said, and all the essentials considered, and the ways and means presented which should secure thorough discipline in the school, it will still resolve itself into this: that value is given to rules of discipline by those who apply them. The teacher is, indeed, the personification of discipline, by virtue of the qualities, physical, mental, and moral, that he possesses. A pleasing appearance, a dignified bearing, a quiet yet firm voice, trained and well modulated, are requisites, without which it is difficult for any man or woman to control those whom he instructs. He should be the mint from which the character of his pupil comes, bearing the distinctive

mark of his nobler virtues; he must be the soul of honor, and his word never doubted; he may make mistakes, but he must be ready to acknowledge them; courteous and kind in all his dealings, his temper will never be ruffled by the little annoying things that constantly arise; he controls and directs with force, without in the least seeming to go beyond justice or reason; broad-minded and liberal in his views, there is nothing of the pedant in his methods, but everything savors of decision, clearness, intelligence; his personal appearance and his habits call for imitators by reason of their silent influence—in short, everything about him tells of the true man, and his pupils feel that they are in the presence of a scholar and a gentleman. Such a person, indeed, will do more in the way of discipline, than rules or regulations. He is the embodiment of regularity, system, and method. He may inspire his pupils with affection for him; yet, if he has not that method which will impress upon his pupils the necessity of correct ways of thinking and doing, he will fall far short of the true teacher.

There is danger, however, in having too great confidence in human nature, and believing that boys and girls will always do right. So he must possess keen penetration, and analyze their motives; or deception and dishonesty will creep in, and the pupil will be led to feel that in outwitting his teacher he has shown himself more clever, and be encouraged to repeat the practice.

I have known teachers, who, though excellent instructors, were marred by the fault of trusting too much to the apparent honesty of pupils, and thus a serious stumbling-block has been thrown in the path of their discipline.

When one instructor in the corps is a little lax in any direction, the burden will necessarily fall on others, and the faults, that might have been corrected when first manifest, are magnified, until an outbreak occurs, and summary means are required to quell it.

Again, many teachers do not possess sufficient tact in dealing with the cases that come up, because they have not rightly interpreted the motives, and believing in severe measures, or that certain actions warrant an angry tone, proceed on that line with poor results, while, had they used discretion, the pupils might have been made to keenly feel their disgrace through silent contempt. It is safe to say that in the majority of cases this method will cure, while a boisterous or undignified manner will simply irritate, and place the offender upon the defensive, creating often a school sentiment against the instructor.

Each day's work should be a continuation of that of the preceding day—no wavering, no irregularity—until the boy or girl is of a character that a good teacher has it in his power to form. Under these circumstances so-called school discipline will never be thought of. It has, indeed, been my experience, that, when a teacher failed to secure good

discipline, it was largely due to the faults the teacher possessed; and, therefore, we may truly say, as many have said, that almost everything depends upon the teacher.

Now, how shall we recognize a well-disciplined school? We may say at once, By its general tone; by the school spirit, if we may so term it—where everything moves on with exactness; where each one knows his place; where there is no confusion, no unnecessary disturbance or noise; where everything betokens honesty and industry; in short, by the general bearing of the pupils, by their conduct within and without the school, by the way in which they address the teacher, by the respect they show their superiors; where culture and politeness are present, where the boys and girls are, indeed, men and women, realizing the opportunities they have, and making the best use of them.

So great is their love for the school, that everything mean and contemptible is frowned upon. The will-power of each has been so thoroughly trained, that little danger exists of their being led astray by ordinary temptations. You may, perhaps, call this the ideal of school discipline: it certainly may be approached; and I have no hesitation in saying, that, in the large majority of high schools of the country, excellent discipline prevails—far better, at least, than in colleges, where boys and girls are often subjected to temptations too great for them to resist, because they are not personally near the teaching force, and have been allowed to depart from home before its influence has been sufficiently deep-seated.

THE CHIEF AIM IN THE STUDY OF HISTORY.

BY WALTER A. EDWARDS, ROCKFORD, ILL.

"For the drift of the Maker is dark, an Isis hid by the veil.
Who knows the ways of the world, how God will bring them about?
Our planet is one, the suns are many, the world is wide.
Shall I weep if a Poland fall? shall I shriek if a Hungary fail?
Or an infant civilization be ruled with rod or with knout?
I have not made the world, and He that made it will guide."

These are the words of Tennyson's hero in the bitterness of his isolation and his morbid burying of himself from his kind. But when the great joy of Maud's love comes into his life, what does he say?

"Pass the happy news,
Blush it through the West;
Till the red man dance
By his red cedar tree,
And the red man's babe
Leap, beyond the sea."

Here is no longer a turning of the back upon his fellow-men—no more the angry question, itself a confession, "Am I my brother's keeper?" The world, which before seemed so wide, has no spot, however distant or wild, whither his joy shall not penetrate. Mankind, before innumerable, are not too many for him to claim from each individual one, civilized man or barbarian, an interest in his happiness.

And which is the normal attitude? Who is the true man—he who shuts himself away from his kind, or he whose heart throbs in unison with the great heart of humanity? We are at no loss for an answer. The ideal man is one of broad human sympathy, one to whom no worthy human interest ever appeals in vain, one who does not narrow his thought and his activity down to his own little round of work, but has a keen and intelligent interest in whatever concerns his kind. He is one to whom nothing human is foreign. He may have graduated from the best-equipped scientific or technological school of the country, and understand all biological mysteries and all mathematical knowledge; but he does not on that account despise literary and philological learning. If an alumnus of a great classical school, speaking with the tongues of men and of angels, he still has something better than contempt for "utilitarian" standards and studies. He does not relegate books to "them literary fellers," nor politics to the politicians, the discussion of social problems to those who like that sort of thing, nor religion to his wife. He may be an American, but he is not blind to the advantages and needs of the Chinese. His sense of personal interest and responsibility is not narrower than humanity itself. He may—nay, must be a specialist, but he is a man.

It would be a narrowing down of the broad position I have thus assumed to deny to any of the studies of the curriculum their share in developing this perfect humanity. But for the most part these studies develop one or another of particular faculties. The poets, Bacon tells us, make men witty; the mathematics, subtile; natural philosophy, deep; moral, grave; logic and rhetoric, able to contend. But the same great authority distinguishes history as that study which makes men wise. History it is which more than any other one study produces, or may produce, that breadth of mind and bigness of heart which discover and respond to the elements of a common humanity wherever they may exist. Properly pursued it makes one's horizon as wide as humanity. It makes the whole world kin.

This I conceive to be the chief aim of history study in the public schools—the inculcation of a broad, intelligent, human sympathy. There are, indeed, other legitimate and important benefits derived from this study, but as they are necessarily involved in the attainment of this great aim they will not be neglected if our eyes are fixed upon it. The imagination must be quickened and trained by history; but how can a lively interest in men and women be cultivated without a vivid picturing to the mind

of these men and women? History, they tell us, should educate the sense of causality; but no one could by any chance overlook this element when seeking to arouse his pupils to an appreciation of the importance of events to them and to the world. And what teacher uses history to better effect in training to good citizenship than he who would have his pupils see in the nations of the earth only different households of one family, and in their varied experiences precedents and warnings for his own land? Thus he who seeks to cultivate in his pupils breadth and seriousness of interest must incidentally attain the minor objects of history study.

The great work of the teacher of history, then, is to lead his pupils to identify themselves with the peoples and the times they study. They are to put themselves in their places, so that, as Mrs. Sheldon Barnes has said, "they feel that they might have been ancient Egyptians themselves." They are to gain that intimate knowledge of nations and men which is denied to the merely scientific student of the philosophy of history, and is granted only to him who unites to the seeing eye the understanding heart. Phœnicians, Romans, and Teutons are to him not so much dead material, invested only with a cold scientific interest, but living personalities, friends, brothers.

Now, interest, and keen interest too, may be aroused by that which is strange and uncouth. No child but will listen entranced to stories of fairies and griffins—the more unheard-of and impossible the better. The burial rites of ancient Egypt, the queer dress of the Chinese, the quaint customs of the Dutch, may be set forth in all their outlandishness to the wondering gaze of open-mouthed young Herodotuses, until all foreign customs and institutions seem a mass of the strangest absurdities. But in the novel and the odd are not found the roots of an enduring interest. The attention that is aroused by the weird rites of the fire-worshipers and the strange antics of the bacchanal dies in the contempt which familiarity breeds. The historical education of our pupils can be built upon no such shifting sand. Only on the sure foundation of an ever-during interest, which itself rests on the rock of a common humanity, can we rear an edifice which is to stand.

The pupil is then to feel his own kinship with the peoples he reads about. He is to see them as men and women of like passions with himself and with the men and women about him. Resemblances are to be emphasized, not differences; and under these differences the common need or motive, expressed only in a different way. The most outlandish of races have infinitely more points of resemblance with us than of difference, and a little thought will find in these very differences only a peculiar way of doing a thing which we do in our way.

But this kinship is a real thing and not a make-believe, and it must be taught as something real. Of what use is it to assure the pupil that the

puppets moving before his eyes in the panorama of history are truly "men, his brothers," unless he can see it for himself? Seeing is believing, and no pupil in our high schools is too young to attain to some understanding of the brotherhood of man and the unity of history. Let your pupil see, then, the intimacy of interdependence existing between different nations and different epochs of the world's history. Let him see each event in its proper place in the chain, itself the outcome of previous events and conditions, and the cause, in turn, of changes whose influence reaches down through the ages to our own time and our own land. Let him see that the Greeks did the deeds of heroes at Marathon, that *he* might be free; that Huss, dying at Constance, bequeathed to *him* religious liberty; that for *him* Egyptian and Phœnician perfected their alphabet, and Gutenberg his printing-press; that all the great and good of history have labored that *he* might enter into their labors. Then history will be to him no longer a mass of disconnected, and therefore meaningless, facts and dates; but each event will have its own meaning, all strung upon the thread of the one increasing purpose running through the ages, and the whole human race will appear as one great family working together for the accomplishment of that mighty purpose.

In this kinship, this similarity in motives and character of men of all ages and climes, is found the justification of the proverb, "History repeats itself." Human nature is the same the world over, and its phenomena must present many similarities. Time and again we find an event, an institution, a detail of organization, in one country which calls up a perfect parallel in another. These repetitions of history, these historic parallels, are nuggets of gold to the true teacher, for they are the tokens of brotherhood. When the student sees similar expedients adopted for a common purpose by widely different peoples; when he finds an institution of the nineteenth century paralleled in every important detail of organization and function by one two thousand years old; when he finds Elizabeth's Englishmen boldly confronting just such a crisis as once stirred the courage and patriotism of old Rome—then the phrase, "a common humanity," has a meaning to him, and his sense of relationship will need no further quickening. But this matter of historic parallels is not only philosophically sound; it is of great practical utility in the class-room. Parallel events help both to explain each other and to fix each other firmly in the memory. Two nails hold better than one. And then, how often does an attempted parallel by a pupil reveal a misapprehension which might otherwise remain undetected. One of my pupils last term, after a very fair account of the Jacobin Club, gave as a modern parallel Pinkerton's detective force. And the boy whom Professor Levermore cites in a late number of "School and College" could not have betrayed his ignorance and his need more pointedly than when he compared the Ku-Klux Klan to a "lyceum where people went to hear lectures."

An appreciation of parallel events in history opens the pupil's eyes to the unity of human experience in all ages and makes him feel his brotherhood with all races. To understand more clearly that unity in its endless variety of form, a near approach to, and familiarity with, those varied forms is necessary. The pupil must know the great men of history personally in order to see in them his own human nature and to come under the spell of their many-sided personalities. The electric spark of personal influence leaps from one pole to the other only when they are brought close together. And yet we, distrusting the self-revelation of the mighty dead and the quick intuition of the child, hold them carefully apart, and instead of the living personality of the hero, we present the pupil with a catalogue of his virtues, faults, and exploits, and, like *Olivia* in the play, ask him to be content with an inventory. This is no history study. Let the actors themselves in the great drama of history speak. They can do it better than we can for them. Let the boy hear their story from their own lips. Then will they be living realities to him, invested with a true human interest.

Many teachers have felt this need, and have tried to meet it by encouraging their pupils to read the literature of the various periods as they come to them. Some go further, and try to arrange the regular reading and literature study of the school with reference to the history work. The gain by this scheme is evident. The two studies do not neutralize each other, as is so often the case—the reading teacher rousing her pupils to a vivid realization of the French Revolution, that they may gain some appreciation of Burke's "Reflections," while the history teacher each day carefully undoes her work, and carries the same pupils back to the time of Homer or the Cæsars. On the contrary, by this plan of parallel work there is a gain all round; the reading stimulating interest in the history, and the history aiding the reading. It is only carrying this plan out a little more fully when we base all our history work upon a study of the original documents; and this, to my mind, is the ideal method. In these original documents the pupil comes face to face with the makers of history themselves. He hears their own words. He meets them in their daily lives. No one tells him of them or their deeds: with his own eyes he sees them doing and suffering, and he knows them as he does his fellow-townsmen. This, I submit, is true history study. This is, indeed, a widening of the intellectual horizon, and an enlarging of the heart. This is a preparation for full, many-sided living. One who has learned to know the great men of the past in their own words and those of their contemporaries, who has traced the causes and results of historic events in the utterances of the actors themselves, such a one will be neither uninterested nor helpless amidst the variety of present influences which are to shape his judgments and his actions.

I plead for a deeper and broader culture in history study. No one is

now content with kings and battles and dates alone. But is an insight into the philosophy of history the highest thing? Is a merely scientific knowledge of historic sequence the best our pupils can attain to? Let them seek also as a higher and more precious reward a broad and keen sympathy with men, a rounded fulness of life, in which every man and every human interest has a part. This is more than science, as life is more than knowledge.

Our forefathers found the true education of the perfect man in a study of the ancient classics, and accordingly gave them the name "humanities," the human studies. May not this name be claimed with greater justice by that study whose subject-matter is man himself, and whose purpose is the development of a broad human spirit?

WHAT SHOULD SECONDARY SCHOOLS DO TO PROMOTE THEIR INTERESTS AT THE WORLD'S FAIR?

BY J. L. HALLOWAY.

When the representatives of the nations shall have assembled at Chicago on May next, 'twill not be the great iron and glass roofs covering acres of space without a single interior pillar of support; 'twill not be the fabrics of the loom, the products of the soil, the curios of antiquity, the dexterous touch of painter's brush, the deft turn of sculptor's chisel, the wonders of modern art and science wrought and controlled by human skill—nay, not these things, however great, as indicative of the rapid strides of modern civilization, will constitute the wonder of the occasion; but the city of Chicago herself, as the epitome of the fast approaching industrial and commercial supremacy of the New World over the Old, will be the cynosure of all who look beneath the surface of things for the forces that control the destinies of nations and of peoples.

And it seems specially fitting that alongside this materialized representation of achievement should be placed an exhibition of the products and methods of our schools, one of the chief factors in promoting the distinctive elements of our greatness which foreigners admire and we cherish. This, of course, will be done in a great exhibit embracing work from every grade of every kind of school, both public and private.

What shall be done to conserve the interests of secondary education? It occurs to me that it is within the province of this body, by resolution, to ask the several State committees to appoint sub-committees whose work shall be exclusively directed toward the preparation and classification of the exhibits of these schools in their respective States. Such a committee could draught a plan of classification which would indicate the

scope and variety of the work of such schools, their articulation with both elementary and higher education, their gradations through various shades of literary work and manual training, the differentiating features of their many-sided aspects—in a word, such an arrangement as would most clearly show the influence these schools have upon the culture of the masses, and their bearing upon the great problems of industrial activity. In addition, there could be gathered fresh data relative to the number of such schools, extent of curriculum, enrollment, cost of tuition, and other items of value for comparative purposes. From this array of material might be formulated an ideal course, characterized by a degree of flexibility that would render it practical of adoption in many secondary schools, so that at least one step toward unifying this work throughout the country might be intelligently taken. An additional argument for such an effort finds ample justification in the need of a closer articulation of these schools with institutions for higher education. The work, therefore, of such a committee could be made a large element not only in increasing the intrinsic value of the exhibits made, but in arousing among the members of the profession a healthy rivalry and spirited competition, the certain forerunners of more efficient and praiseworthy work.

Again, to secure the hearty coöperation of those engaged in secondary schools, the mid-winter associations of the various States should draught such programmes as will rivet the attention of the leading teachers of these schools, and call for large representation. At these meetings the forces could be marshaled for effective service. Steps could be taken to district the State, and an efficient manager appointed over each district. The secular press could be brought into requisition, and made an effective agent in awakening both teachers and people in the interest of this specific work. A well-planned educational campaign waged through the press of every State along the line of the proper organization, equipment, support, and control of secondary schools, would increase their value a hundred-fold in the next decade. All these are means to the attainment of a great end ; namely, the awakening of an enthusiasm that will spend and be spent in emphasizing the worth of secondary instruction through and by means of a great exhibit. This is the goal which, if attained, will speak in more eloquent and forcible terms than any orator, however happy in the use of words or gifted in the turn of phrases. This accomplished, indorsed, and emphasized by a rally of our forces from every State and Territory a year hence at Chicago, to compare data, to make an inventory of stock in hand, to take our bearings for larger, richer things, to discuss a well-formed practical programme, will result in inestimable good to the secondary schools of the country.

*HIGH SCHOOL EXTENSION, OR SUPPLEMENTARY WORK.**

Members and Friends of this Department: At your last annual meeting this department passed the following resolution:

Resolved, That the earnest attention of the department be given to the subject of high school extension, and that our president, Frank E. Plummer, be requested to continue the investigation along the line suggested by him in his paper.

Of course the efficiency and popularity of the university extension scheme suggested to me the idea of high school extension, or supplementary work. While there are some objections to university extension, the scheme has been tried sufficiently to place it beyond the stage of doubt as a great educational instrumentality which deserves a place in our educational system. The high school extension, or supplementary work scheme, however, will be far more effective for that great class of students in which we as high school and academy instructors are, or should be, especially and personally interested.

School boards, teachers, and the general public are doing well by the boys and girls who remain in our high schools and academies. But there is a great class, numbering thousands, who enter upon secondary education, but after a short time are compelled from various causes—as sickness, necessity to engage in secular employment, and discouragement—to drop out before the completion of the course. It is this class of boys and girls that I would interest in a well-planned course of reading and lectures to be pursued under good guidance. Let the high school extension, or supplementary work scheme, have this for its noble aim, set about it with energy and enthusiasm, and, through the teachers and school journals of our land, attain to national recognition, and it will be a Godsend not only to the pupils directly benefited, but to the cause of education as well. These pupils will be instructed, they will keep their interest in the school with which they are identified, and many of them, as opportunity offers, will be encouraged, by thus being kept in touch with the school, to reënter and complete their course. Believing that this class of students deserves such attention as this, I offer the following

PLAN

of organization, which, with modifications, I believe will be practicable and will prove efficient.

Let a committee be appointed by this organization to outline a light,

* Special report by the president, as requested by the thirty-first session of this department.

suitable course of reading and lectures, which they may recommend for adoption by the high schools and academies. Let the principals and teachers of these schools be the instructors and lecturers, arranging the work so that it will not fall too heavily upon any one. Let the classes be formed from those who have been students of the schools. Here the principal has the grandest opportunity that can possibly be presented to keep in touch with all of his students who from time to time drop out of school, and on this opportunity can form a hope of reinstating a large per cent. of them in the school. Let the school boards furnish the accommodations and facilities, and allow the teachers who do the lecturing and class work a reasonable compensation in addition to their regular salary. This they have as much legal right to do as to furnish the accommodations, facilities, and teachers for those who are in regular attendance; who, in point of fact, do not outnumber very greatly, or deserve this outlay any better than, the neglected and unfortunate class which this plan is designed to aid. Let a system of records be kept, and certificates granted when the various stages of the course of reading and lectures have been completed, so that the credits thus given will entitle the pupils to a place in the regular classes should they find it possible to reënter school. This will furnish a more tangible tie, which will tend to hold the pupils more closely related to the school.

The plan is feasible and sure of success in its operation, because the teachers will welcome a measure which will enable them to organize and hold together their former pupils, and because the funds necessary to keep the machinery in operation will come from the general school fund. This money will be as wisely and as well spent as it can be in any other manner. School journals will favor some plan like this, because they are working primarily and especially for the promotion of the cause of education in every line, and here is an opportunity for them to help that class which our schools have hitherto been unable to reach.

I therefore recommend to you that you appoint such a committee as this report contemplates, whose duty it shall be to formulate more in detail the plan herein suggested, and communicate it to the high school and academy principals for practical operation the coming year.

Respectfully submitted by

FRANK E. PLUMMER.

USAGE THE AUTHORITY IN LANGUAGE.

BY BRAINERD KELLOGG, POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

A LANGUAGE like ours, made up of elements diverse, yet blending harmoniously, rooting in Northern and in Southern Europe, transplanted from the Continent to Old England, and thence to the New, and growing up there and here to stately proportions, its words saturated with history, full of imagery, lending themselves gracefully to the thought, and capable of yeoman service to it—such a language is worth watching over jealously and cultivating with care. No catastrophe like that of the eleventh century is likely again to overtake it. Whatever changes it undergoes hereafter will probably come slowly, and will affect it only at points; and, when they occur, it will be at the instance of those using the language.

The changes of which a language is susceptible are of two kinds—they are additive and they are subtractive. Some of the first, or additive, class are seen in the new words that, by combination of native material, or by borrowing from foreign sources, are brought into the language; in the figurative uses of words; in the widening of meaning which old words are stretched to cover; in the multiplication of prefixes and suffixes, and the extension of these, for grammatical or lexical purposes, to independent words. Those of the second, or subtractive, class arise in part from the dropping of words and phrases out of the vocabulary; from the sloughing off of terminations, grammatical and other; from the narrowing of the signification of words; from the dropping of silent letters in words, etc., etc.

It goes without saying, that all changes in language are wrought by those using the language; for language has no organic life of its own, is a mere instrument, incapable by itself of change of any kind. The changes it suffers are wrought in it, I repeat, by the men who use it. But these men may do their work unconsciously or consciously—without purpose or of set purpose. Those changes made unconsciously and without purpose are the most sweeping and the most vital that a language undergoes. In illustration I may instance those made when, in the childhood of a language, two monosyllabic roots are united to form a dissyllable; made still more noticeably when one of these syllables in combination gradually loses its specific gravity as an independent word and runs down into a mere termination; becomes a suffix significant of number or case in nouns, of mode, tense, number, or person in verbs, of degree in adjectives. The pages of Latin, Greek, English—all synthetic tongues—are strewn with these verbal wrecks, which, attachable and attached, each to multitudes of words, have furnished the language its grammatical apparatus, have mobilized its

whole vocabulary, multiplied the words in it, and immensely increased the functions of the same word. These unconscious changes of which I am speaking constitute so large and so essential a fraction of all verbal changes, that Max Müller is not without ground for his contention that language is not a moral or historical science, as Professor Whitney insists, but a physical science. The study of it, he claims, is not a study of what men have knowingly and of free will done with their tongue, but of what they have done without thought and intention, compelled thereto by the inertia of the organs of speech, by the intractableness of the material worked upon, and by climate—in a word, by environment in its Protean forms. And if the forces producing verbal change were wholly of this kind, or worked only in this way, Müller would be right and Whitney wrong; but, if there are changes wrought in language by the conscious and voluntary agency of men, then neither of these authors is right and neither wrong, or rather both are right and both wrong; and language is not exclusively a moral, nor exclusively a physical science, but a science both moral and physical. And there *are* changes proposed for adoption. There are changes wrought in language by our conscious and voluntary agency. Of this class are changes in the accentuation, the pronunciation, the compounding, the spelling of words; the introduction of new words by combination of old ones or by appropriation from ancient and modern tongues; the conformity of such appropriated vocables to the idiom of the language; the revival of obsolete words; the dropping from use of words and combinations of words where this is not accomplished silently and without agreement, etc., etc.

Nobody purposely initiated any change of the first class, nobody wittingly caught up any such change after it was made, accepted it for himself, and pressed it upon others for general adoption. All that any person has a right to do respecting such changes is merely to fall into line with his fellows—do what other people do—no more, no less, no other. Respecting this class of changes, unconscious changes, the question of authority is utterly impertinent. They were not authorized and warranted by any man, by any body of men. A higher authority than either controlled them. Such changes, then, are withdrawn from the discussion at this time.

But the question, "What is the authority to which we may appeal, and by whose decisions we must abide, in regard to the second class of changes, the changes which men control?" is pertinent here and of tremendous importance. I believe that this authority is usage, the usage of the majority of the best writers and speakers of the generation. I take my belief from Horace and from many a writer since, who has repeated, amplified, and illustrated it.

Now, just here I am met by the man who, either uninstructed in what others have done or careless of it, ignores all authority save himself, and

who, not content with the right of private judgment and with the practice of it, gives forth his *dicta* as law for others to obey. I make bold to say that that which especially the language has now to fear is the work of this man upon it, and that never was the language in greater peril from his hands than at the present time. Within the last few years there have appeared dozens of books, all telling us not what we may, but what we may not, must not, say—proscribing words, expressions, phrases, grammatical forms, that hitherto have been thought innocent and proper. The *index expurgatorius* is already alarmingly long and is rapidly lengthening. No writer of these books makes any pretense, or anything more than a pretense, that in his work of interdiction he has the warrant of usage to bear out the deed. On the contrary, most of the expressions he puts under ban are those that usage has long approved, from before Shakespeare often, and still approves. The sole authority to which he appeals is his own individual reason. Whatever expressions seem to him incongruous, unparsable, ill-sounding, illogical, or unnecessary, opposed to the genius of the tongue as he interprets it, without analogy to support them or etymology to vindicate them—whatever, for any of these reasons or for any other reason, seems to him objectionable, is ruthlessly condemned and hurried to the verbal block for instant execution.

Now, no fault would be found, publicly at least, with one who in writing and speaking merely avoided that which, though generally used, seemed to him improper. But that for which I am arraigning this self-constituted verbal autocrat is that in articles and books, sown broadcast, he is teaching pernicious errors, and, above all, is preaching the heresy that whatever in current speech, sanctioned by the best authors, will not stand the test of one's private examination, made within lines and on grounds all his own, should be cast out and trodden under foot of men. My contention is, that in these matters no one has a right to set up his individual judgment in opposition to that of the educated majority, and give this forth as law for others to obey.

A few words relative to the illegitimacy of such teaching, and to the evils it breeds, are appropriate to this time and place. I am not, in anything said, impugning the right of individual judgment. In the republic of language, as in that of letters, every man and woman has a voice and a vote, and the right to make these as influential as he may. There is a time when both of these are proper, are called for. Objections of whatever kind to the introduction of a word, to the use of a word in a new sense, to its orthography or orthoepy, to a new combination of words, to any verbal changes determined by suffrage, are in place when these novelties are seeking acceptance, knocking at the door for admission; not after their request has been granted, and they admitted and assigned to duty. Discuss the proposition fully and freely when as a bill it is before the house, not after the battle has been fought and won, and the bill has been

enacted into law. All right of objection to a verbal or a grammatical innovation ceases when a majority of those entitled to suffrage have declared for it. Then the duty of acquiescence begins. It is no longer allowable openly to oppose or to counsel opposition. Such behavior is treasonable and leads to anarchy in the realm of speech. It sets linguistic legislation at defiance. It makes every one a law unto himself. It exchanges the consensus of the competent for the discordant decisions of the many-headed incompetent. It resolves all linguistic order into chaos.

New words and phrases, and new senses for old words and phrases, creep into favor slowly. Not infrequently they work their way up into literature from colloquial speech, and bear upon them the stamp of humble birth ; sometimes they have a higher origin : but, from whatever source derived, only here and there does a writer employ them at first, and even he cautiously and tentatively. During their probation, all that is possible to urge respecting their unfitness for duty or their uselessness is pertinent and is sure to be urged. If in this fierce storm of criticism they perish, their presence on the pages of him who has ventured to employ them is a reproach to his taste and an impeachment of his judgment. But if they weather the storm and survive, our need of them is therein proved, and their right to be vindicated. Their adoption should close the mouth of every objector. Any further opposition of his is an anachronism—is the arrogant assumption that his unsupported opinion outweighs in value that of the vast majority against whom he is pitted. Nay, it is an assumption self-destructive ; for one can claim validity for the principle of individual judgment, and for his own right to exercise it, only by allowing this to everybody else. But this concession to others he renders null and void when he issues his *dicta* to others, and says, "You must, or you must not." His work is *felo de se ;* digs from under itself the very ground on which it rests. From all dictation to others in verbal matters, the believer in private judgment and individual authority is effectually estopped by the very theory on which his work proceeds.

And let it be observed that there can never come a time when one may on the old grounds renew the old criticism. The reasons cogent for closing his mouth are equally cogent for keeping it closed. Not that words and expressions once in vogue are always current and cannot be driven from use. Literature is sprinkled with words and phrases now obsolete, and with words and phrases used in senses now obsolete. The tastes of a people change in literature as in other things. Good writers and speakers, the majority of them, may gradually, and consciously or unconsciously, drop from employment any vocable for one of older standing or one of more recent adoption, or may discharge it without exchange. Following their authority, never leading it, the critic may then, on the warrant of this authority, properly insist that others shall discard it. But thus to insist, and for this reason to insist, is to abandon the kind of attack I am

censuring, is to concede that usage is decisive of the question, is to plead it, in fact, as the only arbiter. The legitimacy of this argument, and the illegitimacy of any other, on this question, is the point for which I am so strenuously contending.

Among the evils of the teaching here complained of is this: it neutralizes the good that comes to us from example. It is from observing customs which the best writers and speakers of our time have in their best works established or approved, that we come ourselves to do anything respectable with tongue or pen. The broad highway of precedent, so slowly and so laboriously thrown up, these rash teachers counsel us to forsake. They ask us to desert the great routes, along which so many have traveled to eminence, for the poor trails they have so hastily and imperfectly blazed out; nay, by implication, they advise us to mark out a trail each for himself, with nothing but his unaided reason for his guide. What doubt, what hesitancy, what stumbles and falls, must attend the steps of the conscientious who follow the advice, and what unutterable conceit it must nourish in the breasts of those without the true literary conscience!

Many of the strictures made by these critics are upon the later meanings of words that have chipped the shell of their etymology and are now doing duty once impossible to them. In no respect is the growth of vocabulary more serviceable than in the widening of the scope of words. We do not say that words often lose their anchorage to their root idea, their etymological signification; but they certainly do swing, many of them, with ever-lengthening cable, on all sides around this as the stress of wind and of tide carries them. To send such words as these back to their etymology, and bid them take their only meanings from that, is to remand them to a state long since outgrown, is to check that development which language, like everything else human, is meant to make. To call new words into existence to do the work which the old could, by extension, do just as well is to create needless synonyms, is to burden the memory of writer and reader with distinctions without essential difference, is to waste in feather-edge the intellectual discrimination of both.

The possessions of a speech most essential to it are its idioms. It is the idioms that make our language English, the Parisian's French, and the Teuton's German, and distinguish each tongue from all other tongues. They are the most vital parts of a language. All else is in comparison cuticle; but penetrate to the idioms, you touch the quick, and the language bleeds. They are the expressions in the vernacular of a people, into which so much that is peculiar to that people, characteristic of its habits of thought and expressive of its ways of life, has crystallized, and are as natural to speech and speaker as needles to the pine or heat to a flame. It is those that are so common in oral discourse, give it freshness and vigor, and make it in so many respects a standard for the writer. The ease, flexibility, and effectiveness of written discourse lie in

these idioms. Rob language of them, and style loses its litheness, grace, naturalness, power, all distinguishing national characteristics, and becomes stiff, stale, stinted, wooden. Our great writers are our idiomatic writers: those using few idioms seem not to the manner born, and handle the language as foreigners do.

Now, it is these idioms upon which the brunt of our critic's attack largely falls. Should this prove true, could anything better justify my recent remark, that that which especially we have to fear for our language is the work upon it of this purist?

I am not now dealing with a supposititious case, indulging in flights of imagination, or running a tilt against a windmill. As was said, during the last ten or fifteen years many books have been written to tell the English world what words and phrases must not be used at all; or, if used, in what senses only and with what functions. The writers of these books singularly agree in what they proscribe, and in what, openly or by implication, they prescribe. But it does not appear that they have the warrant of usage for what they so oracularly teach. Each writer speaks for himself, and on the authority of his individual reason. This I can affirm, for in many, in most, of the important judgments pronounced, they are in conflict with usage—usage plainly allowing what they peremptorily forbid. To get at the verdict of usage on points thus dogmatically settled, and on others that these critics have passed by, I have been consulting the best authors, British and American, now living, or, if dead, living till recently. I have carefully read fifty of these authors, and read three hundred pages of each. Just what these men by habitual use teach on these points, and what they thus declare to be good English, has been noted.

Here are a few of the judgments of these critics reversed by the higher court of usage.

1. We *may* use *such* before an adjective and its noun, even when *such* does not modify the noun alone; we are not restricted to *so* in such cases.

Such a valuable answer.—*Tennyson.* Surprise at *such unwelcome* news.—*Froude.*

2. We *may* use *each other* when speaking of more than two objects; we are not restricted to *one another* in such cases.

The *three* modes of shaping a proposition, distinct as they are from *each other*, follow *each other* in natural sequence.—*J. H. Newman.* Concourse of the *various faculties* of the mind with *each other.*—*Walter Pater.*

3. We *may* use *one another* when speaking of two objects only; we are not restricted to *each other* in such cases.

The *two* armies failed to find *one another.*—*J. R. Green.* How do the *mind* and the *universe* communicate with *one another.*—*Martineau*

4. We *may* use *a great deal, a great many,* or *a good deal, a good many;* usage is equally divided between the two forms.

Means *a great deal.*—*E. A. Freeman.* *A great many* authors live because, etc.—*Lowell.* *A good many* things have gone out with the fire on the hearth.—*C. D. Warner.* Detained before the eye *a good deal* longer.—*De Quincey.*

5. We *may* use *which* with a *clause* for its antecedent.

On these subjects they are devoid of the false pretensions of the upper class, *which* is an unspeakable comfort.—*P. G. Hamerton.* If Oldys meant the last Duke of Buckingham, *which* is possible.—*R. G. White.*

6. We *may* use *whether* when three or more objects are spoken of; it is not restricted to two.

Whether as a *citizen,* a *patriot,* or a practical *philosopher.*—*Everett.*—*Whether grim, grotesque, whimsical,* or playfully *affectionate.*—*Minto.* *Whether art* or *science* or practical *craft.*—*Dean Church.*

7. We *may* use the *conjunctions either* and *neither* when speaking of three or more objects; we need not restrict them to two.

Neither Lear nor *Othello* nor *Macbeth* nor *Hamlet* is so typically perfect a tragedy as the *Agamemnon.*—*Fr. Harrison.* By *either Marlowe, Greene, Peele,* or *Shakespeare.*—*R. G. White.*

8. We *may* use the *adjective pronoun either* or *neither* when speaking of three or more objects; we are not restricted to *any* or *none* in such cases.

There is little or no reference, in *either* of the *three* parts, to the dialogue.—*Verplanck.* And so *neither* [of *three* families] can have precedence.—*Higginson.* The decision may come in *either* of *many modes.*—*Prof. Wm. James.*

9. We *may* use *both* or *all* with *of* and its noun after it; they need not be adjectives belonging to nouns or pronouns, though this is their more common use.

For *all of them* the Greek had only elegiacs.—*A. Lang.* There is enough of him for *both of us.*—*Everett.*

10. We *may* use *either* in the sense of *each.*

He saw the land swiftly receding on *either side.*—*Irving.* A long beach terminated by craggy rocks at *either end.*—*Hawthorne.*

11. We *may* use the forms *any* or *every* or *no* or *some one else's,* or *any* or *every* or *no* or *somebody else's.* There is very little authority for putting the *'s* upon *one* or *body.*

My happiness is no more desirable than *anybody else's.*—*Martineau.* Fight in *some one else's* quarrel.—*Wm. Black.* Our faith is apt to be a faith in *some one else's* faith.—*Wm. James.*

12. We *may* use *none* in the *singular* and in the *plural.*

But *none* of those who laugh at him *possess* a tithe of his sensibility.—*Macaulay.* *None has* always so acute a sense.—*Lowell.*

13. We *may* use *some*, with numerals, in the sense of *about*.

Some six years ago or more.—*Carlyle*. *Some thirty* horsemen dashed through the gate.—*Bulwer*.

14. We *may* use the form seen in *is being built, was being built*, to denote continuing action in the passive; we are not restricted to the form seen in *is building, was building*.

The point on which the battle *was being fought.—Froude*. Which *is being done* by means of it.—*J. Morley*. While it *was being prepared*, . . . he stayed at Bath.—*J. A. Symonds*.

15. We *may* use *the* with a *participle* and its *object*; we are not compelled to place the object after a preposition.

Modification is properly *the bringing* a *thing* into a certain mode.—*Hamilton*. *The making himself* drunk . . . is a crime against others.—*Mill*. Poltroonery is *the acknowledging* an *inferiority* to be incurable.—*Emerson*.

16. We *may* use *between* when speaking of three or more objects; we are not restricted to *among* in such cases. This use of *between* is favored by the great dictionaries, and can be traced all the way back into Anglo-Saxon.

The intercommunications *between* the *eye*, the *ear*, and the *tail* were of the oddest and the strangest.—*Dr. John Brown*. The family likeness *between* the *nine* is so strong.—*Marsh*. And they *three* were the dragon, the lion, and the wolf, which should divide the realm *between them.—Holinshed*. The genetic relationship claimed to exist *between* the *five* great *branches* of the Scythian family.—*W. D. Whitney*.

17. We *may* follow the indefinite adjective pronoun *one* by a personal pronoun or a noun used in place of *one*; we need not repeat the *one*.

To have seen a numerous household assembled round the fire, *one* would have imagined that *he* was transported back to those happy days.—*Irving*. To walk staunchly by the best light *one* has . . . — this is the discipline by which alone *man* is enabled to rescue his life from thraldom.—*M. Arnold*.

18. We *may* use *had rather, had better*, before the infinitive; we need not say *would rather, would better*, instead. This is common usage from before Shakespeare and all the way down.

He *had better go* to an old curiosity shop on High Street.—*Hawthorne*. I *had rather believe* all the fables in the Legend and the Talmud and the Alcoran.—*Bacon*. We *had better seek* for a system which will develop honest men.—*Ruskin*.

19. We *may* use *get* in other senses than to "express attainment by exertion." It may be used with *have* to indicate (1) possession and (2) necessity; without *have*, (3) as a causal, (4) in the sense of *become*, to indicate (5) real movement and (6) figurative movement.

What large eyes you *have got*, what large teeth you *have got.—Thackeray*. We *have got* to learn that statesmanship is the most complicated of all arts.—*Lowell*. They are the most easy to *get obeyed.—Bagehot*. Emerson *got wet* and chilled.—*Holmes*. Adam *got down* from his horse.—*George Eliot*. How the Jews *got on* under the Mosaic law.—*Stedman*.

20. We *may* use *at length* instead of *at last.*

At length we can no longer touch the metal with impunity.—*Tyndall.* The leader *at length* arose.—*Macaulay.* *At length* Richard trembles on the brink of annihilation.—*Dowden.* The mental force which originates exact thinking will *at length* command exact expression.—*Prof. Phelps.* Till *at length* we reached the Blue Hills.—*Everett.*

21. We *may* use *at best*; we need not say *at the best.*

Or *at best* but the Devil's elixir.—*Longfellow.* Saw himself *at best* but the chief of some wandering horde.—*Prescott.* They are *at best* . . . but the insufficient representatives of the spirit of the time.—*Buckle.*

22. We *may* use the phrase *at all.*

I must have slept on it or not slept *at all.*—*Daniel Webster.* No eye *at all* is better than an evil eye.—*Dickens.* If certified *at all.*—*Hadley.* If it has any meaning *at all.*—*Huxley.* In point of naked syntactical accuracy, the English of America is not *at all* inferior to that of England.—*Marsh.*

23. We *may* use *consider* with the meaning of *deem, think, regard*; we need not restrict it to the sense of *ponder, deliberate.*

She *considered* him a renegade.—*Motley.* He *considered* it his duty to criticise Radicals.—*Minto.*

24. We *may* use *just* to denote time and in the sense of *recently*; we need not restrict it to mean *exactly, precisely,* only.

He had *just been* so indignantly and rhetorically *denying.*—*Motley.* Which had *just been cleansed* by a snow-storm.—*Tyndall.*

25. We *may* use *quite* with the meaning *very, rather*; we need not use it only in the sense of *completely.*

Which is *quite closely* allied to one of the more common forms of insanity.—*Hamerton. Quite early* in English literature.—*Marsh.* He was *quite a* lion.—*John Fiske. Quite ordinary* humanity.—*Walter Pater.*

These are a few of the words and phrases respecting which usage and certain critics are at variance—usage allowing what they forbid. I say *allowing,* for the expressions which I here claim *may* be used are found in great abundance in the authors read. Those expressions for which no alternatives are given are those *commonly* employed; of the alternative expressions I may say that the one condemned is more often the one especially favored by usage.

Surely I am not astray in saying that while he who shows us the wide freedom great writers have conquered for themselves and for us, and strives to bring us into the full enjoyment of it, is doing us high service, he who abridges this freedom by marking out for our feet a path narrower than the broad highway cast up is engaged in a work of which the least we can say is, that it is calamitous in the extreme.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN OUR SCHOOLS.

BY R. ANNA MORRIS, OF DES MOINES, IA.

THE wonderful progress which our country has made in her commercial, her manufacturing, her financial, and especially her educational interests, during the last hundred years, has been done largely at the expense of the health of her people.

The physical weakness of the people of the nation is proven by the fact that they are "wearing out" and "breaking down" just at an age when they ought to be in the best possible condition to enjoy middle life.

This condition is not an accident, but it is the result of the rush in business life, which crowds ten years' work into one; the strife for intellectual excellence in the schools, which leaves the pupils at the end of their course well equipped in everything necessary to success but good health; and the lack of attention to proper diet, healthful clothing, and correct exercise.

The Greeks, as a natural consequence, owed their magnificent bodies and high ideals of form, which have made their sculptures immortal through the ages, to the refined, systematic exercise which was a regular and essential part of their education.

The weak, over-strained, nervous state of so many men and women, and the poorly endowed bodies of a large majority of the children, are arguments convincing enough to prove the necessity of body cultivation for the youth of our country; and they are arousing, within the last few years, a general and popular awakening on the subject of health promotion.

Just how the introduction of physical education in America began, I do not know. Surely somebody ought to be congratulated. Perhaps the attention of the people was first attracted to the practice of gymnastics by the German Turner societies, but the promulgation of physical education has spread far beyond them. Hon. W. T. Harris says: "It is the glory of the present revival of physical exercise, that it is led by educated physicians. The establishment of a resident physician in each of our colleges, as supervisor of gymnastics and recording inspector of physical development among the students, is a movement of the highest importance."

"The American Association for the Advancement of Physical Education" has recently held its seventh annual convention, and discussed in a masterly way "The Condition and Prospect of Physical Education in the United States," "The Influence of Methodical Gymnastics in Increasing Chest Capacity," "The Influence of Habitual Posture on the Symmetry and Health of the Body," "Delsarte and his Work," "The

Swedish System," "The German System," and the "Best System of Physical Education for American Schools."

The Swedish system has its strong advocates, and has taken firm hold on the Boston schools. The normal schools in Boston and Brooklyn are sending out well-equipped teachers to all parts of the country. In the Eclectic Schools of Physical Training at Chautauqua, N. Y., where Dr. Anderson superintends the instruction of almost a thousand students each year, the work is carried on according to scientific principles. This school is the medium of disseminating the profound truths of physical training all over the country. In the past thirteen weeks 40,000 children in the St. Louis public schools have been weighed and measured. More than a million items relating to the physique of these children have been collected, and this research is the most extensive of its kind ever undertaken in this country. And so the work goes on, not only in a scientific way, but from Maine to Texas, teachers, clubs, societies, and schools have been experimenting on the joints and muscles of the people of all ages and conditions. They have patched up the middle-aged and elderly with the Delsarte nerve-training and sleep exercises; they have pinned on to the society lady a few graces and poses; they have rounded out the muscles of the boys and girls with Indian clubs and dumb-bells; and they have worn out the little ones with magnificent displays of sashes, parasols, and fans; and—what is most marvelous—they have in eight one-hour lessons prepared physical educators to teach in county institutes.

All of this desultory, fragmentary effort follows in the awakening, and proves that something is perceived to be physically wrong with the people. There may be some good in this dissemination, and be it far from me to depreciate anything that is being done for physical improvement. No effort for the betterment of humanity, however small, can be lost in the grand total. Through the kindergarten and the manual training principles, the science of pedagogy has made a great discovery—that of the human body in the schoolroom, and the question is, What is best to do with it? Educators and school officers must establish a systematic organized movement, that will not only reach the colleges and universities but the more than thirteen millions of children in our public schools. Just how far the schools are responsible for the physical condition of the children is a hard question to solve. It would seem that they should simply supplement the home; but as conditions are, when in so many instances the home fails to do its part, and in a manner makes a general assignment of its children to the school—then the school must not fail the Government. The children of the vicious must be trained for humanity's sake; so must the children of the weak. Health is a poor man's fortune, and the rich would give his fortune for it. Herbert Spencer says: "The first requisite to success in life is to be a good animal, and to be a nation of good animals is the first condition of national prosperity."

The school management have been somewhat reluctant about taking up the work, partly from the fact that they did not know what to do, and partly because the school curriculum is already overcrowded; and then, again, they must meet the economy objection.

First, physical education should receive the same intelligent and business-like consideration that is given to other branches of education. There must be money spent in its interests, and push and patience given to creating a sentiment in its favor, before it will succeed. The advocators must be prepared to show that this extra work in the schools will abundantly justify added taxation and expense. "It will make any teaching a farce to treat it with financial indifference." The ultimate aim will be to secure state legislation on the teaching of physical education in all schools supported by public money; for if it is ever to become a potent factor in our educational system it must be made obligatory in the schools where the masses are developed.

Ohio has already taken the first step in this direction, and at the last legislature passed a law requiring the teaching of physical education in the schools of all cities and towns numbering as many as five thousand inhabitants.

Our advanced thinkers in the higher schools of learning took up the subject first; therefore the tendency has been to reverse the natural order of things, and promote the work in the colleges and higher schools instead of in the common schools. This is wrong, for if ever a child needs careful body training it is while his body is being built. Then is the time to form habits of health and teach a greater reverence for the sanctity of the body. The body training should begin with the child's advent into school.

At present, the successful introduction of physical education in the public schools will require a competent supervisor, whose duties it shall be to train the pupils at stated times, and as frequently as circumstances will permit, and also to train the teachers, who shall daily conduct the work during the intervening period. It would be desirable that each school building should have its properly fitted apartment for gymnastic exercises, to which the pupils should repair at such times as they could come directly under the charge of the supervisor.

However, very efficient service will result when the regular teacher can adjust herself to existing circumstances and carry on a health training along with the other work of her room. She may get her training from whatever source she can: one thing is certain, she must begin with *herself first.* The work is not an imposition; on the contrary, it is a blessing to every teacher, who ought to hail with delight every good thought brought forward on the subject. When I hear a sunken-chested, limp-muscled, heel-gaited teacher say, "I'm introducing physical culture into my school," I think, O physician, heal thyself, before you stand as an example in the

presence of the children! If you are only willing to pay the price of practice, you can do much to build your body up into strength and good form even in middle life. "The period of body training is not limited to youth, but lasts as long as you inhabit your body." I believe that a teacher should possess something of righteousness, something of intelligence, and much of physical wholesomeness. She should possess strength and self-control sufficient to carry herself with ease and personal dignity before her school.

Aside from the standpoint of strength and carriage, good health has a moral bearing upon the character of the teacher. 'Tis true that breathing will cure anger; few people know how to breathe as deeply and fully as they should. Weak muscles and poor nerves cannot easily command the virtues of patience, cheerfulness, and firmness, so needful to the profession. 'Tis not enough to be able to "go through" a series of mechanical evolutions with wands and clubs; but the principles of physical development, muscle building, nerve training, and hygiene must be understood, and the practice taken hand in hand with the science. All teachers should understand that part of physical culture which bears on training the vocal organs. They should know enough of voice training not to ruffle the temper of the children and injure their voices. The bearing, the vitality, the carriage, the tones of one who goes in and out before the students each day are a great silent teaching. The presence of a teacher sometimes, instead of radiating light and good cheer, hangs over the children like a mantle of darkness.

"What is the best *system* of gymnastics for our American schools?" is the question in the minds of our leading thinkers. Most surely do we want a system that is based upon scientific principles, and has the quality of conforming to the needs of the rising generation, from the kindergarten to the college. Such a system is in the progress of evolution and compilation, and will be built upon the study and practice of our best thinkers and teachers. We want a training that establishes the best physical possibilities in each individual, and leaves no muscle undeveloped; one that will compel the blood to circulate strongly in the weak parts of the body, and will teach the children how to recreate correctly.

We want a training that will in a measure prevent disease. Physicians bear testimony to the fact that a large proportion of sickness and death is traceable to the ignorance of such common laws of health as should be drilled into the minds of every school pupil. We want such teaching as will make promptness, control of the body, and good manners habitual. We want a training that will teach how to eat and dress more in accordance with nature's laws. It is natural to be healthy, and there is no reason why the most intelligent animal should suffer the most from bodily pain. I wish that we might have a school dress suited to the promotion of health, planned for utility and comfort; one that would laugh at the fads and follies of fashion, and be so fitted to the natural form as to hang

from the shoulders, and not press the stomach and contents of the abdomen down out of their natural position. We want a training that will develop strong healthy bodies, and store up a large quantity of reserve force for after life. Dr. Rice, in "The Popular Science Monthly" for July, recommends physical exercise and says: "If we assist the organs during childhood when they are weak, not only will much be done to restore good health during this period, but the age of maturity will be reached with a well-developed body, and good health to a considerable extent will be assured through life. We want such exercise as will coördinate body, mind, and soul—*a physical* education that shall bear its part in the *true education of the entire being*—which means the development and liberation of all our powers, mental, moral, physical. I believe that the complete development of a triune nature is the grand design of a triune God. When the physical passes from the slavery of weakness and awkwardness into the freedom of strength and personal control, then the individual comes in nearer kindred with the Divine. In harmony with the moral instincts, it is every Christian's duty to take care of his body. We are commanded to glorify God in our bodies as well as in our spirits, and not to defile the temple of the soul.

We appreciate genuine exercise, we want honest, genuine muscle-building and nerve coördination, but we do not believe in such exercise as too strongly compels the attention and taxes the will; prolonged attention fatigues the brain, over-develops the nerve centers, and destroys the beneficial effects of exercise on the muscles.

The harmonious cultivation of the nerves and muscles cannot be separated, as the motor part of the brain can only attain its full vigor when the body is in a healthy condition.

There is danger of gymnastics being too severe and entirely overthrowing all good effects, and just here the relaxing and recreative exercises have a place. Don't say to the child, "Be still," but by recreative and educative exercises train his little body into self-control. Remember, his blood is warmer and circulates faster than yours: he needs an outlet for his superabundant animal life. Before this habit of wasting the vital forces becomes fixed, he should be taught how to rid himself of this nervous strain; then when he has once learned the lessons of "letting go of himself," as it were, and feels sure that his head and feet will stay on without watching, he is in a possession of a knowledge that will be a blessing to him through his entire life.

Our overworked American people, and especially the teachers, need to know the secret of resting the muscles and freeing the tired nerves when they are not in use.

Hon. W. T. Harris says: "The great need of pupils is relaxation; the pupil needs to stretch his cramped muscles and send the blood in torrents through his limbs, which become torpid with unuse. The pupil is in want

of fresh air, and of the deep inflation of the lungs that exercise in the open air gives. He ought to use his voice, too. The reformers propose to throw open the windows and let in fresh air; they will have a system of well-devised movements which will give the needed circulation of the blood, etc."

He admits that gymnastics serve a good place in the schoolroom, but says, "The chief demand upon the pupil in calisthenics is a requirement of him to strain his attention and exercise his will. It is a will-training to a greater extent than a physiological training. The instructor's best service is to be along the line of enlightening the student who is on the verge of nervous prostration how to build anew his nerves."

Mr. Harris says this in defense of out-door recesses, because they are being displaced with a kind of gymnastics which is ever taxing—just at the time when rest is needed. Believing, as we do, that out-door recesses are productive of more evil than good, from harmful associates, violent and irregular exercise, indiscriminate racing and shouting, we have given this phase of the work especial attention, and would suggest recess recreation instead of recess gymnastics. The windows can be thrown open while the pupils engage in full deep breathing and recreative marching; they can practice "chinning" on the horizontal bar suspended in the cloak-room door, or they can exercise on the vaulting bar; they can engage in the "tug of war," "chest dipping" by pushing on the desks, and, best of all, in the "relaxing exercise"—all of which afford cheerful recreation.

A student who is correctly trained will never come to the verge of nervous prostration; therefore we will not in the future need the restorative exercises that Mr. Harris suggests.

We have told you that we believe in strength; we also believe in knowing how to save and use strength. We believe not in cultivating the body as an end in itself, but as the agent of the mind and soul: so we would weave into the fabrics of our system a thread of connection between the strong body and the expression which is made not of the body, but through it, and would introduce courteous deportment and movements expressive of the emotions.

I have no sympathy with the kind of instruction which deals out only the dry bones of mechanical practice, without suggestions of its application to practical life and beauty. The mind must be awakened to a keen appreciation of the need of a good body; then practice to the end of developing the physical being becomes a pleasure. Boys can be won to earnest work by suggestions as to the importance of strength and manliness. They can easily be led to see the commercial value put upon a good form and courteous bearing by the business world. Tell them of the boy whose healthful, gentlemanly appearance won him the position over a crowd of careless, slouching competitors.

Girls are pleased with the attainments of grace, good form, strength,

and beauty, while all acknowledge the universal demand for health and good manners.

When once a child is taught the importance and language of movement, and its reflex action upon his character, he will no more shuffle his feet or slam the door, than he will permit slang or profanity to pass his lips.

What we are doing for the children to-day we are doing for the nation to-morrow. We believe rather in *formation* than *reformation*. The results of such a physical training as we want will make it wholly unnecessary to impose artificial restraint for good conduct on the people. Truly trained physical movements, rooted in moral vitality, will so incorporate themselves into the very being of the individual as to become natural. The laws of their existence will command their appetites and evil natures. "Vice and crime can be controlled at the fountain head of physical law." When once taught in this way, people will depend on Nature's true tonic—exercise and fresh air—for invigoration, and will thus build themselves up into purer and more honest living.

The work is new, and true growth is slow; but I believe that in time my most ardent hopes for the bettering of our people through a systematic physical training in the schools is not beyond fulfillment.

DISCUSSION.

DR. W. G. ANDERSON, OF YALE: It is too generally admitted by institutions of learning, that physical training is essential, for me to dwell upon this particular feature. Our schools agree in their catalogues, if not in any other way, that pupils should receive gymnastic training; this being the case, let us turn our attention to other phases of the question.

Facts will be worth more just now than theories.

If we who represent the physical educators wish the school commissioners to adopt some system of physical training, we must present something worthy of being accepted.

The colleges can take care of themselves; the public and normal schools should be looked after.

The system that goes into these institutions should be to a certain extent eclectic, or American if the name is any better. It must be made up of the strong parts of the recognized methods.

It must be one that will produce results, because the value of any method of training is based on the results it can produce.

If from three systems the same result can be had, then use that one that will most pleasantly effect it.

If the Swedes, or Germans, or the followers of Delsarte, claim that their systems are the only ones, and that good does not exist in others, they are putting a fence around their profession, and consequently narrowing the field of work.

The Swedish theory is fascinating; the practice is not, especially for children.

The reverse may be said of the German gymnastics. They have not presented their theory so well, but their practice is more interesting.

If the school boards wish their teachers to instruct the pupils in gymnastics, they must educate the teacher.

No one can teach what he does not know.

The plan of training to be adopted in this country must be a broad and liberal one. It must seek to educate and to produce the results supposed to be the outcome of gymnastic training.

It will take time to formulate a system, but such a system will surely come some day.

REPORT OF ROUND-TABLE CONFERENCE ON "THE TEACHING OF LATIN IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS."

CONGRESS HALL, SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.,
Friday, July 15, 1892.

The conference was organized at 9.30 at the above hotel by calling W. T. White of Tennessee to the chair. Some twenty-three teachers, engaged in teaching high school Latin in different sections of the Union, were present. The session lasted some two hours, and among other topics discussed were, "Inductive Method of Teaching Latin," "Should Pupils be Taught to Converse in Latin?" "At what Age should the Study of Latin be taken up?" "Latin Prose Composition," etc., etc. So great was the interest manifested, that it was the unanimous opinion of all present that the conference should be continued at the next annual meeting of the N. E. A.; and, upon motion, a committee of three were appointed to prepare topic or topics on "High School Latin," for that occasion. Those appointed were, Principal H. P. Lewis, of the Omaha (Neb.) High School, Miss DeVoll, of the Hornellsville (N. Y.) High School, and Dr. Carl F. Kayser, of the Packard Institute, New York City.

W. T. WHITE, *Chairman.*

PROCEEDINGS AND ADDRESSES

OF THE

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.

AUDITORIUM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL BUILDING,
THURSDAY, July 14, 1892.

NONE of the officers being present, the meeting was called to order by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia College. James H. Baker, President of the University of Colorado, was elected permanent Chairman; Dr. G. E. Fellows, of the University of Indiana, was elected Secretary. Dr. Butler moved that a committee on nominations be appointed, to report at the meeting on Friday. Motion carried. The Chair appointed Dr. Butler, Mr. Melvil Dewey, and Professor Henry C. King.

The Department was then addressed by the Hon. Charles C. Bonney, of Chicago, on the World's Congresses of 1893.

At the close of his remarks, in reply to a question, Mr. Bonney said that the relation between the local committee on the World's Congress and the Department of Higher Education was to be here established, and that it was desirable that a committee of conference be appointed. Upon motion of Professor Fellows, the Committee on Nominations had added to its duties the appointment of the committee of the kind desired, to report the same on Friday. The Department then listened to a paper on "Rhetoric and Public Speaking in the American College," by Professor Henry Allyn Frink, of Amherst College.

This paper was freely discussed. A brief summary of the discussion follows:

PRESIDENT CHAS. SCOTT, of Hope College, Michigan, said he was sorry to hear that literary societies are about dead, as he learned more of public speaking in literary societies than in any other way, and the real preparation for life was there obtained. Public speaking cannot be taught in the class-room.

PROFESSOR FELLOWS, of Indiana University, said that we only had to listen to a complete programme of any of our great conventions to see how sadly was training needed in public speaking. Men are eminent as specialists, but many cannot properly give expression of their thoughts to others. They cannot be heard in a great assembly. Public speaking can be learned at college, and college men, above all others, who are supposed to have great thoughts, should be able to present them well.

PROFESSOR FISHER, of Wheaton College, said that the literary society is still alive, and the members discussed old questions with enthusiasm. The occasion is just as real to them as if newer questions were brought before them.

PROFESSOR HUME, of the University of North Carolina, said that the literary society flourished in his institution as a green bay tree. They are one hundred years old. Many statesmen of old and recent times received their training there. Graham, on the ticket with Winfield Scott, was one of them. Professor Hume thought that work in literary societies should be co-ordinated with work in the class-room, and believed it practical.

PROFESSOR KING, of Oberlin, commended the paper as proper in all respects, but also thought that there is a need for free public speaking,—some occasion which is real, and where the student has something to gain. There are eight literary societies at Oberlin. Professor King learned more from recitation than in literary societies, and thought that may be the lecture system, as now more generally introduced into our large institutions, obstructs the training that would come from recitation. The recitation is most important in training for public speaking, as there is something at stake.

PRESIDENT MAUCK, of the University of South Dakota, said that the fact that training in public speaking is looked down upon is because it is confused with elocution. By elocution one strives to give to others not his own ideas, but the ideas of some one else. President Mauck was most impressed by the part of the paper where Professor Frink describes his method of finding out what is each one's special characteristic, and then giving attention to the development of that. The other style of teaching takes out the personality. The method described in the paper is surely better.

PROFESSOR SPRAGUE SMITH, of New York City, said that it was unfortunate that Greek-letter societies had replaced the old literary societies. There is something stiff and not individual in the American speaking. Why not take a child and develop a natural tendency to easy speaking and gestures, instead of giving formal instruction? Keep the straight-jacket off and we get more natural oratory.

PROFESSOR BROWN said that the same method that was described by Professor Frink had already been tried successfully in New York State, in Hamilton College. Mannerism is acquired by practice in a small room, and those who practice speaking in a large room are more successful.

PROFESSOR FRINK said that the Greek-letter societies in Amherst College are a great aid in the rhetorical and oratory work.

Meeting adjourned until 3 P.M., Friday.

SECOND SESSION.

FRIDAY, July 15, 1892.

The meeting was called to order at 3 o'clock by President Baker. The report of the Committee on Nominations was first presented. The report was adopted.

The first paper on the programme was by Hon. W. T. Harris, Commissioner of Education, on "The Future of Higher Education in America."

The second paper was by President Raymond, of Middletown Wesleyan University, on "Education and Citizenship."

The third paper of the session was by Professor Elmer E. Brown, of Michigan University, on "The University in its Relation to the People."

Professor Charles M. Gayley, of the University of California, made some extemporaneous remarks upon the subject of literary science. No paper having been prepared, no report of the address appears.

Meeting adjourned.

JAMES H. BAKER, *President pro tem.*
GEORGE E. FELLOWS, *Secretary pro tem.*

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS.

To the Department of Higher Education:

Your Committee on Nominations beg leave to submit the following report:

In view of the fact that the Department has been permitted to run down during the last two or three years, it seems to be absolutely necessary that no person shall be elected to responsible office at the present time who will not agree, at the time of his acceptance, to be present at the next meeting of the Department, and labor earnestly for its success. With a little concerted effort, a large and representative attendance can be secured for the meeting of the Congress of Higher Education in Chicago in 1893, as well as for the next regular meeting of the Department at some place yet to be determined. Your Committee, therefore, report the following list of nominations, and ask to be empowered to fill any vacancy in the list, should the persons here named, if elected, decline to state specifically that they will be present at the next regular meeting of the Department:

President—President Seth Low, of Columbia College, New York.

Vice-Presidents—Rt. Rev. John J. Keane, Rector of the Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.; President W. D. Hyde, Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Me.; President W. G. Ballantine, Oberlin College, Oberlin, O.; Chancellor James H. Canfield, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb.; and President William Preston Johnston, of Tulane University, New Orleans, La.

Secretary—Melvil Dewey, Secretary of the University of the State of New York, Albany, N. Y.

Your Committee were also instructed to report a committee to represent this Department in co-operation with the World's Congress Auxiliary at the Congress of Higher Education to be held next year. We recommend that the officers now to be elected be constituted as such committee, and be directed to co-operate not only with the World's Congress Auxiliary, but with the Committee of the National Educational Association on the World's Educational Congresses, of which committee Dr. William T. Harris is Chairman.

Respectfully submitted,

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER,
H. C. KING,
} *Committee.*

THE WORLD'S CONGRESSES OF 1893.

BY PRESIDENT CHARLES C. BONNEY, OF THE WORLD'S CONGRESS AUXILIARY.

Mr. Bonney spoke substantially as follows:

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: On the eve of my arrival to attend the Convention of the National Educational Association, I had the pleasure of listening to Dr. Pepper, Provost of the University of Pennsylvania, and Dr. Eliot, President of Harvard University, at the great meeting held in the Casino; and when I listened to Dr. Pepper's appeal for a federation of learning, and to Dr. Eliot's earnest plea for individualism in education, I felt that we were, indeed, living in the midst of the new educational age. We have heard much of the federation of labor, and something of the federation of man, but the idea of a universal federation of learning is a new star in the intellectual firmament. We have heard much—quite too much—of uniformity in education, of equal attainments by unequal faculties; and it was refreshing, indeed, to hear the head of Harvard University plead for the right of individual genius to recognition and development.

Even the briefest review of the events of the last fifty years is sufficient to show how largely "old things have passed away, and all things in the educational realm have become new."

If asked to name the most important distinguishing characteristic of the educational movement of our own immediate time, I should, without hesitation, say that it is the impulse of the higher institutions of learning to carry their treasures of truth and learning, accumulated through former generations, to those multitudes of the people who have hitherto been deprived of them, and to say, take freely, "without money and without price." At last the higher institutions of learning have reached the condition of development and strength from which they can go forth to conquer new realms and confer the new citizenship of culture on their willing inhabitants.

It is a familiar truth that there can be no evolution without a precedent corresponding involution; that nothing can be evolved which has not first been involved; but it is not so familiar truth that when at last evolution has become complete by ascending to the borders of the divine, it reverses its course, and, descending on a new mission, will be content with nothing less than the regeneration of all things within its sway. Thus, the higher institutions of learning which through many weary centuries have struggled, first for mere existence, and afterward for enlargement,

completion, perpetuity, and power, have at last reached a stage from which they can go forth like armies with banners to overcome the world of ignorance and superstition which lies around and below them. This is the secret and the meaning of the present world-wide movement which passes by the name of "The Extension of University Teaching."

Before this new era, not only were the higher institutions of learning isolated from the people, they were also isolated from each other. No common tie bound them in fraternal relations. But in this our day, the impulse to give the treasures of learning to the masses of the people is necessarily accompanied by the impulse to bring those who are engaged in this heavenly mission into friendly relations with each other.

That we live in the midst of what may not improperly be called "an impending revolution," all may see. That great changes in the relations of different classes and peoples to each other are inevitable, few close observers will question. That the result of these changes will be the establishment of a higher and better justice among men, all who love their kind will ardently hope. But the most vital question involved is whether the impending changes shall be wrought in peace or with violence, by the weapons of truth or by the clash of arms?

In the days when force was king, men turned their eyes in times of trouble to forts and commanders and armed hosts; but now, in this dawn of "the peace beginning to be," the leaders of mankind, confronted with the great and far-reaching changes to which I have referred, turn their anxious eyes to the fortresses of learning where are gathered the apostles of science and art, of culture and progress, and call for heroes who have the knowledge, the wisdom, and the strength adequately to deal with and effectually to settle such conflicts as that of which the impending struggle between capital and labor is the leading type. From land to land the "black anarchist" whispers the war cry of "ninety-three!" Let the leaders of progress throughout the world proclaim that in these closing years of the century of progress the only torch by which a just cause can be advanced is the torch of learning; the only sword by which evil can be effectually subdued, the sword of truth.

BUT WHAT CAN BE DONE AT CHICAGO NEXT YEAR?

I will presume that you heard the presentation made, in my discourse this morning, of the general plans and purposes of the series of World's Congresses to be held at Chicago during the six months of the Exposition season of 1893, and will therefore not repeat what was then set forth. I may, however, properly refer in more detail to the Congresses of Higher Education which are embraced in the plans of the World's Congress Auxiliary.

We invite the faculties of the colleges and the universities of all coun-

tries to convene in a fraternal assemblage for the purpose of conferring in regard to their mutual interests and the mode in which the blessings of higher education may be most effectually extended among the masses of the people.

We invite the students of the higher institutions of learning throughout the world to meet in congress, in Chicago, next year, and emulate the example set by the International Congress of Student Youths, held at Paris, during the Exposition of 1889, under the leadership of Ernest Lavisse.

We invite the college fraternities of all countries to assemble in Chicago next year, to consider how they may most effectually contribute to the spread of learning throughout the world.

These higher educational congresses will be in addition to the General Educational Congress, and the other special educational congresses mentioned this morning. We desire the attendance at them, not only of the presidents and faculties of the most renowned institutions of learning, but also, and as earnestly, the presence of the representatives of the humbler colleges of all countries. We want them all to feel that the glory and the power of learning throughout the world are the common heritage of all who are engaged in its pursuit, and that the humblest may share with the greatest in the sacred war against ignorance and superstition.

I think I cannot do better, in conclusion, than read to you the official letter of instructions from the Department of State to all the diplomatic and consular officers of the United States, resident in other countries, to formally invite the governments to which they are respectively accredited to send delegates to all or any of the World's Congresses of 1893, in addition to the representatives who are expected from the societies and institutions of different countries.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE.
WASHINGTON, June 13, 1892.

To the Diplomatic and Consular Officers of the United States:

GENTLEMEN—The Department is in receipt of a letter from Mr. Charles C. Bonney, President of the World's Congress Auxiliary, dated Chicago the 3d instant. It states that, in pursuance of the course indicated in the original announcement of the World's Congress Auxiliary, which was transmitted with the act of Congress approved April 25, 1890, and the President's invitation of January 14, 1891, extending to all foreign governments a cordial invitation to participate in the World's Columbian Exposition, to be held at Chicago in 1893, the work of the World's Congress Auxiliary has been organized to the present date in sixteen departments and more than one hundred general divisions in which congresses are to be held.

The preliminary organizations of these congresses are contained in the preliminary publications of the Auxiliary, copies of which are herewith transmitted. It is especially desired that the largest practicable participation of foreign peoples and governments in the whole series of these important congresses may be secured, and, in consequence of the brief intervening period, the utmost diligence to that end is earnestly enjoined.

It is particularly requested that a convenient number of the most eminent representatives of the various departments of human progress be selected as delegates to attend the respective congresses, by or under the direction of each of the foreign governments, in addition to those who will come as the representatives of the leading institutions and societies of the different countries. Such a co-operation on the part of other governments will, it is confidently believed, tend in the highest degree to promote, strengthen, and extend those fraternal relations and mutual benefits which may now justly be regarded as the supreme object of international intercourse, and as involving a higher civilization and a broader human progress.

You will promptly communicate this supplementary invitation to the government to which you are accredited, and use your best endeavors to obtain its cordial and hearty co-operation, reporting, without unneccessary delay, the result of your efforts in this behalf. The plans aims, objects, and purposes of the congresses in question are amply disclosed by the printed pamphlets accompanying this invitation.

On receipt of the names of such delegates as may be selected to attend these several congresses, suitable communications will be promptly forwarded to them.

I am, gentlemen,

Your obedient servant,

WILLIAM F. WHARTON,

Acting Secretary.

With a cordial invitation to attend the educational congresses of 1893, I have the honor, ladies and gentlemen of the Department of Higher Education, to return my thanks for the kind attention I have received.

RHETORIC AND PUBLIC SPEAKING IN THE AMERICAN COLLEGE.

BY PROFESSOR HENRY ALLYN FRINK, PH.D., DEPARTMENT OF LOGIC, RHETORIC, AND PUBLIC SPEAKING, AMHERST COLLEGE.

THE rhetoric included in my subject is the rhetoric of the forms of composition adapted to public delivery. I may add that there is also a large range of composition not intended to be spoken, yet which, to be effective in its purpose, must have the directness, force, and pointedness of oral address. In fact, nearly all successful composition—except perhaps the higher forms of literature, which, as the critics tell us, are not a means, but in themselves an end—is marked by these characteristics of the spoken word.

One of the great mistakes in rhetorical training, I think, has been the failure to make the necessary distinctions between this kind of composition and that of the purely literary type.

Literature proper, which appeals to the thought, the imagination, the sensibilities, simply through the eye, is but slightly subject to the rules of rhetoric. The essential elements of literary power and beauty are indefinable, illusive, and are not to be communicated by formal instruc-

tion. The nearest approach to this end by direct teaching is from the analysis of literary models. But this cannot go beyond the mere form of literature. Its spirit is not to be thus dissected. It is no part of my purpose to show in what ways, if any, the student may be helped in composition to a literary sense and spirit, or even to a literary style of expression and skill in construction. I have a colleague who has the secret, if has any man; and I shall leave it to him to tell in his own way, and at some other time and place, his methods. It is enough for me to say that, in my opinion, the formal study of rhetoric will be, at the most, no more than a preliminary step in helping to produce the successful sketch, story, or literary and critical essay. The field of rhetorical training that may be largely and immediately fruitful, however, is in the direction indicated by my subject. Here instruction may be definite, positive, helpful. With the wise and faithful use of right methods the student may be aided in this broad range of practical composition to write with ease and power. To be definite, then, as to the rhetoric of my theme, I repeat that it is concerned simply with that composition which can be successfully produced only when the writer, while composing, imagines his audience before him, and writes as if speaking to a hearer. With this understanding, the close connection between the work in rhetoric and the work in public speaking will, I think, be suggested.

And now let me explain what I mean by public speaking. Coupled with rhetoric, the combined phrase answers in some small measure to what was once included under the term oratory. Schools for the technical training of actors and dramatic readers have of late, however, usurped this word, and turned it from its original sense.

Yet the term oratory, as it appeared in the college catalogue, had in its old significance, when not an indefinite, a most inadequate meaning. As far as it represented the actual work of a department, it usually stood for the public hearing of a few declamations in the early part of the college course; and, in the latter part of the course, the hearing of a fewer number of orations. A term or part of a term of the formal study of rhetoric, with the reading of a few essays, added to this untrained delivery of a few declamations and orations, completed what was thought to be a generous course. It is a question whether this is not an ample statement of the actual work done in this direction, even to-day, in many of our colleges.

But I mean, by a course in public speaking, something very different. I mean such a broad and thorough training in power of expression, both in the spoken and in the written word, as shall prepare the student to meet, as a speaker, the varied demands of professional and public life. It is a course that has its general disciplinary value as well as its practical use. It is a course that is to have its part in developing, strengthening, and perfecting the man, no less than in training the future preacher,

lawyer, legislator, or speaker, who is the representative of large business, social, or philanthropic interests. It stands not simply for vocal culture, elocutionary drill, and the study of effective action, but for such special training in logical force and rhetorical skill as shall make easy, natural, and thus genuine, the grace and power of the spoken word. The course, therefore, has to do with the student as thinker and as writer as well as speaker. It means no enforcement of an arbitrary system of delivery, no limitation of means to a prescribed set of rules. Recognizing with Emerson that behind the orator is the man, it stands for a training that shall call forth the individual powers of the student, and help these powers to their largest usefulness by preserving, stimulating, and developing the personal force of the speaker, freed, as far as possible, from personal defects.

Its work, it is plain, is in a large degree radical. It goes to the sources of power. Having to do with the man no less than with the orator, it not only seeks to help guide his thinking processes and shape his habits of written expression, that he may speak logically and forcibly, but it also aims to inspire his moral qualities to their highest reach, and to deepen and broaden his emotional susceptibilities, that he may speak nobly and heartily.

Its aim is something very different from imposing a manner. It is preparing the matter to form rightly its own manner.

In a certain sense this developing and training of character, this disciplining the thought, and molding speech in its written and spoken forms, is, as it may be said, the province of the whole college curriculum. It belongs, however, peculiarly to such a course as I have in mind, to give immediate opportunity for the expression of this general development, discipline, and training. All that the student has gained in every other department he will have occasion to use in this particular department. It will be, from term to term, the measuring center of his gain and growth. But, more than this, it will have its own especial developing, disciplining, and training power, in teaching the student how to use for a definite end the resources acquired in his general course of study. As a means of this right application of knowledge and mental power, there is required, as has been said, not simply elocutionary training, but combined with it logical and rhetorical training; while behind all forms of instruction there must be an inspiring, invigorating force to help the speaker as a man to be at his best and to do his best. With this hint of the nature and the range of the department of public speaking, I leave the details of its work until I have spoken more fully of the practical and disciplinary value of such a course.

The utility of oratorical training, I know, is questioned. Oratory, as we often hear, is a lost art. As it is claimed, there is now for the art neither demand nor supply. The press, as we are told, has taken its

place of influence. But to say that the day of the orator is passed. is to forget how only a few years ago, in a Northern city, a Southern speaker, comparatively unknown, by a single speech drew to himself within twenty-four hours the mind and the heart of the nation. Not since the death of Henry Clay have all sections of our land so mourned together a common loss as that of the man who, in his brief mission of eloquence, had so greatly helped North and South to mutual confidence and brotherly regard. Nor will there fail to come to mind others of to-day, who, with skill in those lighter forms of speech which grace the festivities of after-dinner gatherings, are well known to fill no small place in the public eye ; and who, also, by the telling word felicitously spoken, have a power, often deprived the more solid parts of statesmanship, to tip the scales of party judgment and action, and to influence not only municipal but national affairs. "The deepest avenue to the soul," says one of our most philosophic thinkers, "is by the ear." The religions that have moved mankind most profoundly have addressed themselves to the ear and not to the eye. Moses spake, the prophets spake, the Son of God spake, the apostles spake, is the record of the means of God's drawing to himself the heart and mind and will and life of the human race. Nor to-day can the cold, speechless type, however freighted with wisdom, work upon man the spell of the living presence, the speaking gesture, the inspiring voice.

Neither is the journalist the orator's rival. The press is but the agent of the pulpit and the rostrum. It makes the speaker known where, without its help, he would be unknown. Rarely in the history of eloquence has an unheralded orator risen so instantaneously to national eminence as, through the aid of the press, did Henry Grady. Publishing and distributing the words of the speaker, the press intensifies their force, multiplies their usefulness, and for every new utterance of his attracts larger and more deeply interested audiences. To the denunciations of a Dr. Parkhurst it gives a volume and a range that bring upon Tammany Hall not a local but a world-wide condemnation, and gain for the preacher, wherever he may go, the hearing that always attends the fearless prophet of righteousness. Unquestionably are great causes necessary to develop great orators. It may be also granted that great orators abound most not in a nation's brightest, but darkest days. Still, while human nature remains as it is, and there is a wrong to right and a work for good to be done,—and this there will be until the end of time,—eloquence will not be without its task, and its power to do it.

But all that I have said in answer to the popular assertion that the orator's day has passed, is not especially to my purpose. The great orator, like the great poet, is not the product of the schools. His transcendent power is a gift, and this training cannot supply. The effective *public speaker*, however, is largely, and often almost wholly, the result of instruc-

tion and practice. And whatever may be claimed as to the decease of oratory and the hopelessness of its resurrection, the public speaker was never more a living power than he is to-day. For him there is constant and urgent demand. Our age is peculiarly one of organization. Men act in bodies, and so must be addressed in bodies. The pulpit, the bar, the legislative hall, that were once almost the only field of public speech, no longer monopolize its opportunities and its necessities. The interests of every grade and phase of active life now often require in their behalf the power to address public gatherings with ready ease and effective force. These interests may not call for eloquence nor a high order of oratorical skill. But the trained ability to state their claims in public speech clearly, incisively, earnestly, is indispensable.

But were there no other call for the training of the public speaker in the American college, we ought to hear one clear and commanding in the fact that the student is to be an American citizen. The opportunities of political advancement through power in public address have been sufficiently presented to the young American. It is, however, a question whether at college or at home the duties of citizenship have always been urged upon him with equal force. That he may rise to high or lucrative positions in the State ought not to be the reason for insisting upon such training. It is, that, in the ordinary walks of citizenship open to every man, he may not hold himself back from the discharge of his public duties. No other remark has kept such constant company with our educational assemblies as that the welfare of our country depends upon the intelligence of its citizens. Would it not be wise to vary this statement and make it truer to the facts, by saying that upon the right use of that intelligence depends the future of our country? Our political life is what it is to-day not from lack of intelligence of the American people. It is because this intelligence plays so small a part in public affairs. Why New England has kept freer than other sections of our country from the worst evils that disgrace our political life has been because of the town meeting. It has been a training-school for every citizen in public speaking, and has helped every man not only to recognize his responsibilities as a citizen, but to meet them efficiently in word and action. And so the American college should be for the whole country what the town meeting has been for New England. It should by training and practice make participation in public debate and discussion so easy and natural that no college graduate will, from timidity and incapacity in public speech, shrink from bringing his intelligence to bear upon our political life.

But the especial work of the American college, it is said, is disciplinary. Were it to include courses of training simply for their practical advantage, its curriculum would lose both its distinctive characteristics and its peculiar value. A rightly conducted course in public speaking is, however, as useful in a disciplinary as in a practical way. Let me illustrate what I

mean by a simple feature of such a course; as, for example, the debate. Upon a question on some important interest, the speaker is required to prepare himself to debate intelligently by reading and careful study of the subject. The speeches, however, at both the first and the second appearance, are not to be written and memorized, but in form of expression to be wholly extemporaneous. The debater by means of his preparation has ready for use certain resources; but the particular manner in which he is to use these resources is to be determined by the occasion. To meet, then, successfully its demands, he must be trained to orderly habits of thought. The analytic power must be developed, and he be made quick to see the right relations of parts, that he may arrange his material with logical effectiveness. His judgment must be in constant exercise, that as to facts he may distinguish between the essential and the accidental. The memory must be ready and swift to serve, that the resources of knowledge may be at instant command. Nor must the mind fail to have that comprehensive grasp which holds the subject firmly as a whole, so that in the enforcement of the part the greater is never sacrificed for the less.

Of equal value is the discipline in habits of expression. The power over language which it gives is not second to any exercise in classical training. Not another's, but the speaker's own thought is to be translated into forms of speech that will help instantaneously to convince and to persuade. The strength and weakness of the speaker's vocabulary are thus constantly tested, and his success or failure in fitting the word to the thought is immediately apparent. What better means of making language crisp, vigorous, expressive!

But the discipline is not only of the faculties of thought and speech. Very soon the speaker learns that, to reach, impress, and persuade, something more is required than a mere logical and rhetorical presentation of his subject. Unless he can add a personal force—the might of his own conviction and the warmth of his own earnestness—he has simply instructed, not moved, his hearers. Prose appeals to the intellect, poetry to the sensibilities. Eloquence, combining the qualities of prose and poetry, addresses itself to the will. Thus, only as the speaker gives himself freely to his hearers—as his thought, feeling, will, are intensified by the single purpose that his audience shall share his convictions—is he able in any large way to make speech in its effect vital, immediate, potent.

And I know nothing more interesting, and I may say more inspiring, than to see a young man day by day gaining this power. Think what an awakening it is to him! Often it brings him his first knowledge of what he really is. It is not, as in other processes of training, a test of a part of his resources. It is the bringing together all his faculties and powers, and so using them as to develop a personal force that is to him a revelation. It is line and plummet touching depths in his nature of which

before he has had no intimation. It is the inspiring experience of the eyes opening upon new possibilities. In a word, it is literally the man finding himself, learning of his inheritance, coming into his kingdom.

Nor is this a matter of the imagination, a picture of what possibly might be a young man's experience. Again and again have I heard it said with genuine feeling: "I did not know myself until I began to do this work." Not infrequently have I seen plans of life changed with the coming of this knowledge of self. Very often have I known the college course itself to take a worthier direction, and gain a fresh impetus, because of the new hope and purpose that have been born.

But this development and exercise of the personal power in debate implies also the especial training of the moral qualities of self-reliance and self-command. Not long is it before the student sees that, cost what it may, he must allow no lack of confidence in himself to weaken his cause with others. Every exercise in which he takes part impresses the need of manly independence and gives opportunity for its growth. Confidence begets confidence, and practice develops an inward strength that conquers timidity, hesitation, doubt.

With the spirit of self-reliance comes that of self-command. The temptation, at first so strong in the excitement of the moment, to overstatement, to unbecoming passion, to the discourteous word or manner, experience makes less and less a temptation. The unbalanced mind, the uncertain will, the uncontrollable feelings, gain poise and steadiness, and in their strength serve the speaker, where before in their weakness they mastered him.

Something also is to be said of the peculiar intellectual awakening of such an exercise. The course of which I speak includes in debates and discussions nearly two hundred questions. Each member of the class listens to the presentation of all of these subjects, and votes upon all excepting perhaps a tenth of the number on which he himself speaks. These two hundred questions cover a wide range of subjects, historical, political, ethical, literary, scientific. But, as the especial aim of the course is to prepare for the duties of citizenship, the larger number of the subjects refer to our political history, and to questions of social reform and economic interests.

While the important works to be consulted in preparing the question are placed upon shelves especially assigned in the public reading-room, the student is led, as far as possible, to make his own use of the college library. In this way there is not only brought to his attention a broad field of information, but, as this information, to serve the speaker's end, must be assimilated, what he reads is not easily forgotten, but remains with him a part of himself.

No unusual occurrence is it for the subject to inspire an enthusiasm that directs the student's optional reading a long time after the debate.

As for the debate itself, it is rare when participation in it is not eager and earnest. How, then, can the effect of the exercise and its preparation be other than broadening and invigorating? Not only is there a constant gain in general intelligence, but a constant widening and deepening of intellectual interests and sympathies.

Best of all, the student learns early to utilize his resources and attainments. The result of such training is no modern Hamlet with the power to think and reflect, but whose thought and reflection so overpower him as to leave him nerveless in the important moment of action. With no less ability to think and reflect, he will have the power to do as well as to know. He will not be another example of that mistake of collegiate education, which, at the expense of every active power, trains the critical faculty to be so sharp and swift in discovering errors and defects that the graduate dare attempt no public service lest he blunder and violate his own rules and standards. Nor will he feel that his knowledge and culture have set him apart from the ordinary interests of men. With his attention thus early drawn to the social problems and practical needs of the age in a way to enlist his sympathies, he will see and feel these claims upon the educated man.

But, granted the benefits of a course in debates and discussions, it may be urged that the place for such exercises is in the halls of the literary societies of the college, not in the class-room. The answer is, first, that the literary society as a rule no longer flourishes, even if it exists, in the American college. Nor, as many hope, can it be restored to a place of general influence and usefulness. Wherever its successor, the Greek-letter fraternity, thrives, the public society has little if any vitality. Neither is the condition of things to change. The secret fraternities, apart from their beautiful chapter-houses and other valuable property, have elements of permanence and growth that assure their continuance of power. In the second place, the literary society, when at its best, is unequal to the demands of such training. With the largest prosperity, its active influence reaches only those who are naturally interested in its exercises. That large body of young men who, having no knowledge of their possibilities, are therefore indifferent, do not gain anything of value from these organizations. On the contrary, where such exercises are prescribed or have a prominent place in the college curriculum, it is often the students having little or no interest at first—because ignorant of their power—who later make the most marked progress and gain the largest benefit. Every year I see young men taking leading honors as writers, speakers, and debaters, who began their course with the supposition that they had not ordinary ability in these directions, and who were incredulous when told what they might accomplish. After the appointment of a student in debate, I send him a careful estimate not only of his appearance, but of the capacities indicated by the appearance, with a statement of what,

with faithful effort in correcting certain faults and developing certain qualities, he may reasonably hope to attain. I usually learn that by means of this personal word a large number who have been disheartened by their apparently unpromising appearance, and who would at the first opportunity have abandoned the work, are encouraged to test themselves afterward in a full optional course, and rarely with other than successful results.

Again, the training, to have its full benefit, must be individual. It is the personal power that is to be developed. This means, on the part of the instructor, personal knowledge of the student. The question or subject that will call out the powers of one man may only discourage another. A subject assigned at one time will also have a different influence on the same student when assigned at another time. There is in no department greater need than in this of a progressive line of work according to the development of the student.

But there is at times a deeper work to be done than any criticism of thought or expression, of manner or method. Progress may be barred because of certain personal peculiarities or defects of character. Not a step forward can be taken in such circumstances until a radical work begins. "Why can I not come into contact with my hearers as do other members of my class?" asked an able, conscientious, and scholarly student who was looking forward to the ministry. Only one answer could be given to the young man; and, when the significance of the answer was recognized, there was on his part the prompt determination to spare no effort to correct a natural tendency that threatened all future usefulness.

And now let us see more plainly the close relations which were intimated in the early part of the paper between this exercise and its results, and other lines of rhetorical and oratorical training. Said a well-known professor of sacred rhetoric in one of our most prominent theological seminaries: "It is not often that I find a college graduate who is able, in his writing, to distinguish between composition addressed to the reader and to the hearer." "I am therefore compelled," he continued, "to undo largely the rhetorical work of the college course before the student can put his sermon into a form which he can deliver, and to which a congregation will listen." Probably all professors of sacred rhetoric are not as faithful in thus undoing the work of the college course, and this may account in part for the large number of pulpit failures.

The greater popular effect of extemporaneous address comes not only from the spontaneity, freshness, and directness of its delivery, but also very often from its rhetorical characteristics. This is why the same man seems so unlike in his mental processes when using the spoken and the written form of address. This is why, again, the speaker's whole nature at times changes as he passes from one method to the other. Now vivacious, flexible, earnest, enthusiastic; and then, as he puts on his written strait-jacket, dull, cold, formal.

Yet Wendell Phillips could so give the best characteristics of his extemporaneous speaking to his most carefully written addresses, in both composition and delivery, that his intimate friends could not at times tell what had been his method of preparation. But had not Mr. Phillips been a master of extemporaneous delivery, his written speeches would have missed this rare power. And so, if the student is to be helped to his largest and best success in the written word, especially in all forms of composition that are to be delivered, he should be trained to his greatest power in the spoken word. To impress upon the young writer this vital connection between the spoken and the written word, I have sometimes required, at the beginning of the extemporaneous work, the writing of one or two orations. Then, after a term's practice in debate and discussions, has come the regular work of the course in preparing orations. And as the student has then acted upon the instruction to prepare his oration as he had his debates, with the difference only of writing out for his hearers the line of thought so conceived, instead of speaking it to them, he has at once been able to see the distinction in his own composition between what is dead and what is living. The act of composing, which at the first trial was in spirit unreal and irksome, became, with a right preparation for it, genuine and interesting work.

Passing to the delivery of the written word, the value of the extemporaneous work is still more apparent. That the speaker is effective with the great body of men in proportion as his manner is that of the best form of extemporaneous address, will be generally admitted. Whatever may be his method of preparation, his aim should therefore be to speak as when at his best in unwritten speech. This, in my opinion, is the only safe standard to set before the young speaker when delivering his written composition. If he begins his work in college on the basis of personal imitation or by attempting to follow a particular system of elocution, he will only check the development of his real power. If, on the contrary, his effort is to put himself in the same attitude of mind, and to infuse into his delivery the same spirit and purpose as when speaking extemporaneously, his gain in effectiveness will be steady and marked. The aim, therefore, to set before the young man, is for him to bring so near together, in his highest development as a speaker, his delivery of the spoken and the written word, that, as in the case of Wendell Phillips, even a friend could not observe the difference. The aim is most difficult, I admit; but any approach to it is work in the right direction.

I may at this point add that a course in public speaking is not necessarily limited to the debate, the discussion, and the writing and speaking of orations. It may include training in almost every form of address belonging to the requirements of professional and public life. Even the after-dinner speech may be introduced, as I know from the trial, with a result as useful as happy. But as the work in debates may be the most

thoroughly systematized, and hence the most vigorously conducted, it will be found, in connection with the written speech, address, and oration, to be the most fruitful means of training.

The course will be most profitable if made largely optional. That no student may begin active life without some drill in public speaking, certain exercises should be required. But the success of this special course will depend in no slight degree upon the spirit of the participant. To have this spirit hearty and enthusiastic, it is better that it be the work of his choice. And I may add that, if the course is wisely and earnestly directed, it will be an exception when it is not the student's choice.

Preceding this special course, which may perhaps be pursued most advantageously junior year, there should be in freshman and sophomore years preliminary drill in the elements of elocution and the essentials of rhetoric. This drill certainly ought to be required, as in senior year there ought to be required a limited number of exercises in debates, and possibly in orations. It is also desirable to associate with the special course in public speaking, particularly at its beginning, the study of elementary logic. In connection with the logic there should be extended drill in the use of synonyms and definitions, in the different forms of immediate inference, in fallacies, the analysis of themes, and the criticism of arguments.

What, then, in general, is to be said of rhetoric and public speaking in the American college? It is that the work in logic, rhetoric, and elocution should be largely associated; that the thinker, writer, and speaker should within certain limits have a common training; that the instruction essential to this common training should therefore be under one direction. The instructor may, if necessary, have his assistants; but he should be equipped for the triple work, and for its right direction be responsible. Logic on its philosophic side, rhetoric on its literary, and elocution on its dramatic side, may not come within his province. But the public speaker, who on the one hand is to be more than a mere declaimer, or on the other more than a soporific reader of essays, is not to be trained apart from the thinker and the writer. Neither can the thinker and the writer do their best work in public life, as we have seen, without having in some measure the training of the speaker.

And my final word is, that if the American college is to do its full duty in preparing the student for citizenship, to say nothing of preparation for other public demands, it will in many instances be compelled to enlarge its opportunities for a judicious, vigorous, and truly helpful training in rhetoric and public speaking.

EDUCATION AND CITIZENSHIP.

BY PRESIDENT RAYMOND, MIDDLETOWN WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY, CONN.

"WHAT can the teacher contribute to the elevation of the ideal of citizenship, and what to the improvement of the quality of the citizen?"

Our work is so near the center of all the soul's movements, that it must influence every power of the soul, and directly or indirectly every interest of society. For this reason the educator must keep life in view. Mr. Huxley has shown in his own inimitable way the relation of a trained mind to life. In his description of a liberal education he says: "That man, I think, has a liberal education who has been so trained in youth that his body is the ready servant of his will, and does with ease and pleasure all the work that as a mechanism it is capable of; whose intellect is a clear, cold, logic engine, with all its parts of equal strength, and in smooth working order; ready, like a steam engine, to be turned to any kind of work, and spin the gossamers as well as forge the anchors of the mind; whose mind is stored with a knowledge of the great and fundamental truths of nature and of the laws of life; who, no stunted ascetic, is full of life and fire, but whose passions are trained to come to heel by a vigorous will, the servant of a tender conscience; who has learned to love all beauty whether of nature or of art, to hate all vileness, and to respect others as himself."

I would add, and his religious nature sensitive to all revelations of God, whether they come from the material universe, from the human heart with its longings for and intimations of the truth, or from inspired prophet. We must not lose sight of the ideals that spring from the very summit of our being. If we do, we shall have half-trained men; life will be emptied of its spiritual contents, and then surely life will not be worth living. Moreover, we shall lack inspiration for the highest ideals of citizenship, which are to be found in the nation only as it is expressive of a divine will and purpose.

The crown of laurel at the great Olympic games was never given to the half-trained or the unsystematically trained athlete. The great German writers in the field of pedagogics offer you a philosophy which begins with dietetics, or the nourishment of the body; gymnastics, or the training of the muscular system; intellectual education and education of the will, which runs out into social, moral, and religious culture. Following nature, and instructed by all the systems of the past, we are working at this great problem of education under the most favorable circumstances and with the greatest responsibilities.

Our ideals of citizenship must come from a more profound study of the

national life. It would be an exaggeration to say that we form our ideals of the nation from what we see at the caucus, and from what we see and hear of vulgarity, profanity, and intemperance on election day. But it is no exaggeration to say that the exhibitions of all that is low and unworthy on election day go far toward determining the conception sof the nation formed by our youth and by the untrained foreigner. These exhibitions are, however, only the eruptions which the bad blood brings to the surface of the body politic. The family row in the alley does not show the meaning of the family life in society; it goes unceasingly on with all its sacred functions, in spite of abnormal manifestations of it.

More than thirty years ago I was startled by the remark of an old man who said: "Next to a man's love for his God should be his love for his country." But those words were big with the profoundest politico-ethical philosophy of the nineteenth century, for the nation is the institution of rights; like the family, it is called of God in the interest of righteousness among men. Hegel says: "There is one conception in religion and the state, and that is the highest of man." Milton says: "A nation ought to be but as one huge Christian personage—one mighty growth and stature of an honest man, as big and compact in virtue as in body; for look, what the ground and causes are of single happiness to one man, the same ye shall find them to a whole state;" and Burke affirms that "it is a partnership in all science, a partnership in all art, a partnership in every virtue, and in all perfection;" and one of the profoundest political philosophers of our time, the late Elisha Mulford, says, after indorsing the above theory of Hegel and Burke, "The nation moves toward the development of perfect humanity."

In the most humble court of justice, in the litigation of gigantic corporations, what mean witnesses, advocates, jurists, and judges? They are but the media through which the nation works for the rights of men. Above the clamor of political strife, the conflict of ecclesiastical parties, and the war of sections, stands the nation, Argus-eyed, vigilant of the rights and the interests of men. Let this principle be forgotten for a moment, and fancy that the inspiring spirit back of all is active in the interests of unrighteousness. With that fancy, could it be realized, you lay a train of explosives which would blow the fabric of society to atoms. Remember this principle well, and the talent of every man finds opportunity, every home security, and every citizen protection, as surely in Valparaiso as in Brooklyn. There has been a kind of sub-consciousness of this truth among all the nations of history. Mrs. Browning's words in "Mother and Poet" ring true both to the heart of the mother and to the sacredness of the nation as she sings:

> "To teach them—It stings there! I made them indeed
> Speak plain the word country. I taught them, no doubt,
> That a country's a thing men should die for at need."

The nation thus conceived gives meaning to all the sacrifice that has been made to preserve it. Conceive it to be but the leproused thing indicated by the emptiness of an election day, and why should a man die for it ?

The nation is not simply a body of people living upon an ample extent of otherwise unoccupied territory. Such a body of people may be only a body of banditti or a nest of pirates.

President Woolsey tells us that the Barbary powers could not be taken into the family of nations until they had organized in the interest of rights among men. Our Constitution is an instrument of rights. Our civil institutions are institutions of rights. They are the forms under which men may realize the fullness of their powers. They bear witness to the teaching of Hegel, who says, "The State is the realization of the moral idea."

We must ask : Who is the citizen ?

"All persons born or naturalized in the United States and subject to the jurisdiction thereof are citizens of the United States and of the States wherein they reside." But this definition is about as near empty as it could possibly be. To be born on American soil is a privilege, and to have become an American citizen by the magic of naturalization is also a privilege. But neither the locality of one's birth, nor the process of naturalization, gives any clue to citizenship ; the term is still meaningless and empty. A well-built black and shaggy Newfoundland might almost fulfil the conditions. Neither birthplace nor naturalization-papers give any spiritual content to the citizen.

Who, then, are the citizens ? In an empty and superficial sense, the whole body of the people ; to all born upon the soil, and all naturalized citizens, the law guarantees rights and privileges. But these guarantees are only forms which are supposed to be filled up with a spiritual content ; it is presupposed that the child born on the soil will feel the throbbing life of the nation in the swing of his cradle and learn it from his mother's songs ; it is presupposed that the alien, naturalized, will thereby be born again, and that, as he swears allegiance to her laws and devotion to her interests, he will feel the thrill of our national life. The citizen must feel not only the impulse of our business life, not alone the fierce passion of partisan politics, but the breath of that spirit of patriotism which leads the German farmer on the distant prairie to look to the condition of his fowling-piece whenever he reads of national peril or national dishonor from whatever quarter they may come. He is the citizen in fact who feels the national spirit. He and he alone knows the meaning of citizenship. He who feels this spirit is a citizen not only by virtue of the external insignia of birth or of naturalization, but by virtue of the fact that he fills out the otherwise empty form of citizenship with an ethical content. The spell is upon him, and with pride he says, "I am an American citizen."

Our greatness as a nation in several respects is secure. Our domain is

broad enough, our resources are rich enough, our progress in the development of these resources is rapid enough, our numbers are with each decade large enough. Quantitatively speaking there is little to be desired. But we must recognize the fact that multitudes, both those of native birth and those made such by a paper regeneration, are aliens to the national spirit. It is in the light of this truth that the schools seem to me to be the center for the propagation of the national spirit.

We may well go back to Greece for lessons in method ; back to Homer the poet, who, by common consent, has been set "at an unapproachable height of poetic excellence,"—back to old blind Homer. His songs were sung by minstrels on public occasions, and learned by youth in every part of Greece. "At Athens there was a law that the Homeric poems should be recited on every occasion of the Panathenæa." We may study Pindar, as he handles the mythic forms of history, and connects the life of the great families of Greece with the gods whence they sprang ; we may study the Olympic games, which brought together representatives from all Greece to see and participate in the athletic contests, and which were utilized for the glory of Greece ; or study Æschylus, remembering that the idea of his greatest work "is to show the redeeming influence of the state in the life of mankind." We shall not, then, be surprised at the effect produced by the Phillipics of Demosthenes, nor at the audacity of the handful of men who met the multitudinous hordes of Persia at Thermopylæ, and filled the sea with their dead bodies at Salarnis. The poets, the great educators of the time, had trained the youth, had fired the national heart with the loftiest patriotism. They had kept the national heroes alive ; they had preserved a sense of intimate relationship between the gods and the glory of Greece.

We shall not find our most fruitful themes in contemporary politics. The partisan strife and pitiable self-seeking are too obtrusive. The diviner side is with us in contemporary politics, but we cannot give to the life about us that perspective which is essential to the understanding of its meaning. Time does that for us. We shall be the more likely to find fruitful themes in the past in those greater movements of the national life, when the mighty forces which for a century have been working in the dark are suddenly brought to light. They are like the movements of revelations in Israel's history. All subsequent history seems to grow out of them. They always find their way into literature. Schiller's Wilhelm Tell is an illustration of the spirit of a national epoch, made incarnate by the touch of genius.

In our own history, that period which Fiske has called "The Critical Period of American History" opens all the great political problems of the age. The spirit of which the American Revolution was the outcome has by the genius of Longfellow, in "Paul Revere's Ride," been quickened into a kind of immortality. And that "shape in the moonlight," that

"bulk in the dark," will rise like a vision before the boy who learns that song, whenever he reads of freedom imperilled. He cannot breathe its spirit and despise his birthright.

We may find our themes in the lives of the men who stand for their age. For every important age is made incarnate in a man. Emerson says: "A magnet must be made man in some Gilbert or Swedenborg or Oersted, before the general mind can come to entertain its powers." The name of Washington stands for all that was good and great in this epoch of our national history. The great principles of our national life were made conspicuous again in the critical period which culminated at Appomattox Court House in 1865. From the view-point of history, with its vast sweep of events; from the study of literature, in which the spirit of the great historic epochs has been made immortal; and in the biography of the great representatives of these movements, the ideals of citizenship may be learned and taught, provided that the teacher has learned that the state is not a mere mechanism, is not a business corporation, but is the means designed for the realization of the highest in man, and through which the divine will works to that end.

Civil-service reform, the secret ballot, and all other like agencies must be utilized for all they can accomplish; but through the school may be propagated the faith that shall make this land a *fatherland* to the alien millions, and make every ballot speak for a voter thoroughly imbued with that spirit which teaches that "a country's a thing men should die for at need."

THE UNIVERSITY IN ITS RELATION TO THE PEOPLE.

BY PROFESSOR ELMER E. BROWN, MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY.

THE traditional relation of the colleges to the people is very nearly summed up in the relation of the teaching body to the student body pursuing a prescribed course within the college walls. As regards the universities, this traditional relation seems often to be accepted as covering the full measure of the responsibility of the institution as over against the general body of citizens.

The university gathers out from among the people a select body of young men—perhaps of young women also. It applies all of its resources to their training, and then sends them out again, permeated with its ideas and molded to its ideals. It is in this indirect way that it comes into relations with "the people" as a whole, and exercises a general influence tending toward enlightenment. The university may never have existed which answered perfectly to the narrowing down of activity implied in this description. But it would seem that the description fairly represents, in

general terms, the prevailing college and university type in this country a generation or two ago. I would not attempt to measure, and certainly would not underrate, the widespread influence exerted by universities upon the people at large through the indirect agency of the graduates whom they send out. This is doubtless the most potent influence which any teaching body can exert. But I simply say at this point that the condition which has just been sketched represents the minimum of influence exerted upon the university from the side of the people; and, *vice versa*, the minimum of influence exerted by the university upon the people.

In this condition may be found the strong hold of conservatism in institutions of higher education. The school, relieved in considerable measure from the pressure of influences from without, tends naturally to advance, by carrying on to the point of refinement the old familiar lines of instruction.

Students of the history of education find an element of confusion in the fact that schools of different ages and nations differ more widely than the views of life which have then and there obtained. If the school were strictly a means of preparation for life, each varying conception and condition of life would find its exact counterpart in the school. But such is not the case. The five classics and the four books make up the sum and substance of Chinese education. The trivium and quadrivium constituted in like manner the education of Christian Europe in the Middle Ages. But life in China and life in Mediæval Christendom have much more in common than these two courses of study. It is necessary to bear in mind that at different times different portions of the preparation for life are assigned to the school. A certain portion—itself an important part of that life preparation—must always be accomplished in the home and in the social life. Now that portion of education which falls in any given case to the school shows a tendency to become crystallized and to take upon itself the exclusive title "education." This word "education" comes to mean some pretty well defined result of scholastic training; and as the process is elaborated, the "educated" man comes more and more to be, in his own estimate and that of his neighbors, a man who has learned certain scholastic arcana technicalities and subtleties. Education becomes in the Pythagorean sense esoteric. There is formed a certain aristocracy of learning. Under such conditions as these, the ideal of education swings far away from the ideal of life. It is no longer a Mars leading on to the battle of life; it is rather the concern of those who stand at the ford and call upon all comers to pronounce the test word "shibboleth."

So the conventionalized college and university spirit would make of college walls a barrier against influences from without, and foster an exclusive devotion to the training of the students within those walls, in accordance with well established and elaborated standards.

Now no one seems to question that the first duty of any school is to the student body; and where this primary duty is but shabbily discharged, it is not likely that any other will be faithfully met. But there is evidence of a gradual change of view regarding the relations of universities to the larger constituency.

One of the most patent evidences of the tendency of universities to draw nearer to the people is found in the general introduction of natural-science studies.

These studies seem to have been introduced under a twofold pressure: First, there was the demand of educational theorists that the natural sciences be recognized because of their educational value,—because they were subjects well suited to occupy and form the mind. Secondly, there was the demand of a rapidly developing industrial life that the trained intellects sent out from institutions of higher education be familiarized in the course of their training with those obscure and fundamental facts of natural science which have a decisive bearing upon our industries. For generations experimental science was cultivated in private laboratories, while the schools, low and high, pursued undisturbed the old ways. Learning advanced, and the great dispensers of learning stood still. When the universities gradually opened their doors to the teaching of natural science, they found among "the people" the accumulated scientific knowledge of the day; and enlarging their borders they drew this new wisdom from among the people, that they in turn might give more generously to the seekers after wisdom.

The establishment of chairs of pedagogy in the universities is a comparatively recent sign that the universities are drawing near to the people. Considerations urged both from the side of theory and from that of practice were influential again in this extension of university teaching. On the one hand it was urged that the highest educational institutions should be prepared to offer the most complete answer to the great questions of the theory of education. On the other hand, the fact that so many university graduates taught in the common schools, and so many even of the most intellectual of them taught badly, made it appear that instruction in the art of teaching should be given in the undergraduate course. The universities have doubtless advanced their own interests in the introduction of this department. Their graduates who prepare the future freshmen for the entrance examination undoubtedly do that work better than they otherwise would. But this is not all.

All classes of citizens are represented among the children in the common schools. Where university graduates teach in those schools, university culture is brought very near to all social orders in the community. One great danger on the part of university men in the common schools is that of placing the center of gravity of their instruction in the subject taught and not in the child. This mistake is not commonly made by the

graduates of normal schools. With them the education of the child is the great thing, and the various studies are pursued in their schools to the end of forming and disciplining the learners. In this way teachers from the normal schools often come to have an influence over their pupils, and in general a command over the forces of common-school education, which the average college or university graduate, with his broader culture, misses entirely. Let professional spirit and professional training be added to the broad, scholastic preparation of the college man, and he will be able to bring the higher culture near to varied classes and conditions represented in his school, and that in a very pervasive and effective way. By uniting, in hearty sympathy, with the schools of the people, in the work of popular education, the universities break down one great wall of exclusiveness. It is a step in the direction of democracy.

Our peculiar group of university studies, embracing political science, economics, and finance, is at once the evidence and the promise of closer relations between the people and the higher schools. Again we have the recognition of the study demanded on both theoretical and practical grounds. In an elementary form, to be sure, political economy had long held a place in the ordinary curriculum as a department of moral philosophy; but in this respect it resembles the study of physics, which was also recognized at first as a department of philosophy. University instruction in the various lines of economics is extending recognition to the wisdom that has been developed apart from the schools; and in so doing it is widening the field of university influence among the plain men of the business world. I took it as strikingly characteristic of present tendencies when, a few days ago a practical and broad-minded banker, of long experience said he had been seriously considering a proposition to enter upon the work of an instructor in the department of economics in a great university.

One important point at which the universities have too often parted company with the people is that of religious thought and life. It is not to be forgotten that some of the most important and general religious movements have originated in the centers of learning. Universities took the lead in the Reformation. Methodism was a university movement at the start. The semi-religious effort embodied in the university settlements is a more recent case in point. But too often the universities have drawn aside from the religious life of the people. This is strikingly illustrated in Germany to-day, where university men look with contempt on the religion of the lower and middle classes, and those classes look with suspicion upon university theology. It is a condition resulting, in part at least, from the lack of social and intellectual sympathy, and one that shuts out the possibility of vital, fruitful sympathy in the religious field. The recent religious history of higher schools in this country is instructive. The Christian associations of students have labored not as missionaries, but on equal footing with similar associations representing other walks of

life. It is no uncommon thing in the great religious conventions to see white-handed and scholarly young men from the highest institutions of learning stand on the same platform with brown and sturdy locomotive-engineers and lumbermen. Each group learns from the other, and the students often get more than they give. It is a great thing for any land when it can keep its hand and its heart at one. The more direct the connection between the two, the better, if only the heart does not overheat the brain or the head shut up the heart in a refrigerator.

There is another way that may be mentioned here in which the universities seem to be strengthening their hold upon the people. A good physique commands respect and admiration everywhere. The common people think of scholars as men inferior in nerve and muscle, and there is much historical and scientific ground for that opinion. Yet college athletes have long been famous in the world of sports. A newspaper cartoon some time ago represented the scholarly and athletic types of college man as standing respectively for the *then* and the *now* of higher education. The *then* was a little, puny form with a great head and expansive brow, and wearing eyeglasses. The *now* resembled an antique Hercules. His head was small, his frame large, and his muscles something tremendous. The *now* was looking down contemptuously upon the *then*, and saying: "You a college graduate? Where is your biceps?" And the little *then* was trying in vain to find some swelling in the upper part of his drawn-up arm. Now these two types do not fairly stand for now and then. They have existed side by side in the colleges for many long years of history. What belongs more distinctively to the now is the attempt to put the scholar's head on the shoulders of the athlete. So far as this can be done, the division of a college into the two distinct classes of men of muscle and men of mind is prevented. The strong man who can think, and the thinker who is physically strong, are great in any community. They have points of contact and sympathy with both day-laborers and learned men. They have a certain assurance of length of days for active service. It is important for the community that the wisest and best men in it should bequeath to families of healthy children the treasures of culture and character which adorn their homes. It is a public loss if the families of learned men are sickly and soon die out. That such is not the tendency of the time in this country, we may be thankful. In so far as university men are at one with the people in sharing in the soundest physical life of the people, one unfortunate badge of the aristocracy of learning is thrown away. Wisdom is hindered in its striving to fly away from earth into the sky, forsaking its uncared-for and rickety tenements; it is induced to abide longer and more contentedly in the world of vigorous, moving, working human life.

Let us in the next place consider the question, Why is it desirable that the universities should come nearer to the people? Many answers to

this question lie near at hand. Knowledge is the business of universities. It is dangerous for them to despise knowledge wherever found. Knowledge once discovered and stored up is a trust. Companions all for a season on this little ball, the earth, no man or institution has any rightful monopoly in the little light we have. The more knowledge, the larger the responsibility. Universities—stewards of the wisdom and learning that the past has bequeathed and the present greatly increased—universities, to which so much has been given, are charged with distributing learning and wisdom wherever it can add to human health or hope or happiness.

There is a widespread hunger for knowledge among the people. Many a boy grows up even in sight of the towers of a great institution of learning, and hopes for an opportunity of enjoying its privileges ; enters upon manhood and a trade, wishing that higher education were possible for him ; goes through the vicissitudes of life—work, love, the getting of a home, sorrow, loss, experience, and the wisdom that experience gives, and comes down to old age with the abiding regret that the doors of learning, just in sight, could never have been opened to him. What is the university to do for such as these, whether near its gates or far removed ? Provide for encouraging and assisting them in taking the college course in their youth ? Yes ! I know no better answer to the question. But beyond that, when the obstacles which prevent the youth from going to college are insurmountable, the university may still find ways for bringing many of the treasures of wisdom and knowledge within his reach. By lectures, by publications, by the use of newspapers and periodicals, by correspondence, by establishing relations between the university collections and private libraries, museums, clubs, and the like, by countless ways which it is not the province of this paper to enumerate, but which the need will suggest to the open and earnest mind, the good work can be done. Then when our youth comes to full manhood and has his part in the solid affairs of life, the university which regards knowledge as a trust will stand to him as a great light-tower ; it will discharge its function, so far as he is concerned, by faithfully spreading out, and as widely as possible, its circle of illumination. And some part of his path in the practical concerns of life can hardly fail to come inside that circle.

This consideration has an important bearing on one of the great intellectual signs of the times ; namely, the lengthening of the period of mental plasticity. It seems hardly possible that this sign can be mistaken. Men do not fossilize so early in life as they once did. There are more men who are capable of expanding and changing their opinions at an advanced age than was once the case. In this respect Gladstone is not so much the prodigy of the era just passing away as the herald of that which is just begun. If this view be correct, the age in which education is possible reaches out farther beyond childhood and youth than

is commonly supposed. Here is a great opportunity for our universities, if only they can devise ways of meeting the changing conditions. There are many men in middle life who are capable in a high degree of intellectual culture. Many of these, in the midst of successful business careers, have time—in fragments, to be sure—which they would gladly concentrate on the studies of the higher education. I am reminded of a man who, eighteen years ago, at the age of twenty-five, finished his high-school course; and only last month, after years of successful service in a high executive position, took his degree of Bachelor of Arts at the age of forty-three, having done the required work *in absentia*, but with marked success. The lengthening of the teachable age in men and women increases the opportunity and the responsibility of universities. If it be their duty to teach as many as they can, here is found a steady widening of the field which they are to occupy.

There is another reason why it is for the health of the university to come near to the people. The general process of increase in knowledge consists, first, in the accumulation of particular facts; secondly, induction from those facts, rising to general laws and principles; thirdly, the application of the general laws to new particulars, the solving of new problems. The third step in this series—the application of ascertained generals to new particulars—is as essential as the others to the health of the intellectual life. Induction, the discovery of laws and principles, fills a large place in modern science and education. The application of these laws and principles to new conditions is necessary to give direction to new inductions, to correct errors, to infuse health and soundness into the whole investigation. It is fortunate for the naturalist when new direction and fresh impetus is given to his work by the demand that he find out the answer to some practical problem lying in his field. It is a real advantage to the chemist when his theoretical knowledge is brought to bear on some urgent question in some industry. The studies which are farthest from application are most in danger of running off into worthless subtleties. The contact with the people, the necessity of translating learning into comprehensible terms, the call for evidence that carefully wrought-out theories are capable of some use—all these are healthful in their bearing on university life. The university that gives in these ways will itself be enriched.

This paper is not intended to discuss the practical ways by which the universities may join hands more efficaciously with the people. Nor is it intended as in any sense a special argument in favor of the university-extension movement. That movement does undoubtedly present one very promising solution of the problem in hand. It may fairly be regarded as one highly significant aspect of a larger movement which has already exerted a profound influence upon university life and seems likely to become more general in the future than it has been in the past. The

present discussion has fulfilled its purpose if it has shown with clearness these two things: First, that such a general movement is under way, and that it is one of the notable facts in the university conditions of the present day; secondly, that the spirit which favors and promotes this movement ought to be cultivated. There is a wisdom residing in the people—"the common sense of most." The great political leaders have not merely pretended to follow the opinions of the people. They have followed, and that because they have had faith in the people. They have exercised full leadership, because they themselves knew how to follow, but not in chains. And I doubt not that the universities, by following a little, will be only the better able to maintain their own high standards, and, in the best sense, continue to take the lead.

PROCEEDINGS AND ADDRESSES

OF THE

NORMAL DEPARTMENT.

NORMAL SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

PRESIDENT DE GARMO called the meeting to order at 3 P.M., July 13. In the absence of the Secretary, the President appointed J. N. Wilkinson, of Kansas State Normal, to act as Secretary *pro tem.*

By authority of a vote of the Section, the President appointed a nominating committee, naming the following: Dr. Green, of Trenton, N. J.; Dr. A. G. Boyden, of Bridgewater, Mass.; Professor Lyte, of Millersville, Pa.; Pres. Norton, of Cape Girardeau, Mo.; and Professor Wilkinson, of Emporia, Kan.

The President then delivered an address on "The Co-ordination of the Normal School and the University in the Training of Teachers." Professor Patten, of the University of Pennsylvania, then read a paper on "Ethical Training." This subject was then thrown open to the house. After an interesting discussion of Professor Patten's paper, the Section then agreed by motion to discuss the President's paper at the close of a five-minute recess.

At the close of this discussion it was voted that the Chairman appoint a committee of three to nominate at to-morrow's session a committee to report on what can be done to secure the co-ordination of normal schools and universities in the training of teachers. He appointed Principals Palmer, of Fredonia, N. Y.; Cook, of Normal, Ill.; and Green, of Trenton, N. J.

The Section then adjourned for the day.

3 P.M., July 14.

The minutes of the previous session were read and approved.

The committee appointed at the close of yesterday's session made the following report, which after some discussion was unanimously adopted:

Mr. President:

The committee appointed to recommend a committee to consider and report to this Section of the National Educational Association a plan for co-ordinating universities and normal schools in order to secure a university education to the graduates of the normal schools, and a pedagogical training for university graduates intending to teach, and

thus supply the profession with teachers who shall have had both a pedagogical and a university training, respectfully recommend the following as such committee: Chas. De Garmo, Ph.D.; R. G. Boone, Ph.D.; Charles McMurry, Ph.D.; N. M. Butler, Ph.D.; G. Stanley Hall, Ph.D.; James M. Green, Ph. D., and Supt. D. L. Kiehle.

F. W. PALMER,
JOHN W. COOK,
JAMES M. GREEN. } *Committee.*

The Committee on Nominations reported as follows:

President—J. M. Milne, of Oneonta, N. Y.

Vice-President—J. W. Cook, of Normal, Ill.

Secretary—J. N. Wilkinson, of Emporia, Kan.

By vote, the Section ordered the Chairman of the committee to cast the ballot of the meeting for these officers.

Professor Frank McMurry, of Normal, Ill., read a paper on "The Value of the Herbartian Philosophy," which was discussed by Professor E. E. Brown, of University of California, and others. President John Hull, of Southern Illinois Normal, discussed "What Training a Pupil Teacher Should Have."

This completing the programme, the Section adjourned.

PAPERS.

CO-ORDINATION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL AND THE UNIVERSITY IN THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

PRESIDENT CHARLES DE GARMO, OF SWARTHMORE COLLEGE.

No co-ordination of the normal school and the university in the training of teachers now exists. This condition of things is owing chiefly to two causes: first, because normal-school graduates are not admitted to the universities on their diplomas; and, second, because the pedagogical work in the universities is not, as usually organized, distinctly different from that of good normal schools. With a total lack of credit on one side and a general lack of educational facility on the other, it is not strange that there should be such a complete disjunction of the two classes of institutions in the training of teachers. That the higher pedagogical training of normal-school graduates is desirable, can hardly be doubted. In the first place, from among their number more perhaps than from any other class come the persons who are desirous of making teaching in the public schools a life calling. On the other hand, the training they get in the normal schools is necessarily elementary and general. It must deal primarily with the common-school studies, and being so detailed, thoroughgoing, and technical, it cannot at the same time be broad and liberal. The normal-school graduate has a facile skill in the application of what he knows, but he lacks two essentials of the highest usefulness as an educational leader, a broad outlook over the whole field of education, and a specialized knowledge along a few lines. The university, if he could get into it, would give him the latter; but the probability is, that in making him a biologist or economist it would unmake him as a teacher. This leads to a consideration of the pedagogical work in universities as it is, and as it must be to be of any real service to the normal-school graduate. The first idea that came in with the chairs of pedagogy seems to have been that the university should make up to the student in some degree his lack of normal-school training, so that the first work along these lines was elementary, and not unlike that given in normal schools. Such elementary treatises as Page, Quick, Fitch, Compeyré, were freely used. The result has been that to many persons the term "pedagogy" has become synonymous with the contents of these books. So long as university work in pedagogy bears this character, it will contain nothing for the trained normal-school graduate. Furthermore, however strong the personal influence of the professor of pedagogy may be, he has small chance

of imbuing men with the spirit of education, of developing in them the pedagogical consciousness in everything they do, so long as their instruction in content-studies like biology, physics, economics, history, is given by men whose standpoint is anything rather than pedagogical. Two changes, therefore, seem to be necessary before any real, desirable co-ordination of normal schools and universities in educational training can take place. First, the pedagogical work of universities must be radically changed; and, second, normal-school graduates must be freely admitted to it on their diplomas. Aside from defects in the quality of work offered, our chairs of pedagogy are fatally defective, in that they are component but not organic units of university life. They are mechanically but not organically connected with their own allied subjects. The function of the Robinson Crusoe in the university—of the isolated professor—whose work is in no organic connection with a group of men, is a thing of the past, or at most of the immediate future. Every great department of education, such as medicine, law, theology, biology, history, economics, engineering, chemistry, etc., forms a nucleus for a group of men whose work is thoroughly organized and directed to one end. But how is it generally with a professor of pedagogy? He is neatly glued on to the university as a whole, but he has no group of men with whom he can organize an education department. He goes it alone. Psychology may be taught so late or in such a manner as to make it useless for him as a basis upon which to build. The department of philosophy looks upon him with a fatherly eye, but never thinks of reorganizing its work for his benefit. Departments of history and economics wonder what they have to do with pedagogy, while literature and linguistics pursue their path quite unconscious of the needs of the pedagogical department. Occasionally a professor, in the goodness of his soul, will give a few lectures on the teaching of his branch; he will do it as if throwing a bone to a dog.

Nobody doubts that chairs of pedagogy have done much good. They are perhaps a necessary step to something better, but that they are the ideal finality cannot be imagined. The isolated chair of pedagogy must give way to the organized group, or faculty, of an education department. This group, or faculty, must have control of the instruction, not only in strictly educational subjects, but also in all closely allied ones. It must, for instance, control the kind and amount of work done in general and special psychology, to say nothing of fixing its place in the curriculum. It must do the same in political as well as school administration, in economics and in history and literature. Ultimately, five or six men will be needed to conduct an education department of a great university. Their work will measure up to the highest university standards in scope and character, and will probably consist of two courses; one undergraduate for juniors and seniors, and one postgraduate for advanced study. This course should also cover two years. The undergraduate work, instead of

duplicating that of even our best normal schools, will be a distinct advance upon it. In a paper before the Council I have entered more into detail as to what the scope and character of a pedagogical course should be.

Turning now to the normal-school graduates, we find them excluded from the university as a class, because they have not had the traditional college preparation in languages. After teaching a few years, they wake up to find themselves confronted by a dead wall to further progress, on account of the elementary character of their training, and too old to begin the work that others are doing before the age of sixteen or eighteen. The result is that most of them stop growing, settle down into routine work, or drift off into other callings. Now, if educational departments such as have been indicated can be established, the star of hope once more rises for the normal-school graduate. His facile skill as a teacher, his initial enthusiasm acquired at the normal school, his maturity and his earnestness of purpose, far more than counterbalance any loss he may have suffered from a lack of drill in language. The education department, not being dependent upon linguistic training in its students, or responsible for its absence, may freely and with credit to itself admit normal-school graduates to its undergraduate course upon equal terms with those who come to it from lower university classes.

It ought to require but little argument before this body of normal-school men and women to show that the present incapacity, not to say disinclination, on the part of universities to give an opportunity for advanced training in educational science to those who need it most and would use it best, is an educational mistake. We are trying all along the line to unify our educational system, to build an unbroken educational ladder from the primary school to the university, but we seem thus far to have thought but little about any correlation of effort between normal schools and universities in the training of teachers. If we do not want our educational system loaded at every point with short-sighted, incompetent leaders, we must make it not only possible, but desirable, for the natural push and executive ability found among normal-school graduates to find a place where their native ability can come to its full development.

Nor is the whole obstruction to such a consummation altogether on the side of the university. The natural tendency for the normal school, finding itself discredited at the higher seats of learning, is to crawl into the shell of its own individuality, proclaiming itself a peculiar institution, quite sufficient unto itself. The same thing is seen a notch lower down the scale, in the private normal school, which assumes the same aspect toward colleges and State normal schools. This is most unfortunate business. It tends to fill the young graduate so full of conceit that it sometimes takes years of practical failure to convince him of his folly; and in some cases, where the soil is fertile, one of them may remain in a fool's paradise all his life, and never find it out. The best receipt I know to

enable the normal school to awake from its dogmatic slumbers is to place upon its faculty, at every opportunity, men and women having a broad university training. Even if they are at first slip-shod in their methods, even if they do overrate the strength of the normal-school student, in the end their refinement of mind, their broad, rich scholarship, will work like leaven among teachers and pupils. The most fortunate thing that ever happened to the Illinois State Normal School, at Normal, was to have George P. Brown establish a philosophy club in the neighboring city of Bloomington. Many of the faculty became members of this club. It brought into that school an element of thinking and culture that had always been lacking. It roused the whole faculty out of the dogmatic slumber of which I have spoken. Its effect was immediate and permanent on the whole body of teachers and students. The instruction became deeper and more earnest; the school was relieved of the tyranny of the non-essential; fads and tricks of method received less attention; and, most of all, the graduates began to push for higher instruction in colleges and universities. Sad, indeed, is it for the normal school whose faculty is composed of persons who have never felt the quickening power that comes from contact with great minds in the higher education, who have given their lives to the more mechanical phases of their calling. As well may we attempt to build a fire from icicles as to expect such people to open up to their pupils the avenues to the higher education, or to inspire them with the idea of getting it.

Let us, then, gentlemen and ladies, go to work at our end of the line. So far as in us lies, let us rise in our own instruction above the petty, the mechanical, the non-essential; let us strive for the fundamental, the life-giving, that which will grow and produce fruit hereafter. Normal schools should strive constantly to raise the standards of qualification for admission, but this is not so important as trying to infuse new life into the faculty by the employment of highly educated instructors, and the general effort all along the line to rise above the commonplace and mechanical.

When we shall get the ideal educational training in universities, of which I have spoken, no man can tell; but of this we may be assured, that the sooner we aspire to it and prepare for it, the sooner we shall get it. There is no interest in the educational world to-day that transcends in importance the proper training of teachers, and I am convinced that in this time of educational expansion, when the most needful things are once comprehended, they will be provided for. What could not President Harper or President Eliot or President Jordan accomplish along this line if he saw the need and the opportunity? You can get money for the education of teachers as easily as for that of doctors and scientists, if the world is once convinced that they need it. As soon as the teachers of the country cry for more light, they are sure to get it.

THE ECONOMIC CAUSES OF MODERN PROGRESS.

PROFESSOR PATTEN, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, PHILADELPHIA.

In clearing away the obstacles that have obscured economic laws, the economist is forced to investigate all the problems that cluster around industrial life. He cannot get at the secret springs of economic activity without going beyond the limits which, in a strict sense, bound his science. When the tendencies were strong in economics to seek a physical basis for all economic theories, he was forced to become a physicist, and even an agricultural chemist, in order that he might determine the principles which regulate the production of wealth on its physical side.

Of recent years a strong tendency has arisen to lay stress upon the subjective side of economics, and hence the economist has become a psychologist, and has investigated many neglected psychological problems. Out of all this has come a new method of psychological investigation and the formulation of laws that throw new light upon some old problems, the solution of which was not possible by accepted methods.

With the vantage-ground thus obtained, I desire to re-examine the principles of ethics, and to modify them by the new doctrines that have arisen from investigations purely economic.

Ethics in the past has been closely associated with transcendental philosophy, and has borrowed its terminology, ideas, and concept of mental activity from that mode of thinking. A large part of the same mental phenomena has been investigated by economists, men of instincts and education other than those possessed by the group of thinkers called philosophers. It is therefore no matter of wonder that these two essentially different types of thinking should use different terms to express similar ideas, nor that there should be a liability to confusion when they meet upon the common grounds of ethics.

Morality is intimately connected with pleasures and pains. Certain actions give us a surplus of pleasure, and we are inclined to choose them. If right conduct always gave the greatest surplus of pleasure, our choice would be simple, and there would be no science of ethics. But too often the surplus of pleasure seems to be on the side of wrong action, and then the ethical difficulties begin. How can the mental attitude in this case be so changed that the surplus will be on the right side?

The early types of morality seek to secure a conformity to the moral law in two ways: by educating the actor, through some form of ascetic doctrine, to be indifferent to pleasure, and by associating evil results with the keen pleasures which so often lead the actor astray. It should be noticed that both of these remedies act primarily upon the surplus on the side of

wrong conduct. The right action gets the excess of pleasure on its side, not because of any increase of the pleasure from it, but because of a decrease of the surplus pleasure from the wrong action. The natural inclination of the culprit to do the wrong may be as strong as ever; he merely yields to the superior force of society, and sighs for a world in which his stronger desires could be gratified without any restrictive conditions.

These doctrines are the natural outcome of the education and environment of the early moralists. Ethics has always been regarded as a part of philosophy, and philosophers have confined themselves too much to introspective methods, and are inclined to believe that elements are fixed which an inductive method would show to be changing. The laws of utility which lie at the basis of morality have not attracted the attention of philosophers. Though a part of psychology, they have been overlooked by psychologists; while economists, from the necessities of their investigation, have been compelled to devote much attention to these laws. In this way studies which are purely economic have helped to clear up a neglected part of morals, and thus may assist in laying the foundation of true ethical science.

Economic theory can throw light upon moral problems if it can show how the higher pleasures obtain the power to resist strong passions. It can thus show how moral ideas grow, or under what conditions the conscience becomes more efficient. If the same psychological principles act in the consumption of wealth as in morals, moral progress must depend upon the same conditions as economic progress. The mechanism of economic progress is best seen in the theory of consumption, especially in discussing the standard of life. I desire, therefore, to call attention to this part of economic theory, and to formulate one of its laws as a basis for subsequent discussion.

The Influence of Complementary Goods.—The pleasure secured from an harmonious group of articles is much greater than the sum of utilities which can be obtained from their separate consumption. The pleasure derived from the consumption of each article is not a unit separate from the pleasure derived from every other article. Meat, bread, potatoes, and coffee consumed at one meal give greater pleasure than if each article was consumed in isolation. A suit of clothes, harmonious in color and form, gives a greater utility to its possessor than the same articles would give if they were not adjusted to one another. We seek to unite isolated articles into harmonious groups so that their utilities may blend. There results a synthesis of mutually complementary elements, the joint utility of which is greater and more intense than the sum of the separate utilities of its components. Goods are not complementary in consumption unless the gratification derived from the group as a unit is greater than the sum of isolated utilities of the parts making up the group.

The increase in the sum of pleasures which society has to enjoy, or, to express the idea in economic terms, the increase of the standard of life, depends upon these economic causes. The simple pleasures of primitive life depend mainly upon sensation. By association we learn that certain articles are harmonious, and with them we form complementary groups, through which the pleasure of the articles is greatly increased. Certain inharmonious articles are eliminated from consumption, or are, perhaps, united into groups of their own, in a way that will not interfere with the leading groups with which they are out of harmony. It is usually the case that when two small groups are united into one, through progress in consumption, some articles must be omitted, or the increase of total utility due to the formation of the larger group will not be secured.

Perhaps the best illustration of discordant groups is furnished by the sour, heavy foods that harmonize with strong liquors, and the diet of the abstaining classes, in which sugar occupies the leading place. With the free use of liquor, coarse food can be washed down and digested, but such food will not harmonize with a free use of sugar. A marked opposition thus arises between a liquor diet and a sugar diet, and consumers are forced to choose between them.

The raising of the standard of life involves, therefore, the ejecting from our consumption of articles out of harmony with the new conditions, though these articles are often those that, by themselves, were sources of great pleasure. The choice must be made between the pleasure of some single article and that of some complementary group of goods which tends to displace that article. The primitive man gets his pleasure from some one or two articles, and adjusts his other consumption to this pleasure. The civilized man, however, ejects those leading pleasures which depend mainly upon sensation, choosing instead larger groups, the parts of which separately have less utility, but, being harmonious, give a larger total utility. The disuse of liquor and tobacco by so many individuals is a notable instance of the change of which I speak. These articles are sources of great pleasure, but are so inharmonious with the consumption of sugar and other articles, which enter into large groups, that there is a rapidly increasing tendency to omit them altogether. The steady decrease in the use of vinegar and of fat foods has the same explanation.

Viewed from an economic standpoint, the difference between a good and bad consumer lies in the willingness to eject elements from the consumption which do not unite readily into large groups. Some consumers accept the increasing variety which improved economic conditions permit, and from the new articles, as well as from the old, get the pleasurable sensation which their consumption affords. They lose in this way the greater pleasure which the formation of their goods into groups would give, and suffer, in addition, the ultimate results which flow from an inharmonious consumption. The good consumer ejects the discordant ele-

ments, forms large groups, and gets the greater pleasure, present as well as future, that follows his wiser action.

I have described in full the conditions that create a higher standard of life, not because the economic and the moral standards are the same, but because the same psychological principles act in each case. Moreover, there is no distinct line of demarcation between the two. The small and simple groups that are plainly economic first attract the attention of the consumer, and then he begins to appreciate the larger groups in which the moral and economic blend, finally reaching the largest groups that are distinctly moral. They are all created on the same plan, and have their growth conditioned by the changes in the mental organization of the race which accompany its progress. As the smaller groups unite to form the larger, there are always discordant elements to eject, and a sum of added pleasure which must be imputed to the several members of the new group. Thus the consumer becomes a better consumer, or, if we have passed into the groups which form the ethical world, the moral judgment and conscience become more active elements in forming our characters.

Of the groups partly economic and partly moral in their character, perhaps the most powerful is that we designate by the word "home." A home is not a simple pleasure, but it is a great group of many pleasures, so many that it would be impossible to describe them in detail; and yet the word, with the meaning we attach to it, is of modern origin. It is said that many languages are without it. This means that in early times, and in many nations at present, the numerous pleasures that are now blended in this group were isolated pleasures or members of small groups associated with other objects. Yet a process of ejection and of amalgamation of pleasures has gone on until the new complementary group is strong enough to be able to hold in check the strongest of the passions. It has modified many pleasures, changed their character, and has also created many which could not have arisen under other conditions.

From the foregoing it will be seen that there are, in morals, two active principles, with two underlying conditions accompanying their working. The latter come from the economic world; the former, though also active there, are seen in their purest form in morals. The conditions to morality lie in the size of the groups of pleasures and in the equality of the pleasures forming the groups. The principles shaping the action of the will are the ejection of discordant elements and the correct imputation of pleasures. The economic creates the possibility of the larger group of pleasures, while the moral drive out the discordant elements, through which alone the formation of larger groups is possible.

The moral ideals are formed on the same plan as the complementary groups of our consumption. We create in our imagination ideal condi-

tions, where many of the pleasures of life are brought in one group. The elements of this group are collected from widely different and conflicting sources, which cannot blend into one unit until some of the elements are dropped from the picture, and others are reduced to a more subordinate place. Only those who have acquired the habit of summarily ejecting discordant elements can form the highest ideals, or have the character needed to realize them.

Two plans alone are possible by which right conduct may be encouraged. On the one hand, the requital for evil deeds may be emphasized, a vivid picture of future punishment created, and thus the pleasure of the wrong action can be reduced by its associated evils, until the greater surplus of pleasure is on the side of right action. On the other hand, the pleasure of right action may be increased by enlarging the complementary groups of pleasures, and thus the instincts and motives that induce the actor naturally to choose the right are strengthened. The first plan is best realized in our moral literature and criminal law; the second in our economic activities.

The increase of our economic activities, moreover, changes the associations we have with the future. The primitive man associates pleasure with the present, and retribution with the future. The economic man thinks of the future as the place where he can realize the pleasure for which he is now preparing. The first man enjoys to-day and suffers to-morrow, while the other works to-day and enjoys to-morrow; his capital, the future goods of to-day, will then be his present goods, and ready for consumption. The imagination of the one will fill the future with horrid pictures of suffering which face him as a retribution of his past deeds; the imagination of the other creates an economic paradise where he will be exempt from present woes. Will the same literature serve as moral food for both of these classes? Must it not differ in character as widely as Dante's "Inferno" does from Plato's "Ideal Republic" or Bellamy's "Looking Backward?"

Thus, in spite of the emphasis given to the primitive ideals and to the kind of imagination they demand, it is doubtful if the moral progress of modern nations is due to these agencies. The trend of events was against the popular remedies for moral evils, and, if they had been the only force in action, there might have been a retrogression instead of a progression. The unseen growth of economic forces, however, has more than compensated for this possible loss. The larger groups of pleasures have made us moral in a natural way. With a greater surplus of present pleasure gradually forming upon the side of the right conduct, we have less need of an appeal to motives that revive our primitive feelings, and force us to fight the moral battle without the protection that our present economic environment can give.

The moral education should begin with lessons from the economic

world, because the mechanism of morality is the same as that of the standard of life. Economic activity exercises the faculties which at a later period become moral. This education should begin with the small groups of pleasures which are vivid realities to the child, and seek to unite them gradually into larger groups. In this way, not only will the sum of pleasure be greatly augmented, but, with a more correct imputation of the pleasure that comes with the change, a natural bulwark is created, by which the isolated but strong animal passions are held in check. A habit will thus be acquired of ejecting from the consumption the discordant elements which prevent the formation of larger groups, and this habit will greatly strengthen the conscience when moral acts are in question.

This transformation of the consumption should be made on purely economic grounds. Each small evil should be associated with the concrete group where it usually appears, and should not be allowed to amalgamate with other evils, forming a group so large as to disturb the normal order of the consumption. Do not bring in a great principle for a small end. Instead of using up the force of purely moral motives in getting the mechanism of morality in working order, economic motives which appeal to the same psychological principles should be employed, and the former reserved for a later period of a child's development, when he is more conscious of the subjective forces moulding his character. Conscious ethical training should be delayed until the economic motives are working in a normal way, and have created the largest groups that the economic world can give.

Manual education furnishes excellent means for this end. It brings psychological principles into activity that are essential in morals, yet it secures its results by an appeal to motives that are active in the child. The pleasures it creates are at first weak, but they readily become parts of large complementary groups, and thus control our action. A greater variety is needed to satisfy the consumer trained in this way, and he notices more quickly the lack of harmony which the absence of certain elements causes. The growth of artistic feelings creates a great complementary group of all the qualities seen by the eye; manual skill brings the different forms of construction into relation with one another; and cooking unites in the same way the various kinds of food.

The different ways in which paper can be folded causes the child to think of the various geometric forms as one group, and he finds a greater pleasure from the harmony which he discovers through comparison. In sewing, the different kinds of stitching help to unite our clothing more closely into a complementary group. Complex associations arise which greatly increase the pleasure of the whole. It is easier to pass by association from one form to another, and hence a defect is more jarring and a harmony more pleasing. The propensity to cut and destroy comes from

the small size of the groups of pleasures which the boy enjoys. If he associated in one group all the pleasures of the schoolroom, a desire to injure the furniture would be held in check by the thought that it was a part of a group of pleasures, and that he would reduce the pleasure of this group more than he would gain by his destructive act.

It is always possible for the teacher to aid his pupils in enlarging their groups of pleasures. Their capacity for enjoying associated pleasures gradually increases with their age, and the teacher must be active in showing the natural groups into which their pleasures will unite. They must also be taught to eject the discordant elements which prevent the union of small into large groups. Too often the pleasures of children remain mere aggregates of sensations of a low character because they are unconscious of the increase of pleasure which a harmonious consumption will give.

In relation to the food supply there is a vast field for instruction. The grouping of food into the best combinations, and the ejection of the discordant elements, are both matters of the greatest importance. Children should be taught how coarse foods and strong drinks would keep them from a full appreciation of the best combinations of food, and they should be helped to form the habit of rejecting crude, isolated pleasures which prevent the formation of these larger groups.

In this way they will not only be better consumers of food, but also they will get into working order the moral mechanism upon which their ethical character will depend. Whoever would make mankind moral in a natural way must make his beginning and get his mechanism in operation in the economic world.

VALUE OF HERBARTIAN PEDAGOGY FOR NORMAL SCHOOLS.

BY PROFESSOR FRANK MCMURRAY, NORMAL, ILL.

"Love of the work," "desire to do good," and "pay" are the three motives which are commonly held up for the guidance of young teachers. While it is hoped that "love of the work" and "desire to do good" will be their ruling motives, it is well known that "pay" will have the greatest power over them. For, without doubt, a majority of teachers would abandon their profession to-morrow, could they be assured of better incomes in other reputable callings.

It is hardly the mission of the normal school to develop the "desire to do good" as the chief thought in the minds of its students. That is a most desirable spirit, indeed, but savors rather too much of missionary work for a school of that kind.

It is, however, a primary duty of a normal school to engender among its students a decided love for teaching—for both the theory and the art, or the doctrine and the practice. For it is only when controlled by such a love that one is likely to grow, become an excellent teacher, and remain in the profession. But what a rare exception it is to find one who really feels this love. Men are devoted to biology, they love physics and chemistry, they revel in psychology and metaphysics. The study of these subjects is their chosen lifework, and they find their chief delight in pondering them over. But this spirit of devotion is not characteristic of teachers. A very small portion of them love the theory of teaching or its practice. And many of those who seem to enjoy it thoroughly like rather the companionship of the children than the activity called teaching, or the field of thought called pedagogy; they dislike teachers' meetings and avoid pedagogical discussions. But why is it that one sphere of thought, as natural science or metaphysics, should be so enticing to so many minds, while this other, called pedagogy, is, on the whole, very unattractive? It is not necessarily on account of the greater content of the former; for, while the former subjects deal with an abundance of concrete facts or details, the latter does the same. Pedagogical books contain a limitless number of specific directions as to what is true and right in teaching. Nor is it owing to the greater practical value of the former studies, for, while metaphysics is purely theoretical, pedagogy is capable of constant application. Philosophers find great enjoyment in the contemplation of various views as to the plan of the universe, while they may possess exceedingly little faith in the correctness of such views.

On the other hand, teachers feel little interest in ideas pertaining to their work, although these ideas may be of daily use in the schoolroom.

There must be some reason why one field of thought is so much more attractive than another; and that reason is found largely in the fact that the ideas in the one field are much more thoroughly organized than those in the other.

Any subject which contains only a collection of single, isolated, independent facts is usually of little interest. The lecture which lacks unity is condemned on that ground; so a subject that is composed of a chaotic mass of facts cannot secure devoted students. This is because it is the nature of people to love systems of thought. Even though one feel no faith whatever in Leibnitz' conception of the world, he may still very much enjoy studying that conception, simply because it is a system of thought. Great ideas are there brought into such harmony with one another that they together make an entire unit; there is a completeness there that is delightful. Likewise the enjoyment of physics is due to the fact that ten thousand individual facts are explained and held together by a few great laws. Without knowledge of these laws, one is lost in the multitude of phenomena before him; with it comes order, comes system.

With it he can find his bearings and keep them ; he can enjoy taking a look at his surroundings, for he is on a high plane and has a wide view.

It is clear, then, why physics and metaphysics secure such devoted students. For the same reason it is clear why the theory and art of teaching do not secure such. For, while we have hundreds of books on the subject, they reveal no plan. Each contains many good things, many important truths, but these truths are not bound firmly together. One is not lifted to such heights that he can keep his bearings and realize that he is in the midst of a great system of thought. He realizes, on the contrary, that he is in no system ; in other words, that he is continually lost.

Most of our pedagogical books produce this disheartening effect. Even Joseph Payne's most excellent "Lectures on Teaching" possess no unity —they are simply good individual lectures ; the book, as a whole, presents no system of thought. But perhaps no work is more disappointing in this respect than Bain's "Education as a Science." Its title is very promising. But the first chapter, after discussing at some length the purpose of education, concludes that the purpose cannot be determined, because, while people may assert that it is human happiness and perfection, they are not agreed as to what this happiness and perfection really are. After reaching this conclusion, the author, in the remainder of the book, discusses the means and methods of accomplishing this unknown purpose.

It can hardly be said that such a book contains a great system of thought with its parts firmly welded together. Still, Bain's book is a fair representative of our pedagogical literature in English. As long as that is true, there is little hope of arousing a decided love for pedagogy by reading.

But if our text-books on teaching do little to engender a love for this subject through a closely related system of ideas, our normal-school faculties do little more. For the thoughts of the individual professor ordinarily lack unity as much as the common text-book, and the views of the different members of the faculty are as much at variance with one another as the books they read. Such want of harmony is natural, since the teachers have usually been educated in different schools and in various sections of the country. But it is exceedingly injurious in its effects ; for, while the different tastes of the instructors may develop a student in several directions, thus making him broad in his views and likings, their inharmonious opinions on important points of teaching tend actually to destroy professional zeal and produce shallowness. A student in a normal school has abundant opportunity to learn what these opinions are ; for not only in the training, but also in the academic, department should aims and methods of teaching be frequently considered. Each professor should frequently call attention to the purpose of his branch, its relation to other studies, and the methods through which these aims can best be realized. What must be the effect upon the students when they discover no unity in these views, but rather discord, even on the most important question ?

Still, if they are inclined to reflect at all, they must make this discovery. It is not an uncommon thing for the teachers to wrangle even about the chief purpose of the public school: one believes that it is mental power; another, useful knowledge; a third, mental activity; a fourth, the development of the different lines of interest; a fifth, good moral character.

Disagreements exist, further, as to the relation of the separate studies to this chief purpose; also as to the method by which they shall be taught. The professor of history may value his branch mainly on account of the useful knowledge it contains, while the teacher of literature emphasizes especially its ethical worth. The professor of reading may assert positively that reading is the most important study in the primary grades, while the instructor on the theory of primary teaching may assert just as positively that beginning reading is a study quite subordinate to literature and elementary science. The professor of geography may teach his subject by tracing lessons, while the critic teacher in the training department forbids the students under his supervision to teach according to that method. The training department may strive to relate, as closely as possible, all of the branches taught in each grade, while the specialists in the academic department seem to ignore entirely the important principle therein involved.

These are only examples of the many differences that may exist between members of the faculty. Some of them, of course, could be easily harmonized, and others are of minor importance. Students, however, do not readily distinguish between important and unimportant points, nor do they easily perceive the essential harmony of varying views; they are struck simply with the differences they see. But, even were they thoughtful enough to avoid such shallowness, the disagreements and inconsistencies they would still see are numerous and important. There would be forced upon them the conviction that there is comparatively little that is fixed or settled in pedagogical doctrine; pedagogy is no science at all; it is a chaotic mass of facts, very many of which are in dispute. That is the prevalent impression. Usually, the older the teacher becomes, the more clearly does he see this; he realizes that he is bewildered in his doctrine, that individual opinion is his chief guide, that mere authority, not scientific reasoning, settles disputes. Many of our best teachers abandon the profession when they reach this point. They are fairly well satisfied with their pay, they have a missionary spirit, and they enjoy children, but they do not see enough of science in teaching to satisfy their minds.

The first need, therefore, of authors of books on teaching and of normal-school faculties is a commonly accepted fundamental doctrine. It is not necessary or desirable to do away with all difference or disagreement, but harmony on vital questions—a common standpoint—must be secured. A love for teaching would then be much more common, and discussions among teachers would prove more profitable. This doctrine, to be com-

plete, must fix a definite purpose for the teacher, and show clearly by what means and methods that purpose can be accomplished. If it does that, it might then be called a science, or at least a well-organized system of thought.

There are few men who have given to the world such a doctrine. Pestalozzi has not done it, nor Rousseau, nor Joseph Payne, nor Quick, nor Fitch; Comenius and Herbert Spencer have approached the mere outlines of one; the Herbartians alone have developed such a system in detail, and its essential points are accepted by a considerable body of teachers in Germany.

According to the Herbartians the teacher cannot reach the best results by trusting merely to good fortune in the training of children. He must follow a systematic plan, the first essential of which is a definite aim. This aim is especially necessary since the school has numerous purposes, and a person might easily become confused or misled among so many. These different purposes, however, have not all the same degree of importance; they cannot well have. One must distinguish itself by its supreme importance, and, whatever it be, all of the others should be subordinate to it. With the Herbartians this supreme and ultimate object is of an ethical nature: it is the development of good character. The welfare of the child himself, as well as that of the State, gives to character-building the highest rank. All of the other objects of the school, such as useful knowledge, mental discipline, etc., are subordinate to it, and mere means for the accomplishment of the final end. Until the teacher accepts some such end as his highest aim, he has no method of determining whether or not the means chosen are sufficient, or stand in the right relation to one another, or are applied in the right way. And unless he can rightly decide these matters, his various purposes cannot well be attained: since there is no standard by which to judge of their relative importance, they are likely to conflict with one another; and some of them, perhaps the most important, must degenerate into mere wishes. A highest purpose, therefore, is absolutely necessary in order to secure unity of plan and action; and unity in these respects is as necessary for the teacher as for the dramatist.

The ultimate object being determined, it remains to consider the means by which it may be realized. The Herbartians recognize two such means: the example and personal influence of the teacher as one, and instruction as the other. While they agree with Americans in considering the personal influence of the teacher a very potent factor in securing the final result, they distinguish themselves from us decidedly in the degree of importance they attribute to instruction in helping to accomplish the same end. They believe that the course of study itself, owing to the thoughts it may contain, can affect character, and they therefore place it in direct relation to the final object in view. They reason as follows: The

chief element in good character is a good will. But the will is not something wholly independent of everything else; it can be influenced, it can be affected, and the instrument by which it can be affected is thought. The things which we decide to do are not simply willed outright, but are determined largely by the ruling thoughts that occupy our minds. Then, if our ruling thoughts are of the right character, so will our actions be; but if they are not, our conduct will be faulty. Certain thoughts, whether good or bad, are maxims or principles controlling our conduct. But maxims are the product of education: they have not always had control of us, nor did they secure their control instantaneously; they were slowly taught to us. First, ideas secured our attention and may have excited some feeling. If they excited feeling to a sufficient degree, desires and longings sprang up; and, finally, convictions and resolutions were reached. Such is the history of the activity called *willing*. Then, feelings, desires, and determinations are not activities outside of and separate from ideas, but an outgrowth from them. If this be true, he who takes proper care of the ideas that enter a child's mind, seeing to it that they are of the right quality, and are placed in such a relation to one another that they are thoroughly understood and interesting, is determining to a considerable degree the kind of person the child shall will to be. Of course he cannot determine it entirely, for the child has native tendencies that will assert themselves, but he can do much toward it. Now, it is exactly such work that the instructor has an opportunity to do: he is placing thoughts in the mind; therefore it is in his power to have a decided effect upon character.

As indicated above, however, not all concepts influence the will. Knowledge is often a mere supply of information, a dead treasure acting as a stimulus in no direction whatever. But that knowledge which influences the will does so by arousing feelings, desires, and then resolutions. To do that, it must be felt; it must have an enlivening, quickening effect; *i.e.*, it must be thoroughly interesting. Unless it is interesting, it will receive little attention, and prove valueless as far as character is concerned. But, if it arouses a lively interest, it will frequently occupy the mind. Those thoughts which are of great interest to us are the ones that are reviewed most often, pondered most carefully, and most fully digested, so that they become a part of us. Our daily experience tells us that it is the interesting thoughts that keep our minds active; therefore it is through interest in thoughts that that very important object of the public school, lively mental activity, is attained.

Now, if it happen that the thoughts that excite such a deep interest are of a moral nature, we shall then not only become more active-minded, but also more sensitive as to our duty. For reflection upon such truths will decide our attitude toward them, will lead us gradually to take a stand in regard to what is right and wrong, and to determine to do the one and

avoid doing the other. But lively interest in these truths is always the primary condition under which this result can be brought about. We see, therefore, that interest is the condition under which great mental activity is secured, and moral character is affected through instruction—the two most important objects of the public school. It is of great moment, then. To the Herbartian a lively, permanent interest is the highest immediate purpose of instruction. Mere knowledge is entirely subordinate to it. Interest is not excited simply in order that one may learn better, *i.e.*, more knowledge may be acquired. This is the usual view, but it is not the Herbartian. According to the Herbartian view, facts are learned about a subject in order that, through them, a deep, permanent interest in that subject may be awakened. The more thoroughly and accurately the facts are taught, the stronger the interest, of course. This is a fundamental principle of that school of pedagogy. It does not disdain definite knowledge at all,—it insists upon it strenuously; but it regards it as a means rather than an end in itself. The chief object of instruction is, through several studies, to make children deeply interested in several different spheres of thought. The Herbartians, wishing to excite a lasting interest on the part of the child in the world about him, teach geography and elementary science; wishing to plant within him a similar interest in the welfare of other individuals and society in general, they give instruction in history and literature; wishing, finally, to interest the child in God and his relation to that Being, they teach religion, their most important study. In all of these branches a permanent interest is the highest aim that the instructor seeks directly to attain. This is his highest immediate object, because, if he accomplishes it, his ultimate purposes are very likely to be attained, since lively interest is the chief condition of their attainment.

This interest is not dependent primarily upon the manner of the teacher or his numerous devices; these are good things, great helps indeed; but this interest is a direct liking, a love for the subject-matter taught. Therefore the choice of such matter for the common schools becomes a point of great importance. The child should be given thoughts which he can thoroughly enjoy. Indeed, what the child should study is the first great question. He, like the adult, has not the same degree of interest in all kinds of knowledge; owing to his nature, some kinds are more attractive to him than others. Of course, then, the more attractive kind should be offered him. For certain reasons other uninteresting studies may be taught, but the realization of the main purpose of the school must depend mainly upon the teaching of those branches that are by nature of interest to the pupil. He who cherishes this view will not accept the oft-quoted remark of Emerson, that he cared little what his daughter studied, but mainly how she did it. Good, interesting thoughts, as well as good discipline, are to be aimed at; indeed, they are of first importance. We see,

then, why the Herbartians object to our common-school curriculum, especially to that for the first few years, for it suffers remarkably from a dearth of thought. There is nothing inspiring about it. Reading, writing, spelling, and number were not made the chief studies because they contained interesting ideas, but because they are branches which have a great practical utility. They tend rather to deaden than to enliven mental activity, and bear little relation to character-building; for these reasons they cannot be regarded as the most important studies.

Thus far I have endeavored to show that character-building is the chief purpose of the public school, and that instruction is a very important factor in the realization of this purpose. Also, since interest is the chief condition under which instruction can affect character, the excitement of a lively, permanent interest in several spheres of thought becomes the highest immediate aim of the teacher. Further, since this kind of interest is not excited merely by a pleasant manner or by happy devices, but is based upon a direct liking for the subject-matter taught, a course of study must be chosen which contains an abundance of interesting thought. The question now arises: "Where are thoroughly interesting thoughts of the right quality to be obtained?" or, "What principle should guide one in their selection?" Since literature and history are especially the studies that deal with the motives and actions of men, they are the ones from which the thoughts must be selected that can influence character. Hence one or both of these branches should be taught throughout the course in the public school. They are the most important studies of each year, since they stand in the closest relation to the ultimate object. But they themselves contain a vast amount of material from which to choose. Since we already know in general the nature of the thoughts that can affect character, the chief problem really is, to decide what truths of the desired kind will prove most interesting to children at different ages. This is plainly a question of apperception; we are called upon to decide what is most closely related to the experiences and interests of the child during each year of school. In deciding this question it is helpful to have reached the conviction that the child, on the whole, passes through the same great stages of development through which all races pass. The Herbartians, as well as Herbert Spencer, have reached this conviction; and this principle—called by them the Culturstufenidee—is their guide in determining a course of literature and history. They see clearly a parallelism between the development of the race and that of the child. Just as one entertains itself largely at first with pictures of the imagination, then loves especially physical feats of bravery, and finally becomes reflective, so does the other. Since the two are so much alike, what interests one most at a certain age is of like interest to the other at a corresponding age. But we know what has interested races during their different periods of growth; we have their thoughts and deeds preserved to us in the form of

myths and fairy-tales, legends, epics, poems, and actual history. These experiences, then, are what will interest the child most if given at the proper time. In imagination he can and does live through them, just as the races have lived through them in reality. The Herbartians have, therefore, chosen fairy-tales as a regular study of the first school year; "Robinson Crusoe" as one for the second; German legends, the Song of the Nibelungen, and other literature and history, for the grades following. Thus classical literature or history, or both, are taught to the children during each year of school; through them good motives are implanted in the minds of the children, and thus their wills are affected.

But if these were the only branches taught, we might have young people who desired to do what was right, but whose knowledge of the world about them was too limited to allow them to accomplish their desires. A man who is influential for good in a community must not only will to do right, but he must be able to execute his will. He must possess a fair amount of useful knowledge which he is able to apply. Hence other studies besides literature and history must be included in the school course in order to impart this useful information. Among them are elementary science and geography, which can acquaint the pupil with animals, plants, the laws of nature, the physical features of the earth, etc. Others are arithmetic, languages, reading, writing, and spelling. They afford good discipline in various ways, and prove practically useful; but, since the worth of a man lies primarily in his moral will, they are inferior in rank to those subjects which by nature influence this will. The Herbartian course of study is thus briefly outlined. It has two distinguishing characteristics: first, it ascribes the greatest importance each year to literature and history, as just remarked; second, in the selection and successive arrangement of fitting subject-matter for each year, the principle that the child passes through the same great stage of development as the race is the guiding thought. By a careful application of this principle more complete apperception is secured; *i. e.*, the new ideas taught fit so closely upon those that are already in the child's mind, that they are much better understood and more interesting than they otherwise could be.

The course of study being now determined in a general way, the principle of concentration decides what relation the different branches shall bear to one another. They are not to stand in an isolated position and be taught independently of one another, but are to be brought into a close relationship to each other. This paper has already attempted to show that the pedagogical knowledge which teachers possess should be closely related and carefully organized into a system. Portions of it should not be isolated from other portions. The reasons given were that disconnected facts are less easily remembered, less thoroughly understood, less interesting, and less influential over us. The same reasons hold with still greater force in regard to the relationship which should exist among the facts that

children acquire. For adults by nature reflect more than children; *i. e.* they themselves establish connections between the portions of their knowledge. But they do this much less than they ought. Children, then, are still worse off. Unless the teacher takes special precautions to avoid it, there is the greatest danger that their knowledge will be a chaotic mass of information. The danger is quite apparent when we remember that within a single day the child studies one half-dozen different branches. Perhaps arithmetic comes first, and is followed by reading and spelling; then, after the study of plants for a while, may come writing and literature; geography is the next subject, and is succeeded by music, or painting, or drawing, or language. When so much material of different kinds is crowded into his mind so rapidly, it must remain unorganized unless special measures are taken to prevent that evil. It is the duty of the teacher to take such measures. It is as much his duty to do that as it is to impart information at all; for the educated man is one who not only possesses an abundance of facts, but has brought them into immediate relations with one another. This close relationship of ideas is an essential characteristic of the educated man. The Herbartians distinguish themselves by acknowledging this fact and making special arrangements to relate closely the ideas they teach. In their minds, just as the steps in a single recitation should form a closely connected series, and the parts of a single study an organized whole, so the different studies taught at any one time should make up a unit, an organized body of knowledge. It is only in this manner that the mass of facts acquired can be well mastered by the pupil, and stand at his disposal for use at any time; it is only by having all of his knowledge closely related that he can have command of himself, maintain his self-reliance, and present a strong character. With these thoughts in mind, the Herbartians make one study a center about which all others as far as possible are grouped. This central study, since it determines to a considerable degree the content and progress of the other studies, will necessarily be the most important branch in the course. It must be, then, either literature or history. If it is literature—as, for instance, "Robinson Crusoe" in the second grade—the reading-matter will consist of the story of Robinson in simple form; the thought for the written-language work will be chosen from this same story,—for instance, a letter to Robinson; the geography, if taught at all, will introduce such subjects as island, spring, stream, etc., notions which the story introduces; and the elementary science will treat of such animals and plants as Robinson met, comparing them with the most nearly related ones at home. The other branches will be related as far as possible to those already mentioned. The danger here is, that, in order to have connection of some kind, very artificial relationships will be established. The Herbartians certainly have not always avoided this danger; but their merit consists, first, in their conviction that the principle of concentration is one of the most import-

ant ones involved in teaching; and, secondly, in their continuous effort to apply this great principle in their daily practice, they are unifying the course of study, and German instruction as a whole must be greatly influenced thereby.

Since I have now discussed the chief aim of instruction, the choice of subject-matter for the realization of this aim, and the relation which the various branches bear to one another, the only remaining subject in the Herbartian system of thought is that of method.

As said at the beginning of this paper, there is an abundance of literature in English upon this subject, but it lacks organization almost entirely. The merit of the Herbartians in this field, also, is not that they have made new and important discoveries, but rather that they have systematized and applied what is already known in regard to method. Pestalozzi emphasized the fact that in all of our studies we are aiming at knowledge in a certain form—that of the general notion. For instance, history should not stop with individual notions, but should proceed to generalizations. It should make clear that "slavery is a curse," or that "in unity there is strength," or give a full comprehension of patriotism or bravery, etc. So arithmetic and grammar teach general truths, usually called rules or definitions. The same is true of the other branches, although with some of them the time seems to be occupied almost wholly with details and mechanical work. Now, there is only one way of arriving at general notions, and that is through the particular cases; through the individual examples we see the general truths involved. Since in the different studies we thus aim at the same object, generalizations, and can reach it in only one way, by individual cases, there is in reality only one general method of learning or imparting knowledge. We acquire individual notions and then pass from them to general notions. Then, if two questions can be satisfactorily answered, the whole subject of method can be determined with a fair degree of completeness. The first one is, "How do we acquire clear, concrete notions?" and the second, "How do we pass from them to clear generalizations?"

The answer of the Herbartians to the first question is that we reach clear percepts by careful apperception, or by a thorough fusion of new ideas with the old ones which are closely related to them. As already seen, apperception plays a very important part in the choice of a course of study; it is likewise important in method. To bring it about, it is first necessary to bring vividly into consciousness all the experiences the child has had which pertain to the subject in hand. After they have been thus reproduced, the new ideas should be presented, to be explained by the light of the old and thoroughly apperceived ones. There are thus plainly two steps involved in careful apperception. The old ideas are recalled to consciousness, and then the new related ones presented. These two steps must always be taken in acquiring individual notions.

The answer to the second question is that we pass from percepts to concepts by a careful comparison of the percepts and abstraction of the essential characteristics. By such a comparison the non-essentials are lost sight of. The mind discovers what is commonly true, and dwells upon that alone; *i. e.*, it grasps the generalization or the general truth. Here, also, there are two important steps: first, the act of comparison; and, second, the separation of the essential from the non-essential, the mind dwelling upon and formulating the general notion. The comprehension of this notion is to be followed by its application. No matter what the study be, after a rule or law has been reached, the instructor must see that it is applied. This is the fifth necessary step in learning. These steps are all called necessary, because all minds in acquiring knowledge must take them. We all learn in the same general way. So the Herbartians have named these the five formal steps. As said above, their virtue consists in the fact that they systematize method. They cause the instructor to fix his mind upon generalization as his end, and to regard individual notions as a means to their attainment. They keep ever before him the importance of careful apperception, comparison, and application of ideas. Through a knowledge of them one can keep his bearings better; he can estimate the worth of other so-called methods and devices more truly, since he has a true standard of measurement; and he is less likely to omit important steps. Many excellent teachers, of course, have never heard of the formal steps; they apply them unconsciously. But a study of them leads to a more careful application still of the great laws which govern minds in the act of learning; better results necessarily follow.

We have now seen that the aim of instruction, the choice of interesting subject-matter, the relation of its parts to one another, and method, are the fundamental points in the Herbartian pedagogy. I have endeavored to present them in such a way that they would seem related and compose a system of thought; for in reality they form an organized body of knowledge.

Even if this system is entirely wrong in some very important respects, it still possesses the merit of placing before us certain great problems for solution. Some of these problems are the following: What is the relation of school studies to character? Is there really a parallelism between the development of the child and that of the race; and, if so, how far should that fact influence us in our choice of a curriculum? Should we attempt to relate closely the different studies? Is there such a thing as general method, *i. e.*, are there great laws governing us in all acquisition of knowledge, and, if there are, what are they? The Herbartians have directed the attention of German teachers to these questions until they are recognized as great problems whose solution is a life-work. Thus in this system a definite field of study and investigation is mapped out for the teacher.

But, if this is a system of thought which in the main is correct, these problems are already partially solved, and a knowledge of their solution cannot help but be of great value to normal schools. Since the Herbartian pedagogy fixes a definite end to be accomplished, and shows clearly the means by which it can be attained, it will inculcate a stronger belief in teaching, a greater devotion to it, and a more progressive spirit. Both normal-school teachers as well as students are in need of an influence that will have such an effect upon them.

PROCEEDINGS AND ADDRESSES

OF THE

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION AND MANUAL TRAINING.

Department of Industrial Education and Manual Training.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

Saratoga Springs, July 13, 1892.

The Department met in the Court of Appeals room, Town Hall, at 3 P.M., President Leipziger in the chair.

The following programme was carried out:

Address by Dr. Henry M. Leipziger: "Education as Affected by Manual Training."

Address by Miss Caroline T. Haven, Workingmen's School, New York City: "The Kindergarten in its Relation to Manual Training."

Address by Prof. C. A. Bennett, College for Training of Teachers, New York: "Manual Training from the Kindergarten to the High School."

Address by J. H. Trybom: "Sloyd as an Educational Subject."

After usual announcements, appointment of usual committees, etc., the Department adjourned.

Thursday, July 14, 3 P.M.

Dr. Leipziger, the President of the Department, called the session to order at 3 P.M. He first called for the report of the Committee on Nomination of Officers for the ensuing year. Prof. Ordway, Chairman of the Committee, reported as follows: That the Committee on Nominations recommend for President, W. M. Beardshear, of Iowa; for Vice-President, A. A. Gordon, of Minnesota; for Secretary, W. B. Friedberg, of New York. The gentlemen named were elected for their respective offices unanimously.

The first paper was read by Mr. S. S. Packard, of Packard's Business College, New York City, on "Business Education: Its Place in the American Curriculum." Then followed an exposition by Dr. Paul Hoffman, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, New York City, of manual training in the New York City schools. This was accompanied by an

exhibition of the work done by the pupils in the schools of New York, and also an illustration by Dr. Hoffman showing the methods by which this work was accomplished.

The discussion that followed was with regard to the points brought out by Dr. Hoffman. Many questions were asked and satisfactorily explained.

Before adjourning, a vote of thanks was passed, heartily thanking the gentlemen who had prepared the papers for the session.

EDUCATION AS AFFECTED BY MANUAL TRAINING.

BY DR. HENRY M. LEIPZIGER, NEW YORK CITY.

A DISTINGUISHED educator in a recent address said that "education has gradually become an almost universal faith and practice. Men differ in creed, in race, in culture, in party; but men and women of all ranks and stations unite in their faith in the power of curricularized knowledge to prevent a relapse to barbarism and to insure general progress and individual success in life."

Every one engaged in the profession of teaching must certainly indorse Professor's Hall's statement, and the best proof of its truth is given in the interest of the public, not alone in institutions of learning, but in methods of instruction.

The nineteenth century has witnessed much progress in what may be termed the realms of science; it has seen, too, progress in the popular estimation in which the teacher is held. The good time is coming, we trust, when the chief citizen in the community will not be the banker, the merchant, the politician, but the moulder of character, the former of citizens,—the teacher; and in that day the budget of our large cities will show but a very small proportion of its taxes paid for police purposes, and the largest share for education. This consummation will be in a large measure brought about by the introduction of manual training, if properly understood.

The manual-training idea in education which has taken so deep a hold of the popular mind is not a sudden growth, but is a natural development of the social and industrial conditions of our time. The question as to what education is for, finally resolved itself into this form, that education is preparation for "life, not for examinations." The fact that our ordinary school education did not prepare for practical life gradually became apparent; and thus manual-labor schools, technical schools, art schools, commercial schools, grew up to supplement the deficiencies of the regular traditional schools.

In this way the term manual training became in many minds a term purely practical in its meaning. It is becoming better understood now, and both physiology and philosophy show that manual training is a part of the intellectual, the moral, and the physical training of the human being. The difference of an education without manual training and with it can be illustrated by the experiment of Mr. Leland, who, while studying wood-engraving, had read all he could find in books on wood-engraving, but two days' work over a block taught him more than a library had done. "For all learning since books were invented, there was never aught like experience, and of all experience there is none like one's own."

A brief review of the growth of the manual training idea will clear up misapprehension. The old idea of a school was that of a place where the humanities were taught; here education was not a developing process, but rather a filling in. Skill in dialectic, in reasoning was aimed at; and education thus understood was the privilege of what are termed the upper classes. The mass of workers learned their craft after a long apprenticeship. It was education very much of the same sort as that given in the school, and produced workmen of a high order. But as time advanced, and the influence of the Reformation and the French Revolution began to be felt, the lines between classes were broken; and, naturally, the traditional ideas regarding education, which typifies the main characteristics of any age, became modified. Rousseau's "Emile" taught the doctrine that *learning* was not education, but that the object of education should be harmonious development.

This book of Rousseau's is responsible for the mental awakening of Pestalozzi, who practically illustrated the value of a return to the methods of nature. In his experiments he showed that sense impression is the foundation of instruction, and as his influence has spread, so does the belief in his cardinal principle. He insisted with Rousseau on the connection of manual work with the school, for he says "words alone cannot give us a knowledge of things: they are only useful for giving expression to what we have in our minds." That this view, which seems to us so axiomatic, is not yet generally adopted, is shown by the fact that in many of our elementary schools, where physics is taught, it is taught from a book and without adequate experiments.

Contemporaneous with the social changes came industrial changes which have affected education. The invention of machinery caused the decay of the apprenticeship system and the gradual diminution of the number of skilled workmen. The increasing knowledge of facts in the realm of science led to the growth of special institutions where the principles underlying the machine and the material came to be understood, and educational methods thus came to be applied in the acquisition of an art. Our age is industrial, not military. Our education is democratic, not exclusive; hence our education must be harmonious, it must concern itself with the great facts of the world in which we live and move and have our being.

There is, therefore, a historical, a philosophical, an educational, an economic reason for the growth of the manual-training idea.

The new education is based on physiological psychology, and from this study we receive the strongest argument in favor of manual training in education. Eminent specialists have established the fact that the "brain is not, as it was at one time supposed, a single organ acting as a whole, but a congeries of organs capable of more or less independent action." The brain has a sensory and a motor area, the latter presiding over groups of

muscles. Each set of muscles has a special motor center, which moves as the will dictates. Our mental states are dependent, therefore, as much upon the motor centers as upon the sensory centers. Dr. Brown says: "As the hand centers hold a permanent place amongst the motor centers, and are in relation with an organ which in prehension, in touch, and in a thousand different combinations of movement, adds enormously to our intellectual resources, besides enabling us to give almost unlimited expression to our thoughts and sentiments, it is plain that the highest possible functional activity of these hand centers is a paramount consequence not less to mental grasp than to industrial success." The writer of the above sentences shows that the brain, to be serviceable, must be used, and the motor centers in particular demand exercise. Hence he concludes that it is a requisite that exercises of the hand should commence at a very early age—as soon after the fourth year as possible.

Here comes the value of the kindergarten, the spread of which must delight all who believe with Pestalozzi that "every human being is entitled to the development of the faculties he was born with." In the kindergarten, all the child's activities are brought into play, and here, at a time when the joints are supple, the child's fingers are trained. As the impressions of the first seven years of childhood are among the most enduring, how important it is that the great years between three and six should not go to waste. Here in the kindergarten, "in playful work or workful play," the child finds a relief for and a satisfaction of his active impulses, and receives an elementary groundwork for all later work, whether artistic or professional. He learns geometry without a text-book, and when in after-days he studies his Euclid, he finds himself like the bourgeois in Molière's comedy, who had been speaking prose for forty years without knowing it. So, then, manual training, both for intellectual and industrial reasons, should begin early, to be effective. The writer above referred to says: "Depend upon it that much of the confusion of thought, awkwardness, bashfulness, stuttering, stupidity, and irresolution which we encounter in the world is dependent on defective or misdirected muscular training, and that the thoughtful and diligent cultivation of this is conducive to breadth of mind as well as to breadth of shoulders, and that a strong, steady, and obedient right hand is one of man's proudest possessions; as proud a possession as a glib tongue, for there must be a strong, steady, and obedient brain behind to drive it."

Nor should economic reasons be entirely disregarded. The great industrial opportunities afforded by our land should be developed by our own skilled workmen, not by those of other lands. We would not have our schools turned into workshops; but do we not practically bias children when we do teach them bookkeeping and keep them ignorant of the use of the hammer and the saw? Do we not prejudice them against honest labor by keeping them ignorant of it?

The race of modern life is very keen, and the fittest alone survive. Our system of education, beginning with the kindergarten, should include not only the ordinary schools where manual training methods are adopted, but technical and trade schools. The university of to-day, with its school of mines and electrical engineering, illustrates the march of progress. So that manual training is necessary to preserve our national skill.

It is not necessary here to give but a passing reference to the fact that our schools will become thoroughly democratized by a more frequent use of the hand in education. The number of those who live by their wits will become lessened, and our criminal class become smaller in number. Three-fourths of the criminals have never done an honest stroke of work. Surely a true school has for its main purpose not the acquisition of knowledge, but the upholding of character. And manual training has a most valuable effect as a developer of moral character. It was Mr. Froude who said that learning the three R's, unaccompanied by any industrial training, was sure to bring about the fourth R of rascality. The governor of one prison said, "The greatest rascal I have in custody can write out our Lord's Prayer in seven languages." The training in exactness and in truth, under skilled manual training teaching, has a powerful moral effect.

As an aid in physical upbuilding, statistics would prove the immense value of some form of manual training, and men engaged in sedentary occupations would call that teacher blessed who had given them an interesting "hobby" as a rest and recreation.

The value of manual training having been amply demonstrated, it remains to briefly refer to its influence on the methods, instruction and training of teachers.

The methods of instruction still too generally adopted are relics of the time when "cram" was mistaken for education, and instruction took the place of training. "Not only are we taught a mass of rubbish, but what is not rubbish is taught so as to make us waste as much time as possible." The course of study should be revised so that its different parts correlate. Then manual training will not be considered as a distinct subject, but as a *means* to be employed in our subjects. Arithmetic is the main subject in all public schools. How *live* it becomes when pupils handle the measures and use them! What a difference in the appreciation of geometry between the boy who has learned his propositions by rote and he who has discovered the proofs by the inventional plan by using his own eyes and hands! What better aid in the study of geography than the modeling-board and the relief map? Can history be properly taught without drawing? And in teaching natural sciences the knowledge of the use of tools is indispensable. The president of Harvard has confessed the debt due to the wisdom of his parents who had him taught carpentry and wood-turn-

ing before he was fifteen years old, and he says: "It has been of great use to me all my life, and a great pleasure."

My own observation is that the only way to teach physics or any of the natural sciences is by the handling of apparatus and the discovery of laws by the pupils.

So that to every one of the old and traditional studies, manual training becomes an aid. The exercises in the kindergarten, in sloyd, in paper-cutting, modeling in clay, wood-working, sewing, cooking, drawing, are not by any means ends in themselves, but *means* for the training of the judgment, of the will, and thus developing power and executive ability, and preventing the boy or girl from becoming one-sided. On the value to the teacher of manual training methods we cannot dwell; but certainly interest will be maintained, and interest is the key to teaching. The training of teachers will have to be modified. The teacher is not a mere hearer of recitations, but an inspirer. He must possess the knowledge and the skill he would impart to others. The curriculum of the normal school must provide the proper all-round equipment which the pupils must receive. The teacher must have a generous classical and scientific training. Then will our schools become the nurseries of the future inventors and designers of the world, of men and women of proper physique, fine sensibility, and noble moral character.

Under a system of training in which manual training plays a proper part, the wealth of our land will be vastly increased, the perceptive faculties will be developed, the æsthetic side will be nurtured, the distinction between the manual worker and the brain worker will be obliterated, and each human being, having learned to think, observe, and act for himself, will enjoy his own life and not be the echo of another, and then will be realized the dream of Emerson:

> "His tongue was framed to music,
> And his hand was armed with skill;
> His face was the mould of beauty,
> And his heart the throne of will."

THE RELATION OF THE KINDERGARTEN TO MANUAL TRAINING.

BY CAROLINE T. HAVEN.

It is but a little more than fifty years since Friedrich Froebel first applied the word "Kindergarten" to his system of education, and embodied his thought in his experimental work in a little German village. Small though the seed, it at once took vigorous root in its native soil, sending

out shoots on every hand, till it has spread to a greater or less extent into Austria, Switzerland, Italy, Belgium, Portugal, Spain, Greece, Russia, Holland, Sweden, and England, as well as to our own country. Everywhere the original name has been accepted and incorporated into the language of the country; and, though certain modifications of method have often been necessary to meet the requirements of different peoples and their environments, the general principles have remained unchanged throughout.

Transplanted to these shores, its growth was at first feeble and uncertain, and not until about twenty-five years ago did it receive much notice. During the past ten years it has rapidly increased in strength and numbers, in city and in town, among rich and poor alike, till "kindergarten" has become a household word wherever children abound. With this phenomenal growth there have naturally arisen many misunderstandings of the true idea of its mission. Its enthusiastic advocates, in their laudable desire to further its advance, have too often adopted the methods of vendors of sovereign specifics, and made claims which could not be maintained under the existing circumstances. In endeavoring to supplant the old education by the new, they have also sometimes failed to recognize the good already in the old, and, by their wholesale condemnations, have antagonized where they ought to convince.

There have been many, too, who, with a merely superficial knowledge of Froebel's idea, have played upon a too credulous public who were unable to distinguish between the true and the false. As a result, we have had "Kindergarten Exhibitions" without number, in which very young children performed on a stage before an applauding audience, and even "Kindergarten Graduating Exercises" of children of eight or ten years, with the absurd accompaniment of valedictory and diploma.

Perhaps the most serious mistake has been, and unfortunately still is, in many instances, the idea that the kindergarten occupations constitute its chief claim as an educational factor, and that a knowledge of the simple mechanical handling of these is alone necessary to their successful use. Under this supposition, sewing or weaving, folding or clay, are often introduced into a school, which is straightway catalogued as kindergarten, though in the application of these occupations each bears no relation to the others, and all with none of the regular exercises.

It is not surprising, perhaps, that these many misunderstandings have occurred, or that the kindergarten, like the many-sided solid, presents a different aspect from every point of view. The emphasis of its aim is variously laid by those who fail to study it on every side. Here it is upon the development of the physical nature; there, upon the inculcation of good habits. Here, upon the manual training afforded; there, upon the cultivation of the perceptions, or upon the exercise of the moral and social duties. Each of these views may be correct from a single point of

observation, but no one presents a fair representation of the whole object. The real kindergarten is a combination of all these phases, and of many more. Remembering that the child has come to it from his mother's arms, it is allowed much of the freedom of the nursery, and seeks to supply the motherliness which belongs by right to every child.

Recognizing the creative instinct implanted in every human breast, it encourages the child to build and make till he can express his awakening thought in concrete form. It develops his growing intelligence by the systematic presentation of objects under the guise of play. It exercises the body through marching and simple gymnastics. It judiciously strengthens the imagination through song and story and game. It fosters a love for nature by an interest in, and an acquaintance with, all natural objects. It cultivates the æsthetic sense through harmonious combinations of form and color. It strives to fit the child for the social relations of later life, and employs every means to promote harmony and good feeling among the members of the little community within its borders. It shows the worth and dignity of labor, and provides suitable material for combinations and transformations. It teaches filial love and respect, a reverence for all things good, true, and beautiful, and, through the constant exercise of his moral nature, surrounds the child with a gentle, spiritualizing influence.

That the kindergarten does provide for good physical development is usually conceded. Fresh air, sunshine, exercise, and a general observance of the laws of health, are the accompaniments of nearly every kindergarten, and may readily be discerned by the most superficial examination. Nearly as obvious, too, are the means employed for the cultivation of the moral nature, as day after day, by precept and example, the formation of a good character is slowly but surely carried on. On the intellectual side, however, the aim is not so apparent, except to those who have learned to look beneath the surface. It is granted that the play methods of the kindergarten do not produce results according to the standard of those who can estimate only what may be measured or tabulated. It is, however, no idle claim that the foundation of all the school studies may be laid by the correct application of these means. Let us note some of these in detail:

Form-study is an accepted branch of instruction in every well-regulated school of to-day, and form-study constitutes a large part of every kindergarten lesson. What is often taught laboriously in primary grades is readily assimilated by the child in his play with his blocks or squares of paper. The typical forms—the sphere, cube, and cylinder—are interwoven into his life from the first, and from these he gains an acquaintance with the principal solid and plane geometrical figures, and learns to see in all objects about him the type form to which it is most closely allied. Added to this is the encouragement to produce them in clay, or to repre-

sent them by drawing, even though at first the power is limited and the results crude.

Design finds its foundation in the symmetrical figures constantly laid with blocks or tablets, as well as in many of the occupations in which pleasing arrangements are produced by a proper balancing of the individual parts. These effects are still further emphasized through color, and careful attention is now given to harmonious combinations. Again, the kindergarten gives the child constant objective practice in number. With the cubes of the third gift, the various numerical changes as far as eight are rendered simple, and are unconsciously learned; while further combinations and a good general idea of fractions are provided for in the succeeding gifts.

The kindergarten in its relation to natural science presents a wide field. The elements of botany, zoölogy, mineralogy, and physics are brought before the child in a most engaging form. He is encouraged to watch all natural phenomena; to note the changes that the seasons bring to all animal and vegetable life; to collect flowers, seeds, stones, leaves, or any specimens that may come to his hand; and to love nature and her vast storehouse of treasures. To the city child, especially, the lessons thus learned are of inestimable value, not only in the development of the power of observation, but in the actual knowledge of common things which would be gained in no other way.

All manual work has its beginning in the kindergarten. The natural desire of children to touch, to handle, to build, to form, to shape, to construct, here finds vent. The hand, that expression of man's sovereignty, comes into constant and systematic use. Did you ever try to put a glove with its thumb and fingers on the hand of a child of three or four years? Nothing can make you realize more forcibly the lack of power in this little member. The soft bones, the weak muscles, the tender flesh with its lovely curves and dimples, present a mass of inert material which only regular exercise will change into the strong, supple, and obedient servant of the will. Froebel recognized the need of training in this direction; and in his famous "Mutter und Kose Lieder" he provided songs for even the baby, which, accompanied by movements, serve to develop strength and flexibility in the tiny fingers.

In the kindergarten itself this work is carried on; the innate sense of music and rhythm adding to the enjoyment of the children, and giving them that grace and beauty that accompany all unconscious efforts. With the various material of the kindergarten, the same educational process continues. The placing of the block on a line of the table, the balancing of one form upon another, the moving to exact distances so as to give due proportion to the desired form, all combine to give skill to the hand, and, through that, accuracy to the eye. In the occupations this is even more apparent. Sewing, in which even the youngest child participates, calls for

constant exercise of the hand. The holding the card steadily in one and the needle in the other, the finding the exact hole in which to put the needle, and the pulling through of the thread, all mean much to the little worker, whose hand is often so unsteady that time and patience are required for even this simple process. Weaving brings into more active use both hands, and requires more skill as the needle is dexterously slipped over and under the strips of the mat, till, drawn through at the other side, the woven threads are plainly seen.

For gaining accuracy of eye and delicacy of touch, especially in the tips of the fingers, nothing can be more effective than the folding. Even in the simplest fold, edges and corners are made to exactly coincide, while the thumb of the right hand, like the little tool of the bookbinder, creases the fold already indicated. The use of the scissors in the kindergarten gives increased delight, for where is the child who does not like to cut? At first the tool is grasped awkwardly in the whole hand, and the cuts are aimless; but with a little practice the child gains command over the muscles and produces results according to his desires. And so all occupations—each serves the same end. Froebel based them on the idea that what the child instinctively likes to do must possess an educational value if rightly presented, and the correctness of his view is shown in the increased power gained by these occupations. Nor is this all. The innate creative energy of the child, while developing hand and eye, produces an intellectual activity by which the material forms are recreated in the mind, to be again reproduced under different conditions. At the same time the moral nature receives a fresh impulse towards a higher plane, as the doing becomes the outward expression of love and sacrifice for others.

The influence of the kindergarten is shown in every form of industrial work, and receives emphasis on every hand by the present general use of the occupations in primary grades. Its misuse in the latter direction lies in the fact that the work is often unworthy the child's age and development. Every stage of life has its own needs, which can be satisfied at no other time. What contributes to the development of the child of three or four years is obviously unsuited to the requirements of a later growth. From the simple forms of the kindergarten well suited to the age for which they were intended, there should be a steady advance of manual work throughout the whole school life.

Throughout all these lessons there is also constant practice in oral language. The child is stimulated to express the results of his investigations, and though at first the account is meagre, and the vocabulary limited, the power of expression grows with use, and the story is at last told clearly and understandingly. To this elementary work may be added the daily enforcement of habits of order, regularity, exactness, and neatness—habits that are essential to the progress in the later school life, and which may readily become a part of the child's being at an early age.

Truly it is on the whole child that the kindergarten exerts its influence, and it is the harmonious development of all his powers that is its highest ideal. The kindergarten is yet far from this ideal; but, looking back over the past twenty years, its progress cannot be doubted. It has shown the possibilities of the little child, and his right to systematic training before the accepted school age. It has demonstrated the need of such training outside of the family and among other children, and has proved itself a safe bridge over the gap between the nursery and the school. Its spirit is abroad in the land, and where its gentle influence is felt new life awakes. In all departments of the school methods of teaching and discipline have materially changed, and, through the tendency to individualize, a study of the child nature is made possible. But the mission of the kindergarten does not end here. Instead of the scattered few established by philanthropic individuals or societies for preventive work, the kindergarten must become an integral part of the whole educational system. Connected with every school, there will then be established a sufficient number of kindergartens to meet the wants of the surrounding neighborhood. The increased expenditure thus called for will, in the end, be recognized as a profitable investment, by reason of the better results that will ensue.

With the cosmopolitan character of our population, in which every country and people finds its representatives, we shall learn that we cannot afford to neglect any opportunity to mold and blend these dissimilar elements into harmonious conditions. The primary school will draw its members no longer from the street, but from well-ordered kindergartens, where the work of educating has already been started. The kindergartner and teacher will work together; each will have a full understanding of the methods and aims of the other, since each will be a teacher in the truest sense of the word.

The schools of our nation have been its pride and glory; they have contributed alike to its material prosperity and its intellectual strength. The school of the future will make us more truly great by its decided aim toward the upbuilding of character. Freed from the clutches of political intrigue and party strife, it will become the mightiest force of our land, as, standing on the firm foundation of the kindergarten, it raises our children by easy but progressive steps to the ideal manhood.

MANUAL TRAINING FROM THE KINDERGARTEN TO THE HIGH SCHOOL.

BY CHARLES A. BENNETT, NEW YORK COLLEGE FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS, NEW YORK CITY.

At no time since the manual training movement began in this country have there been so many wide-awake educators studying the problem as there are to-day. Not only the philanthropist and the reformer, but all progressive school-teachers, the superintendent and the high-school principal, the grammar-school master and the primary-school teacher, are looking for more light on this subject—one destined to put new life and interest in every stage of the child's development, from the kindergarten to the college. These educators, however, are not considering whether there is sufficient value in manual training to warrant its introduction into the public schools, for that question has already been answered in the affirmative. They are now considering the ways and means of introducing it into those schools, are comparing proposed courses of study, and are discussing mooted methods of instruction. The question is no longer, "Do we need manual training?" but rather, "Can we have manual training?" The value of manual training is no longer in doubt; but many problems of the proportion it should bear with other studies, and its adjustment with those studies, are still partly or wholly unsolved.

In considering what kinds of manual training are best adapted to grades between the kindergarten and the high school, let us note briefly:

I. CONDITIONS IN VARIOUS SCHOOLS.

There are in this country so many classes of public schools, existing under conditions so widely different, that it is hardly possible to devise a manual training course suitable alike to all. In the large cities hundreds

of pupils attend school in large buildings; each department is carefully graded, and recitations are carried on in large classes. A course of manual training, practical under these conditions, might not be possible in the country district schools, nor in those of the smaller towns and villages. In these the grading is usually imperfect, classes are small, comparatively few pupils are in each school, and the buildings are far apart. The American system of manual training that is to be must meet the conditions in all these classes of schools.

II. ADAPTATION OF WORK TO PUPILS.

The character of the work to be done in each grade must be determined by the physical and mental development of the children in that grade. Only a little experience is needed to convince one that the average boy or girl of nine years is physically unable to use with profit the jack-plane or the turner's gouge. But, even with the necessary physical strength, children of this age rarely possess the mental power which the profitable use of these tools requires in manual training.

Before pupils begin work with the plane and the turner's gouge, they should become familiar with the tools used in drawing and with many of the simpler laying-out, testing, and cutting tools used in wood-working.

Give the children in each grade only such tools as they can use profitably, and make the exercises and models very simple, progressive, and interesting; but do not repeat again and again the kindergarten occupations, excellent as they are in their place, in order to give something simple. There is a kind of hand-work best adapted to children of the kindergarten, and a different kind that seems best for the high school, but neither of these is best for the intermediate grades. The bright boy or girl of nine years tires of kindergarten work, and, on the other hand, it is unreasonable to expect children of this age to do the work done by pupils of sixteen years.

III. CLASS INSTRUCTION.

The course of study should be planned so that class instruction may be given. The fact that, from the character of the work and the needs of the learner, much of the instruction must be individual, is frequently advanced as an argument in favor of manual training. This is true. But, because the individual must be so considered, it does not follow that class instruction should be either abolished or neglected. There is a training acquired by the pupil in class instruction that cannot be given with the teacher's help alone. The individual instruction should follow the class instruction, as is the case in teaching many other subjects; but class instruction should, nevertheless, be given, because of its value to the pupil, and because it greatly simplifies the problem of introducing manual training into the public schools.

When a teacher has a class of but five or six pupils, he will be able to give a large amount of individual help; but a teacher in the public schools who has from fifteen to fifty pupils in a class must have the work so well arranged, must have the successive steps so easy, that the minimum amount of individual instruction will be required. Manual training in the lower grades must be of such a nature that one teacher may give instruction, not to a class of five pupils merely, but to a class of twenty-five. Under certain favorable conditions this number may be exceeded.

IV. CORRELATION WITH OTHER STUDIES.

Manual training, in the judgment of even its more conservative advocates, is a unifying element of the highest value in a course of study. It acts and reacts on the other studies of the curriculum, and helps to establish among them a fellow-feeling which too often does not otherwise exist. Manual training when properly taught should and does bring drawing, arithmetic, geometry, geography, and language into warmer sympathy with one another. In all these lines it stimulates the pupils to greater interest and greater activity; for it puts a new meaning into much of their study, and helps to give a real significance to all their work.

In order to have this correlation most complete, the teacher of manual training should be in touch with the other branches of school work. He should know something of the lessons his pupils are studying in other branches, and the teachers of the other branches should know something about the work the manual training teacher is doing. From this point of view it would seem desirable that the teacher who gives the instruction in the other branches should also give the instruction in manual training. It may be said in reply that the regular teacher perhaps cannot give instruction in tool-work. Neither could the common-school teacher of twenty-five years ago give instruction in drawing; yet to-day there is hardly a schoolroom in our progressive cities and towns in which some of the essentials of drawing are not taught by the regular teacher. The same is true of music. Why, then, cannot manual training be put through a similar process of sifting and adapting and systematizing, and whatever is needed for lower-grade work be presented in such simple form as to be as well taught in the schoolroom as drawing and music? Then there need be no lack of correlation.

V. COST.

Doubtless there are hundreds of school-boards in this country that want manual training, but think they cannot have it on account of the cost. They cannot afford expensively equipped shops, and they know of no other means of introducing it. Even if the shops were provided,

—perhaps given by a rich friend,—the extra teacher to give the instruction might be beyond the resources of a slender treasury.

Some cities may be willing to incur that extra expense in every school, allowing the regular class teacher to remain idle while the pupils are being instructed in manual training by the special teacher, for that is what it usually amounts to in the eyes of the average member of the average school-board; but to do this many are not willing, and some, perhaps, are not able. In order, then, to have the lower grades enjoy the benefits of manual training, the work must be of such a nature that it can be done in the ordinary schoolroom and taught by the regular teacher. Such a plan is as applicable to the school in the small town as to the one in the large city. The larger cities can have supervisers of manual training, as a few do now; the smaller cities and towns can save expense by employing one person able to supervise both manual training and drawing. If the towns are very small, two or three can combine to this end, as they have done in some States for general superintendence.

A New Jersey principal says: "While the question of expense should be secondary to the education of the child, it is in most places the greatest obstacle to the introduction of manual training. Make manual training no more expensive than other lines of instruction of equal importance, and it will certainly be generally adopted."

VI. SUGGESTIONS AS TO COURSES OF STUDY.

Not long ago a professor of natural science remarked in conversation that each year he was ashamed of what he had done the previous year. In the light of new experiences, his former methods, once fondly cherished, seemed so inferior to the newer that he wondered he had ever been guilty of employing them. If that be true with a teacher of natural science, what self-reproach must await the manual training teacher of to-day who presumes to give practical suggestions to other teachers! In manual training, means and methods are so rapidly improving, that, hoping his hearers will be charitable and forgetful, the teacher may at best state only fundamental principles, and give such practical applications of them as have come within the limited range of his own experience and observation.

For convenience the eight grades, representing the eight years of the child's school life between the kindergarten and the high school, may be divided into three parts:

1. Primary grades, or the first three years.
2. Intermediate grades, or the second three years.
3. Grammar grades, or the last two years.

1. *For the Primary Grades.*—The necessary amount of manual training in these grades is supplied by work in clay modeling, in sewing, and in paper cutting, folding, and pasting, now so admirably done in many

places in connection with form-study and drawing. This work can be done not merely in the large city, but also in the small town. Wherever pupils of these grades are instructed in other subjects, they may be given instruction in this important kind of manual training, since no extra room is required, but little material is needed, and the work can and should be taught by the regular teacher in charge of the room.

2. *For the Intermediate Grades.*—These grades mark a period in the child's development in manual training that is neglected more frequently than any other. Apparently, little careful thought has been given to courses of study for these grades. In many cases, enthusiasts in primary work have surfeited the pupils with kindergarten material; in others, teachers who have seen the value of a kit of carpenter's tools in high-school work have sent the children of these grades to the shop, expecting them to follow there a course planned for high or grammar school pupils. Disappointment has been the result.

Besides the work in free-hand drawing, sewing, and modeling in clay, much valuable training can be given in the making of geometric solid forms out of stiff paper or cardboard, but this can be pursued profitably only for a limited time. Work opening up broader training possibilities is needed; and this we find in elementary wood-working, in which the principal cutting-tool is some form of the knife. The material at first used is thin wood, the thickness being increased as the work proceeds.

An outfit valuable for fourth and fifth grades in this kind of work consists of a combined desk-cover and tool tray, which may easily be made to fit any school desk, together with a few simple tools for drawing and cutting. The cover and tray being secured to the desk by a wedge, that part of it at the child's right is used as a cutting-board, while that at the left is arranged to hold either the pad of paper for mechanical drawing, or the thin board upon which the work is to be laid out. The part of the cover farthest from the pupil is the tray for holding the tools. These tools are a knife designed for the purpose, a small bracket-saw, a T-square, two triangles, a pair of compasses, a ruler, and a pencil.

To begin with, a lesson is given in which the pupil learns to make a mechanical drawing of the model he is about to lay out in wood. Next he is taught to lay out the form on the thin wood, then to cut approximately to the line with the saw, and, finally, to trim to the line with the knife.

Such work may, after a little practice with the tools, be taught by any bright teacher who is familiar with drawing. It correlates with arithmetic and free-hand drawing, and it may be made the basis for much instruction in language, and of great assistance in the study of elementary science. The course of study is rich in geometry, is interesting to the pupil, and affords an excellent grounding in the principles of mechanical drawing. The outfit is inexpensive and durable.

The sixth-grade outfit is obtained by substituting a try-square and a whittling knife for the special knife and the bracket-saw used in the fourth and fifth grade outfit. The pupils now also use thicker wood, and, in drawing, begin to make two views of the object represented. For this course of study many valuable hints may be taken from the Swedish slöjd. Simple constructive work interesting to the pupils should be encouraged. There is often great gain in so combining the exercises that they become objects of interest to the pupils. In planning these exercises, the age of the pupils is obviously to be taken into consideration.

If the cost is not a serious obstacle, and if it is deemed desirable to fit up a separate room and to employ a special teacher for the fifth and sixth grades, the work for these grades may be done on small, light benches. In this case a small hammer and a chisel may profitably be added to the list of tools, and the exercises changed accordingly.

3. *For the Grammar Grades.*—In the manual training work the boys and girls are often separated at the beginning of the seventh grade, the girls going to cooking twice a week, and the boys to wood-working. For these purposes two rooms are fitted up, and two special teachers employed. The desirability of this plan would hardly be questioned save by those who think that boys and girls should be trained precisely alike.

The results obtained through this plan in most cases fully justify the means. By keeping the teachers in the cooking and wood-working departments in touch with the other lines of teaching, the manual training becomes an integral part of the school work, and not an annex to it. In such a plan the tasks in the shop should be confined to wood-working. In view of the shortness of the time per week given to manual training, it would be a waste of money to put blacksmith work, foundry work, or any extensive metal work into these grades. That should be reserved for the high school. Even wood-turning should not be undertaken until the pupils have become thoroughly familiar with the bench tools; and that point is seldom, if ever, reached before the high school. The work in the seventh and eighth grades should consist of a carefully graded series of exercises and models of such a character as to arouse and hold the interest of the pupils, and the working out of which would involve the principles of joinery and wood-carving. The course should not consist merely of joints, though it ought to include all the more important. When useful articles, pieces of scientific experimental apparatus, or objects that may be ornamented with wood-carving are introduced into the course, the pupils of these grades take a keener interest in their work, make a greater effort, and, consequently, accomplish more than if their labor was expended on a multitude of single joints.

Wood-carving has been too long neglected by teachers of manual training. It has very much to commend it. It is inexpensive to introduce, it is interesting to the pupils, it encourages the study of ornament, it affords

wide opportunity for the application of the design work of free-hand drawing, and, as the chief end in view, gives valuable training through hand and eye. Mechanical drawing, also, should be given in every grade where wood-working is taught.

But in the grammar, as in the lower grades, the question of cost is important. Many grammar schools are not so fortunate as to have a shop and a special teacher. To supply the needs of these, a desk-cover has been designed which takes the place of a bench. It is fastened to the desk in the same manner as the one described for the intermediate grades. The ordinary school desk is a convenient height for a bench to be used by the pupil who occupies it. He may turn up the seat and stand at his work, or may remain seated, according to the demands of the work in hand. The desk, as it resists all pressure downward or forward, need not be injured. Fastening devices may be applied to the desk-cover, enabling the pupil to do many kinds of work to advantage. The tools used are a back saw, two chisels, a knife, a small plane, two or more carving-tools, a try-square, a pair of dividers, a rule, a gauge, a hammer, and a small carver's mallet. A great variety of wood-carving and constructive work may be done with this inexpensive outfit; and any ingenious teacher, under a competent supervisor, can give the instruction, if she will spend a short time in preparation. A teacher good at drawing can, as a rule, very easily take up wood-working.

It seems to the writer of this paper that along the lines he has here suggested must we look for the larger part of the development of the future in manual training. The conditions now existing in the schools of various kinds, in different localities, must be carefully studied; the question of cost must be met and answered, with no evasion of the fact that in many places, when means are considered, manual training is expensive; and courses of study must be devised providing for an uninterrupted development from the kindergarten through the successive grades up to the high school. When these many different phases of the problem have been worked out, then, and not until then, shall we have what will deserve to be characterized as the American system of manual training.

SLOYD AS AN EDUCATIONAL SUBJECT.

BY J. H. TRYBOM, HORACE MANN SCHOOL, BOSTON, MASS.

In a treatise on education, Professor Huxley says: "That man, I think, has had a liberal education, who has been trained in his youth so that his body is the ready servant of his will, and does with ease and pleasure all the work that as a mechanism it is capable of; whose intel-

lect is a clear, cold-logic engine with all its parts of equal strength and in smooth working order; and who has learned to love all beauty, whether of nature or art, to hate vileness, and to respect others as himself." Many deep thinkers on educational subjects, in this as well as in by-gone centuries, have given similar definitions of a liberal education. They have seen the superficialities of their systems of education, and pointed out what education should be; that it is a development of the physical and mental, as well as moral faculties of man. To judge from those definitions, we might suppose manual training to have been in the curriculum of the public schools for several hundred years. Still it is only during the last twenty years that manual training has gradually been recognized as an actual factor of education. If we at present have come to that stage when it is to be put on a level with the purely intellectual studies of our schools, it becomes us to consider what system of manual training is best adapted to fulfill the requirements of a truly liberal education.

At the request of this Association I shall now have the pleasure of presenting to you something of the method and special features of the Swedish sloyd system.

The word "sloyd" is difficult to translate literally into any foreign language. In one of the provincial laws of Sweden, written in the twelfth century, it is used to mean any kind of trade or handiwork. This meaning has been more and more restricted, until the word at present has come to signify merely a system of educational manual training where wood is the material employed.

When the sloyd instruction first was considered in Sweden, it was not so much on account of its educational value, but as an experiment in national economy. From the annual reports sent in to the central government from the different provinces it was evident that the "hem sloyd" (that is, the general sloyd work in the farmers' homes) was disappearing. As Sweden is a country depending mostly on agriculture, it was of importance that the farmers and their help should be able to manufacture for themselves all kinds of domestic articles, which work could be done during the long winter evenings. The falling off of this work was felt to be so serious a loss that in the year 1872 the government granted 2,500 crowns to revive the home industry. This amount was to be used in part for traveling expenses for two civil engineers, already in the employ of the government, who were to lecture on the importance of the home industry, and also to hold classes in certain country parishes a few weeks each year. These classes were meant for young men, and their principal object was to make the pupils skillful artisans. Before long, these promoters of sloyd for its economic value realized that better results could be gained if the boys of the public school received the benefit of the instruction.

But the merit of awakening the interest in manual training in Sweden

does not wholly belong to these economists. Earnest teachers and generous promoters of education were working with the same aim in view; that is, to have a system of manual training taught in the public schools, the latter having its educational value in view. The object of the two was now to combine the sloyd school and public school. But, since the purpose of the public school is to give a general education, this instruction in manual work must be arranged accordingly. The trade carpentry that the economists wished to have could never be introduced into public schools, because every boy was not to be a carpenter. Thus the economists, though succeeding in their effort to have manual training taught in the public school, had lost the control of the instruction, and those who worked for sloyd as an important educational factor decided what methods were to be followed. Nevertheless, this effort of the government to awaken the home industry was an effective help to the introduction of sloyd into the public schools of Sweden. Experiments were now made with different sloyd methods in several schools of the country. But it is chiefly through the earnest work of the Nääs School that the system has been developed to what it is at present. Since its opening, this school has been under the able supervision of Herr Otto Salomon. The sloyd system as taught at Naas is not the outcome of one man's experience and research, but over a thousand teachers have contributed, through discussions and suggestions, to its improvement. The Nääs School, founded in 1872, has trained sloyd teachers from almost every civilized nation. Japan has sent some of its teachers, as well as several of the American States, all anxious to investigate the principles of sloyd and apply them to their respective needs. Two hundred and fifty-nine applications have been received to the course this summer. The school can accommodate about one hundred and ten students. Those that have been admitted to the course represent thirteen different nationalities, the United States having sent eight students.

One of the principles of the sloyd system is that the articles made should be useful in the home. This makes the series of models subject to frequent changes, certain models not being useful at all times or in all countries. Thus, if the Swedish sloyd system is used unchanged in this country, it is against the principles of the system, and consequently no longer sloyd. Experiments of that kind have been tried in several places, but have everywhere, I believe, proved a failure. Such failures can, however, not be attributed to the sloyd system, but rather to a misrepresentation of the same. To follow out the principles of the system, the series of models has to be modified to the needs and conditions of the place of adoption; it is in accordance with these principles that this series of American sloyd models has been arranged. This work of modification has been done by Mr. Gustaf Larsson, principal of the Sloyd Training School, Boston. This method has at present a series of thirty-two models, representing

sixty-nine different exercises. I will here quote a few of the essential rules upon which this series is based :

"1. The exercises should follow in progressive order from the easy to the difficult, from the simple to the complex, without any injurious break, and with such carefully graded demands on the powers of both mind and body that the development of the two shall be simultaneous. This duality of progress is an essential feature of sloyd. It cannot be shown in any course of manual work ; nothing but careful observation of the child's gain of power will show the result aimed at.

"2. The gradation of the models should be such as to put it within the power of the pupil to make an exact copy.

"3. The exercises should admit of the greatest possible variety, in order to guard against any tendency toward too great mental tension or physical strain.

"4. From the very outset the exercises should result, if possible, in the making of an article of use. This arouses and sustains a child's interest in his work, and helps him to understand the reason for each step, for he can see to what these steps are leading. It makes him careful in his work, for he soon learns that poor work will spoil a model which is worth something. The child's self-respect and pride are also touched. He is not only learning to do, but he is actually doing and making. Much of the moral value of sloyd centers in this 'useful' model. Some persons, not knowing its true purpose, have thought that it owed its place in this system to its industrial value only ; but the truth is that the useful model is valued above all for the lesson it teaches and the interest it gives to the work.

"5. Sloyd aims higher even than intellectual development, since it seeks to cultivate the æsthetic sense by combining in the models beauty of form and proportion with utility. In addition to straight and rectangular figures, graceful curves and some carving are introduced. Throughout the system, as in that of the kindergarten, the love of beauty is regarded as an important factor in education.

"6. Every model should be so constructed that it can be drawn by the pupil, not copied or traced.

"7. The work should be of such a character as to admit of the best hygienic conditions, and to counteract, as far as possible, the effect of sedentary occupation."

By "exercise" in sloyd we mean a specific use of a tool. Thus the same tool may be used for different exercises. We call, for instance, surface-planing and bevel-planing different "exercises." The series of models should be carefully graded in regard to these. Every new model should contain at least one, and not more than three, new exercises. The first exercises should be of such a character that the untrained child can readily understand them. For that purpose the fundamental sloyd tool is

the knife. It is a familiar tool to every boy. Its parts and action can easily be understood, and complete articles can be made with the knife alone. Moreover, it gives a rapid development to the muscles of the hand, which will greatly facilitate the use of the unfamiliar tools gradually put into the hands of the pupil. The knife is the least mechanical of tools, demanding the constant concentration of the mind, which fact gives it great educational value. The criticism has been made that the knife is too dangerous a tool. During the last two years I have had an opportunity to teach sloyd to blind pupils, who have used the knife occasionally, making with it penholders and parts of other models; still they have all their fingers left. I believe it perfectly safe to place the knife in the hands of any sloyd pupil, after proper directions as to its use.

The material value of the useful models has seemed so evident that the more important points resulting from the exercises embodied in them have been overlooked. If the series contains a knife-box as a model, it must not be thought that the pupil is required to make it because a knife-box is a useful article to take home, but because the exercises at that stage of the work can be best represented by such a model.

The sloyd system lays great stress upon the advantages of individual instruction. Somebody says that by so doing the work will be two-thirds teacher and one-third pupil. That is a rather severe criticism on the sloyd system. It may refer to the manual or mental activity, or perhaps to both of them. As to the manual part, we follow the principle in sloyd that the teacher never should lay his hands upon the pupils' work. If a certain exercise is to be shown, a separate piece of board is employed. As to the mental part of the work, let us compare class and individual instruction. Lessons given from the platform to the whole class place all the pupils on a fictitious level. The mental stimulus which the teacher aims to give in a class lesson is likely to reach the bright and attentive pupils only; the dull and slow, whose need is the greatest, getting little or no benefit. Or, on the other hand, the temptation to make everything clear leads one to give too much information, so that little independent thought is aroused. The individual instruction, on the other hand, adapted to the powers of the individual, brings forward the mental activity of each child and enlarges the educational value of manual training. However, this ideal form of sloyd instruction has to be somewhat sacrificed when teaching large classes, say about thirty pupils. In such cases class instruction must be given to some extent. The construction and particular features of each model are considered by the whole class at the same time. Class lessons are given with more advantage in drawing, and on the tools, on the wood, and working positions.

The criticism has been made that sloyd is a foreign element, and that it cannot be adapted to American schools. If we read such authors as Felix Adler, Professor Woodward, and some other Americans who have written

on educational manual training, we shall find the sloyd principles clearly defined. Manual training as a means to intellectual training is nothing new, and the sloyd principles may in many respects be attributed to America as well as to Sweden. What we have to learn from the Swedish sloyd system is how to adapt those principles. But as this adaptation is done according to general educational ideas, the so-called foreign element in sloyd should entirely disappear if the system is successfully modified to the conditions of this country, making it an American system based upon the same universal educational principles.

Drawing is an essential feature of the American sloyd system. The execution of a working drawing should always be preliminary to the making of the model. By working drawing, in connection with sloyd, we mean a simple mechanical drawing giving all the dimensions necessary for the construction of the model, and such views as are needed to show all its different parts. For this grade of drawing it has been found clearest to the children to employ the names of top view, front view, etc., instead of horizontal and vertical projections, giving the views the positions their names indicate. The drawing may be done in the sloyd room, a block of paper and T-square being all that is required in addition to the ordinary bench tools. The models are more strictly arranged as to the tool exercises, and the progression in drawing alone may in some have to be sacrificed. The difficulties in bench work and drawing differ greatly. For instance, a cube is very easily drawn, but it is one of the hardest models to execute in wood. Still it has been the endeavor, in arranging this series, to arrange the bench work and drawing, as far as possible, in progressive order.

This course is arranged for the four upper classes of the grammar schools, or for children between the ages of eleven and fifteen years. I now wish to call your attention to the models, and this chart showing the arrangement of the exercises, the tools and the drawing. (Explanation of the exercises.) This American modification of the sloyd system has been successfully tried in the public schools of Boston and several other schools in this country. As a conclusion, I wish to quote some remarks upon these experiments.

The last report of the superintendent of public schools of Boston gives some of the masters' opinions on sloyd. One of them says on the subject: "I heartily approve of the manual work. It is educational and disciplinary, and I think it has a moral influence, as the results present an object-lesson in wrong or right doing. In my judgment, the pupils accomplish as much intellectually as they would if the whole time were employed in the regular studies. Teachers approve of it, pupils enjoy it, only one boy out of ninety-four says, 'I don't like it.'" Another master says: "In this district the experiment of teaching sixty pupils at one time in sloyd has been successfully tried. Only the first sloyd models

have been tried so far, and so it is too soon to declare that so large a number can be continued through the course, but the present indications favor the opinion that it will be a success in the end." At the graduating exercises of the Sloyd Training School, Mr. Seaver, superintendent of public schools of Boston, said: "I hope the time soon will come when every boy in this city will receive instruction in sloyd."

BUSINESS EDUCATION: ITS PLACE IN THE AMERICAN CURRICULUM.

BY S. S. PACKARD, NEW YORK CITY, N. Y.

It is estimated that twenty-two and a half per cent. of the entire population of the country are in its schools—of all grades. Of this number ninety-four per cent. are in the elementary schools, five per cent. in the secondary, and one per cent. in the highest grade, which includes colleges and universities. These figures do not include evening schools, schools of art, of manual and industrial training, trade schools, business colleges, etc. According to the report of the Commissioner of Education there are in attendance upon the business colleges of the country over 75,000 pupils, and in the literary colleges or colleges of art, 126,854. As the average time of attendance upon the business colleges is about seven months, and upon the literary colleges four years, it may be said, roughly, that the number of pupils who enter the business colleges is five times that of those who enter the literary colleges. I place these two institutions in juxtaposition, not for the purpose of exalting the one or of degrading the other, but because, in relation to their constituency, they hold the common ground of being finishing schools. The graduate of the literary college passes out of his *alma mater* into his life-work, and the graduate of the business college does the same. The one enters upon the duties of a profession, it may be; the other, into business—each, as I must assume, equally prepared for the work which comes directly to his hand.

The place of the literary college in the American curriculum is pretty clearly defined, and I have undertaken, in the small space given me, to define that of the business college; for I must assume at the start that by "business education" is meant the body of learning comprised in the prescribed course of the business college as it is known to-day.

I speak of a "prescribed course" of the business college with all the limitations that the case may admit, fully aware, as I am, that it would be difficult to state in exact terms what this course is; and knowing, also, that where schools are wholly independent of each other, and are subject

to no general supervision, they will differentiate according to the ability or the individuality of their managers, and more especially according to the demands of the community in which they are. Inasmuch, however, as business schools have grown up to supply a particular want, and inasmuch as that want has come to be well understood, and is mainly the same in all parts of the country, it has come to pass that, whatever may be the methods adopted in the different schools to secure results, there is very little difference of opinion as to the results themselves.

And it is well to state here, that, while the business college has grown to be a separate and recognized institution, having its particular work and filling its particular sphere, it has attained to this distinction entirely through its fidelity to the public needs; and, more than this, it has made its own place by doing its special work better than it had previously been done in existing schools, and better than it could possibly be done in schools of general culture.

And this is a good place to say that the business college does not rob the elementary school, nor the secondary school, nor the literary college, but draws its support from those who would otherwise consider their education complete.

The constituency of the business college is mainly of those who have finished the grammar school or the boarding school, and have no thought of entering the higher institutions. They average about eighteen years of age, and their principal anxiety is to get into business. Some of them, indeed, would be glad even to get rid of the year's study which we offer them, and take it only as the sick man takes medicine—because it is good for them, and because they know that they cannot well do without it. It thus becomes the duty as well as the interest of the business college to make this last school year something more than a sugar-coated pill—to make it, in fact, the great school year of the student's life. And here, again, comes the forced comparison between the business college and the literary college. They are both the open doors upon the great unknown future, but they both—each in its own way—seek to make this future as little unknown as possible, and, in any event, to put the outgoing student into healthful relations with it. Horace Greeley once said that there were two thousand college graduates walking the stony streets of New York, unable to find employment for lack of education; and Mr. Carnegie has emphasized this arraignment by speaking of the "total absence of college graduates from every department of business affairs."

The position of neither of these eminent men is against education as such, but against that form of education that does not fit the possessor to do the work that lies before him. Mr. Greeley would have supplemented his remark by saying that if any one of these two thousand unemployed and unemployable college graduates had included in his col-

lege education a practical knowledge of book-keeping, or of the things required to be done in the stores or shops, he might have been able at least to earn enough to pay his board while waiting for something which might better suit his superior attainments. But Mr. Carnegie would probably say that the great mistake of the young man, if he desired to get on, was in going to college at all; that, on the other hand, he should have left school at fourteen, and taken his place at the foot of the ladder as the only reasonable way to the top. When Mr. Carnegie says that "the college graduate has not the slightest chance, entering at twenty, against the boy who swept the office, or who began as shipping-clerk at fourteen," he has in mind simply the means by which fortunes are made. And yet he does not necessarily inveigh against education; for, in spite of the untoward experiences of his own life, the world classes him with its educated men. And the world is right.

The difficulty of discussing this question fairly, or so that its points will force conviction, is that in estimating the effect or the tendency of education we are inclined to overrate the processes which have been potent in our own lives, and to underrate all other processes. Mr. Carnegie, for instance, is not only a successful man, as the world measures success, but he is an educated man, and has become so not by the grace of the colleges, but by the grace of an earnest, aggressive mind applied to the problems of business and of life. And, as he finds himself able to cope with the college graduate in discussing these great issues, it is natural that he should conclude that the college training was not necessary to him; in fact, that the time which such training would have required was more profitably spent in the educational methods which he pursued, and which are not prescribed by the schools. In other words, that there is more than one way to get an education.

The same difficulty we are apt to encounter in presenting the advantages of business education. The business man or the accountant who has attained to distinction in his line without the preliminary school training is apt to think such training unnecessary, simply because the processes of his own acquirements are distinct in his mind, and are logical and satisfactory. The road which lies behind him seems so open, clear, and direct, that it is hard for him to conceive that another road might have been more so.

It might be difficult, even, to prove to Mr. Carnegie that a good share of that available knowledge which he wields with so much force in upsetting an adversary might have been obtained from teachers and text-books with much less labor and in a more logical form than by digging it out piecemeal through experience. I will not repeat in support of my position the old copy-book adage, "Experience is a dear school, but fools will learn in no other," for it would not apply to this case. I will say, however, that, while chance education may sometimes be effective, it cannot be

relied upon with safety to do prescribed work; and that, although the education of environment is a thing to be considered, it is mainly that its errors and disadvantages may be counteracted by direct and positive means.

No department of education, no effort in education, can proceed on other lines than those of conscious means to a desired end; and the value of all such efforts will depend upon the wisdom used in directing the means. Wisdom of this sort comes mainly by experience, and when this experience is sharpened and intensified by self-interest the conditions are fair for hopeful results.

The business colleges of America are the outcome of forty years of faithful work—some of it perhaps feebly, but all of it earnestly, done. They are, without exception, private and unendowed institutions, established as a business and conducted with a view to securing and holding patronage. They have had to fight against serious opposition, if not prejudice—some of which, no doubt, has been the result of their own shortcomings, and some, I am free to say, of extravagant promises founded on the illimitable hope which characterizes American optimism. But they have kept on uninterruptedly, and have continued to grow in strength and importance, until they no longer have to render an excuse for being, but rather have as much as they can do to fulfill the expectations and the confidence which they have inspired.

The following extract from the last report of the Commissioner of Education will fairly illustrate this difficulty: "The increase of the business colleges of the country has kept pace with the increase of population and with the growth of the business enterprises during the last ten years. Improvements have also been made in the course of study and in the manner of preparing pupils for the responsible positions they seek to fill after leaving or graduating from the institution. Most of the colleges give the student practical knowledge of how business is transacted in the large cities—in banking, in insurance, in real estate, and in commercial houses. If the student is far enough advanced in mathematics and in English, very little attention is given to text-books. In the college building are found the college bank, with its president and board of directors, cashier and tellers; the jobbing house and the commission house, and the real-estate and insurance offices. The student before finishing his course is required to act as paying teller, receiving teller, discount clerk, shipping clerk, salesman, cashier, and bookkeeper. He buys and sells, makes deposits, draws checks, and sustains the same general relation to the college bank and to the jobbing house that is held by a merchant in the great business world. He is also given instruction in the *modus operandi* of the insurance office, and is taught by the real-estate broker how to estimate the increased value of real estate by the increase of population and by the laws of supply and demand. As the business of the

country has enlarged, the knowledge of commercial law, of commercial calculations, and of the tariff laws of different nations, has become a necessity ; and business men are coming to demand a thorough practical education in all these branches before employing young men as their business assistants. The education of the business man in all that appertains to business life is as essential as the education of the professional man in all that appertains to professional life. His attainments, his powers, and his manhood are laid under contribution, and without a thorough and practical business education he is like a ship at sea without a compass or rudder. When students were taught only the theories of business, and were given only an indistinct outline of business forms, and the merchant found them unable to do the work of the office, his conclusions were that business colleges could not, or did not, educate them properly for active business life. These objections have been met in a practical manner by the introduction of practical business departments in the institutions, and by the employment of intelligent teachers who were once active business men, having a practical knowledge of business forms. The apprenticeship system has passed away, and with it the prejudices against, and the ignorance of, a business education in a business college."

I am sure every conscientious business-college teacher will feel a degree of gratitude toward the Commissioner for this glowing picture of our work ; and whatever mental reservations he may have as to the completeness with which this programme is carried out in all the schools, he will have none whatever as to the earnestness of purpose which actuates the work, or as to the fidelity with which the demands of the business community are met. There is nothing here mentioned that is not within the possibility of the business college, and nothing which is not carried out in the foremost institutions. The only drawback which any college has lies in the character of its constituency and the necessary limitations of its course of study. In the commercial schools of Europe—especially in those of France and Belgium, and possibly of Germany, where under government patronage the course of study extends to three years—all that is here claimed, and much more in various directions, can be and is accomplished. In these countries the commercial schools are not so strictly professional as they are in America, and take the place of the secondary and technical schools. Besides, there is not the insane desire to rush into business, and the insane grasping for immediate wealth, which characterize Young America ; hence, the limitations which restrict our work are not encountered. Much as I might be inclined to exalt the work of the business college of America, and to proclaim its importance in the American curriculum, I must be true to facts ; and the facts are, that taking these institutions as they are now, and as they have been for the past twenty years, with an average limitation of the course to seven or eight months and an average limitation of age to eighteen years, the fullest

requirements of a sound and broad education lie in the future development of our work rather than its present realization.

There is very little danger, however, of exaggerating the practical benefits of what is known as business practice in the commercial schools, or of the general grasp of business which can be and is secured by intelligent students through the exercises now in use in the best colleges; and the Commissioner is clearly right in his statement that the improvements which have been made in the course of study during the past few years have removed most of the objections which formerly existed as to the superficiality of the instruction given. And, beyond this, there is no class of schools in which can be more practically and effectively taught the great lessons of contact with the business world through the introduction of exercises which train the mind and quicken the apprehension. It must not be lost sight of that the great work of the business college is to prepare its students for immediate service as clerks, bookkeepers, stenographers, etc., and to put them upon their duties while they are still young and inexperienced. And yet much can be done, and much is done, to improve the mind in a general way, and to fit the student for contact with men and things. Take, for instance, the matter of expression. The best business colleges to-day are introducing into their curricula, and enforcing with excellent results, the practice of extemporaneous speaking; and the results of this practice have been notable in the way of enlarging the mental grasp, making the student more self-reliant and manly, and giving a practical value to all that he acquires. Leading directly out of this practice, and as a part of it, comes the organization of public bodies, the study and application of parliamentary rules, and the orderly pursuit of information relating to public men and public questions, and to the great enterprises which characterize the age.

With all the limitations as to age and time of attendance upon the school, the teachers do not lose sight of the fact that the graduate of the business college must venture out into the world with the equipments which are here secured; and hence, whatever is deemed of use to him in pushing his advantages and in taking his place as a business man and a citizen should, as far as possible, be given him.

There is no call to concede the ground to Mr. Carnegie, that in order to succeed in business a boy must begin at fourteen without an education, and depend upon the accidental opportunities for culture which may come to him in his contact with business men and business affairs. The business college can well afford to wait for its students until they shall have mastered the ordinary grammar-school course, have been fairly proficient in mathematics and English, and have a mind somewhat matured by years and study. At the age of seventeen, a young man with the ordinary advantages of the preparatory schools should be able, with the course of instruction now given in the best business colleges, to take a position quite

in advance of the fourteen-year-old boy who, in Mr. Carnegie's language, "starts at the bottom of the ladder." He is even then young enough to work into the spirit and customs of the house which employs him; not too old even to begin at the bottom of the ladder; nor yet too feeble to ascend its rounds with strength and purpose and with sufficient speed. A year of careful instruction under competent teachers, in the very things he will have to use in a business house, will lay a much better foundation for his real progress than could be picked up by rubbing against the boxes and barrels of even a progressive business house. And a somewhat extended and careful observation has taught us that promotions under these circumstances have been not only rapid, but sure; so that to-day the intelligent business men in our large cities, instead of attempting to rob anxious families of their fourteen-year-old boys in order to bring them up in the business, are quite willing to look for their supply of clerks and future partners to the accredited business colleges, feeling sure that, whatever may be the limitation of their study, the things they have learned, even if only fairly well, being in the direct line of their future duties, will be no drawback to them, either as to their immediate work or their prospective advancement. And one very suggestive reason for this exists in the fact that a large share of the managing business men in our principal cities are themselves graduates of business colleges, and are thus competent to judge of their work.

Enough has been said to show that the business college does not limit the work of the elementary and secondary schools, nor does it interfere with the higher departments of learning, but that it aims to make effective all previous education, while giving it form and attaching it in a most direct and positive way to the real work of life. Whatever else is done for the student in the way of general culture along the lines suggested in the Commissioner's report, the essentials are not neglected. First of all, he is made to write a business hand of such quality as to give him immediate access to the merchant's books of records and to do the work of correspondence. So far as the science of bookkeeping can be taught, it is here taught, and with such a variety of illustrations and forms as will enable the student to comprehend the most intricate entries, and to adapt his theoretical knowledge, with very little practice, to any department of record. He is made proficient in commercial arithmetic to whatever extent is required, and is specially trained in rapid processes and correct results. He secures a sufficient knowledge of commercial law to enable him to make contracts, to deal in commercial paper, and to avoid the penalties of ignorance in contact with business customs.

The text-books used in these schools, all of which are specially prepared therefor, will compare favorably with those in other departments of study. They have grown up to fill a known want, and lack none of the requirements to that end.

It would not be out of place to speak here of the character of the teachers now engaged in business college work, a large proportion of whom are graduates of literary colleges, and are men of experience and good standing among educators. Added to these, as indicated in the Commissioner's report, are men who have had extended experience in business, and know its manifold requirements. It is doubtful, indeed, if in any other schools in the country there can be found so large a proportion of thorough, practical educators; and they find ready employment for all their gifts and all their sympathies.

The thing which most interests the student is the busy life that lies before him, and the more forcibly he is brought in contact with that life, the more he feels that he is being educated for his work. This view is shared by the business college teacher, and one of the most interesting and aggressive exercises of the school is in making a personal study of great business enterprises. A question comes up, for instance, touching journalism, or the making of newspapers. Everybody has some idea how newspapers are made, though they may not have learned how not to read them; but the real work required to produce a daily paper is so little known by the ordinary person, that a chance to investigate the methods is readily seized upon. Arrangements are made for such an investigation, and a body of intelligent and gentlemanly students selected to do the work. The duties are divided so as to save time and fix responsibility. One person takes up the general arrangement of the offices and their relation to each other, with such a view of the enterprise as would strike an ordinary observer; another investigates the methods of setting and distributing the type, and the mechanical devices which modern science has contributed to the preparation of the matter to be printed; another investigates the press room, and notes the workings of the ponderous machinery, the method of handling forms, and all the interesting matter which that department furnishes; another visits the editorial department and collects information as to the methods of obtaining and preparing the news, as also the conduct of the editorial and literary work; another may be permitted to look into the financial management of the paper, to learn its sources of revenue, and how it prospers by supplying the people what they like to read. And so all the peculiarities of the establishment are gathered, under conditions which make the knowledge acquired reliable, the whole serving as an object-lesson in education. The preparation of these separate reports to be presented to the school is a valuable exercise, and is likely to impress the facts upon the mind much more vividly than could be done by books or lectures. I give this as a single illustration, leaving the imagination to supply the endless opportunities which a busy community affords for such exercises.

Another admirable exercise is the selecting of some subject of interest; one, for instance, that is claiming public attention and is being discussed

in the papers and in the family. The teacher makes himself conversant with all sides of the question, intensifying his knowledge by reference to books, newspapers, magazine articles, public addresses, etc., and brings it up for discussion in his classes. The more intelligent students will have become sufficiently interested in the question to have positive opinions concerning it, and will be only too glad of the opportunity to ventilate their ideas and to add to their knowledge. It is an easy matter to secure attention to a subject that is uppermost in the public mind; such, for instance, as the political situation, the management of great enterprises, the abuses of municipal power, etc. An important part of education is to know where to look for things; and the wide-awake teacher not only puts his students to this ordeal, but assists them as best he can, pointing out the books and periodicals where the best information can be obtained. And when the matter has been thoroughly discussed in the classes, and the ordinary means exhausted, he calls in from the outside some intelligent and eminent expert, who gives a graceful conclusion to the investigation by an hour's talk to the assembled class, and a submission to such inquiries as may be drawn out.

These are the days of clubs and after-dinner speaking. Great public questions are now being discussed in this festive way, much more pleasantly and quite as effectively as hitherto from the pulpit and the rostrum. And the hint thus given has not been lost upon the business colleges, but is being improved in the establishment of clubs for cementing friendships and pursuing knowledge under favorable auspices. In this way the practice of speaking is encouraged, and the best interests of society are promoted in untrammeled expressions of opinion upon vital topics.

I am drawing no fancy picture of what might possibly be done in business colleges, but am simply stating what is being done; and I am doing this with a view to placing these institutions where they should stand in the American curriculum. It may be said that the business college has no patent on these methods, and that they are quite within the province of other schools, and as well adapted to their genius. I will simply say that the very constituency of the business college renders this sort of exercise eminently in its line. Keeping in view this constituency, and the fact that an education, to be effective and lasting, must be greatly outside of books, it is doubtful if in any other class of schools these devices can be as readily enforced, or the results secured so sure and lasting.

I am aware that in thus circumscribing our work I shall meet with some protest on the part of my co-workers, to many of whom its possibilities extend over a much greater area than I have given. The time may come when the business colleges can secure a wider patronage, and do effectively some of the work already accomplished by the elementary and secondary schools; but I have always felt that the mission which seems so providentially placed in our hands is so clearly defined, so positive, and withal so

beneficent, that we can afford to wait for our expansion, above and below, until we have more fully met the expectations which we have inspired, and have a clearer indication that the work to which we might aspire is suffering in other hands.

It is not necessary to say that until the business colleges took in hand the work which is theirs, of supplying the great demand for clerks and stenographers, that work was very poorly done, if done at all; and it should be some satisfaction for us to know that through our efforts the business community has been served with a far better class of assistants, and that the promotion of young men and young women through our help has been not only more rapid, but more beneficent and permanent.

It has been the privilege of the business college to supplement the education received from the elementary schools, and to supply much of that practical knowledge which could only have been obtained through the hardest experience in business. Its special work is a work that cannot be so well done in schools of general culture, and is besides a kind of work that the world wants done.

I will then say briefly, in conclusion :

First, That the place of business education in the American curriculum is a positive, clearly defined place.

Second, That, with all the temptations which have beset its promoters to enlarge its area so as to invade other fields, it has kept within its proper limits as a distinct educational enterprise, seeking only to extend its work by making it more practical and more efficient.

Third, Its great mission is to supplement the training received in other schools, and to supply a professional training which cannot otherwise be supplied; and, beyond this, to send out into the business world well-equipped men and women who will not only fit into their places, but will adorn and magnify them by helping to elevate the standards of business and ennoble its pursuits.

Fourth, While its chief end is to supply the world with an educated class of accountants and stenographers, it seeks also to make better citizens by dignifying labor and stimulating patriotism.

Fifth, While it makes no pretense to culture as such, it seeks to avoid mechanical methods, and to invest its studies with the philosophical spirit which looks to the ultimate end as well as to present results.

Sixth, The graduates sent out by the business colleges are not supposed to be ready the next day to displace experienced men in the management of large enterprises, but are quite satisfied to begin at the bottom and work up by degrees to the high places in the world to which their accomplishments and their virtues entitle them.

MANUAL TRAINING IN NEW YORK CITY SCHOOLS.

DR. PAUL HOFFMAN, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT, NEW YORK CITY.

At the best, it is a difficult matter to judge even approximately, by a trial of seven terms, of the efficacy, not to speak of a possibility, of a new course of study, planned to extend in its entirety over at least fifteen terms.

The difficulty is necessarily augmented by a passive apathy, not to say active antipathy, on the part of some few teachers, to any change from an established and tried course of study. They (and particularly the older ones) are unwilling to begin anew, and either to learn new subjects or handle the old ones in a new way.

Few if any teachers in the city of New York were familiar with the new method when it was introduced; and the special teachers, those who took charge of the work-shops, were young men fresh from college, while those who taught sewing and cooking were without any experience whatever in a public school. The brunt of the work therefore fell upon the regular class teachers, but at the same time these were ably supported by the few special teachers who were employed.

The appropriation made for the experiment was not large, and the experience necessary for choosing the proper tools and articles, to make sure of the economic side of the question, was lacking. Added to this came the prejudices of the pupils or their parents, engendered and fostered in many cases by teachers who had no mind for the innovation. It was widely reported, for example, that skin diseases were propagated by the handling of clay; while, to the even half-educated mind, clay is known to be one of the very best antiseptics. It was said that boys and girls, instead of getting a "school education," were taught to be carpenters, or seamstresses and cooks—a proposition as false as it was absurd.

Indeed, there prevailed, and, in the great school-world outside of manual training, still prevails, the erroneous idea that the so-called old branches have been clipped and curtailed to within the utmost limits, and in their stead new studies such as paper folding and cutting, clay-modeling, splint-work and form-study, historical and geographical map-making, mechanical drawing, shop-work, sewing, and cooking have been added.

This is emphatically not the case, although it seems to be a very difficult matter to make clear, to those who have not made the trial, that the time in reality has not been curtailed at all, but that, on the contrary, a great deal is saved by the employment of rational, time-saving methods; by the development of spontaneous thought in the children themselves, instead of the often misdirected hammerings of old-time teachers.

It should be emphasized that manual training really means not the training of the hand alone, but the employment of all the senses which

reach the seat of understanding, instead of two only, those of hearing and seeing; touch, smell, and taste have been added as additional perceptive channels to the nervous center.

There are to this day those who look upon manual training as industrial in its tendency rather than educational. It has taken much time and more trouble, and it will take a great deal more of both, to dispel this fallacy. To convince thinkers to consider it not in its industrial but its purely educational and pedagogically utilitarian aspects is the watchword of the hour. Teaching boys and girls a trade, though highly important in itself, is not one of the duties of the State as it is now constituted, and, unless it be so considered, such teaching should not be forced upon any community through the portals of the public school. In other large cities manual training is not made the means, the stepping-stone, but the finishing touch, the coping-stone of education, almost invariably in the high school. This course seems to us short-sighted. If the co-education of all the senses be a good thing anywhere, it is a good thing everywhere, in all the grades from the kindergarten, through the grammar and high school, to the college laboratory and the university observatory. What should be aimed at throughout is continuous, practical development, and this cannot be accomplished with the masses when only a few favored boys or girls, those who reach the high school, derive the practical part of it, and the great bulk of the people, those indeed whom it ought to reach most surely and thoroughly, go on in the old way of acquiring knowledge by ear and perhaps by eye, instead of having it transmitted to their consciousness by all available means and channels. To build the educational structure of only the comparatively few favored children with dry and musty bricks in a shape of facts held together by a more or less unreliable memory-mortar, and to embellish this structure by rearing a bell-tower of manual training over it to extol the excellence of the whole, is not psychologically rational. Each educational brick used in the grand structure of moral and mental development should be laid in a trowelful of common-sense, manual training cement, to bind together every particle from foundation to weathercock into a harmonious, well-rounded, beautiful tower of strength, fitted and able to withstand the blasts of social and political storms that sooner or later must assail it. Such a structure, we of New York, or at least some of us, are trying to build, feeling well assured that boys and girls brought up in such a house at once understand the dignity of labor together with the dignity of mind, productive as they are of love of home and country, and above all things the sacred sense of duty toward their fellowmen. Naught but the emblem of law and liberty could find lodgment on the flagstaff of such a building, and the red flag of discontent and lawlessness could never wave over a community which has been reared to be physically, morally, and intellectually clean.

It is conceded that some schools, by hard work, and great but wisely

restricted enthusiasm, have mastered all the grades as they are prescribed by the course of study, though no child who has entered the primary course is higher than the fifth grammar grade. Still, in no sense can any of these classes be compared with those which must come, when the instruction has been progressive throughout all the grades, without undue pressure or interruption whatever.

It is also true that the work of some schools has attained such a degree of excellence, that it is hard to see how either betterment in the character of the work or a greater advance in the studies can be secured; but this is readily explained by the fact that, to both teachers and scholars, the subject was new, and, therefore, more interesting than the well-known and well-worn topics of the old course. In the college examinations, at both male and female colleges, at which pupils from all schools are examined impartially on the same papers, there is not only no sign of falling off in standing, but a degree of advance, gratifying in the extreme, inasmuch as particularly the intellectual studies have gained.

To the question, "Is manual training a success?" the answer has come, and the verdict is: there can be no doubt that, so far as human ken can penetrate and probability can be relied upon, the experiment is not only a success, but a surprise to all thinking people who have taken the trouble to inform themselves on the subject. Only those who do not see, or who do not wish to see, can remain skeptical as to the real value of the change in the mode of instruction. There are none so blind as those who will not see.

President Gilman, of Johns Hopkins University, the founder of the Sheffield Scientific School at Yale, a man whose name it is a pleasure to mention here as a leader of thought and inquiry, speaks of the work done in the New York manual training schools as a "revelation"; General Armstrong, of the Hampton School, an institution with not only a national but universal reputation, says that "it does not seem possible that so much could be done in a public school"; Commissioner McNeill of Boston, sent by Governor Russell of Massachusetts, a State that seriously thinks of introducing manual training into all the State schools, says, after visiting New York and many other large cities, that the subject, as taught in the former place, is handled with greater care, more intelligence, and a higher degree of far-reaching pedagogic value than elsewhere; the committee of seven of the Board of Education, after many visits to other cities, and mature deliberation thereon, reports that "manual training has come to stay," and recommends its extension; the doughty, enlightened little State across the Hudson has adopted manual training bodily; City Superintendent Jasper, of New York, expresses his opinion that the experiment has been "eminently successful" (approbation from Sir Hubert Stanley is praise indeed); and, finally, I call upon these silent but impressively eloquent witnesses, which hang from the walls and weigh down the tables, to lift their all-powerful voices to utter

a word of cheer, for this is, perhaps, the proper place and time to say that word of cheer and appreciation to the teachers who have carried on the work, and more than half solved the problem of the co-education of the hand and mind.

Without previous special preparation, they faithfully met week after week for years, listened to such counsel and advice as could be given to them by the assistant superintendent, who was in charge of the work, compared experiences, and made such use of the mutual aid they received by these conferences, that at the present time many have become and are recognized as experts in manual training. Without their ready, loyal, and hearty support, results might indeed have been different; yet, in spite of ridicule from without and semi-suppressed skepticism from within, they patiently bore and are bearing the brunt of the experiment, which is destined very materially to aid in the great forward movement in practical pedagogics. They are entitled to hearty appreciation and thanks for past and future services.

The exhibit which you see here is not an exhibit properly speaking. A single week in the busiest time of the scholastic year, the period of promotions, receptions, and commencements, sufficed to bring together from the closets and shelves of the different grammar schools the work here shown. No *preparation,* no *show-work,* no *extra effort* has been made. We have written upon our banners the glorious motto, "Be able to do, not to show"; and this highly creditable "showing" is no showing at all, but only a fair sample of what we can do and are doing every day, not what we might do if called upon to make a special effort. The space here allotted for an exhibit is too small, and the inconveniences of transportation without an appropriation so great, that in the nature of events but little can be shown, and we prefer to say: Come to New York and see what we are doing.

The movement was set on foot in February, 1888, when eight departments ventured upon the new order of things. Since then, accessions have come from all over the city, so that now, in round numbers, forty departments, with five hundred teachers and twenty-two thousand pupils, are engaged in the work. I will leave the special subjects—the shop, kitchen, and clay-work—to take care of themselves for the present, most excellent results having been brought about universally, and will merely mention how the so-called old subjects have been affected by the new methods.

It should be borne in mind that the children themselves do what I shall endeavor to show, and not merely the teacher. The object-lesson thus becomes really a true object-lesson; the children do not only see, but handle objects themselves, and endeavor not only to make them, but to improve upon them by bringing their inventive faculties into action. I shall be happy to confer with all or any people after the time allotted to me has expired.

PROCEEDINGS AND ADDRESSES

OF THE

DEPARTMENT OF ART.

ART DEPARTMENT.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

WEDNESDAY, July 13.

THE Department met in Congregational Church, Henry Street, President Collins in the chair.

In the absence of Secretary Poor, Walter F. Brackett was appointed Secretary *pro tem.*

First paper: President's Address.

Second paper: "The Manual Training Side of Drawing," by W. B. Powell, Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D. C.

Discussion.

Third paper: "Art Instruction in Normal Schools." Elizabeth Helen Perry, Normal School, Bridgewater, Mass.

Discussion followed.

The president appointed the following Nominating Committee: Hon. Warren P. Easton, New Orleans, chairman; Miss Mary J. Dwyer, Rochester; Robert Beggs, Denver, Col.; Miss Elizabeth H. Perry, Bridgewater, Mass.; Arthur O. Jones, Cincinnati; E. C. Colby, Rochester; and Walter Brackett, Cambridge, Mass.; the committee to make its report Friday afternoon at 2 o'clock.

ROUND TABLE.

THURSDAY, July 14.

The members of the Department met at the same place at 3 P.M., and held an interesting Round Table discussion.

FRIDAY, July 15.

Meeting called to order at 2.30 in same place.

The Nominating Committee reported the following nominations for the ensuing year:

For President: Christine Sullivan, of Cincinnati, Ohio.

For Vice-President: E. C. Colby, of Rochester, N. Y.

For Secretary: Elizabeth H. Perry, of Bridgewater, Mass.

Voted: That the Secretary cast one ballot for nominations, to be considered as the vote of the Department. And they were declared elected.

First paper: "Art Instruction in Public Schools," by Superintendent Aaron Gove, Denver, Col.

Discussion followed.

Second paper: "The Aim of Art Instruction in Public Schools," by Christine Sullivan, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Discussion followed.

Adjourned.

WALTER F. BRACKETT, *Secretary pro tem.*

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

FRANK H. COLLINS.

EDUCATORS are never tired of telling us that the chief value of public school work is in the training, mental and moral, that it affords. There is perhaps no gainsaying this. But, like all truths that are subject to so much unchallenged iteration, it seems liable to the danger of over-statement. Since this has become the shibboleth of a class, the very zeal with which it is insisted upon seems to carry with it the notion, that, in securing general training, the special must of necessity go to the wall. Yet there is such a thing as even reading a newspaper well. The ability to do this naturally and understandingly is of itself well worthy of attainment outside all questions of general training. Achieving this accomplishment in specialization will I hardly think be found to interfere seriously with any general results. Obedience, application, mental alertness, all the mental and moral qualities that are sought, can as readily follow from doing a thing as well as it *can* be done, as by doing it well enough.

And so when it comes to drawing—or art education perhaps would be better—we should insist upon the qualities peculiar to it. Make the study of it as much as possible an effort in specialization. But, even from the point of view of general training only, the study of art has high claims to consideration. As much if not more can be got from it, in the way of general training, than from the study of either languages or mathematics. In fact, no other single subject is capable of training the mental faculties to the same extent. Only let it be gone at understandingly, intelligently. Let the pupil acquire as much of the technique as he can. Have one eye on art as art, for its own sake, and do not fear the general results aimed at will suffer in consequence.

Why is it when an artist—not a painter or sculptor merely, but perhaps a designer of wall paper or carpets—is asked about the art study in public schools, he hastens to change the subject? Ask the average young man fresh from the schools about drawing, or art if you choose, and you will find he has little to say, and, what is more, the thing does not interest him. He would be stumped if asked to make with a pencil a representation of a simple object, say a street corner or a passing figure; and to originate an illustration for a story, that might pass even for beginners' work, would be away beyond him. True, he is full of theories. He knows that "the highest beauty in nature is realized only when it is perceived that the various objects in nature are fashioned upon certain type forms." He has a keen appreciation of the beautiful, too—or he should have. But what of the art about him in the world outside of the schoolroom, the art not found in the text-book? Does he know anything of it? An

example: The illustrations in the different monthly magazines. These illustrations are cheap, true: for the price of a magazine quite a number can be had. Nevertheless, they are the best thing in art America has produced so far, and because of their cheapness it is not too much to suppose that our student, who is studying art, should know something about them.

But does an illustration by Abbey pass for anything but a "picture" to our young artist? The art in the thing—this illustration—has his attention been called to it? Did it ever occur to him, or even to his teacher, that this picture had a higher value than its original use as an illustration to a text? Does our pupil even know what a pen drawing is, or a wash drawing? Did he ever try to make either? Abbey, Reinhart, Smedley, Gibson, Kemble—are these names familiar to him? I am afraid not. The fact is, our pupil has but a vague idea that drawing can be turned to practical account, while of art in any higher sense he has not even the faintest conception. Its meaning, scope, purpose, are as far from his understanding as the fixed stars. Such results seem hardly commensurate with the energy expended by our leading educational talkers. With such a state of things in mind, one will not perhaps go far wrong in suggesting any change from the present striving-after-the-unattainable system of teaching generally in vogue. We can remedy these defects by insisting on greater specialization—the greatest possible within the time and conditions. Make the pupil as much of a draughtsman as circumstances will permit. Teach him to see clearly, if you can. Make him understand that drawing is merely a matter of analysis, and the mental alertness and clearness of perception that will follow this could hardly be attained so easily in any other way. Above all, be assured that the ability to suggest a simple object on paper, by whatever means, will never interfere with essential things.

This matter of means brings us to another weakness of the present generally accepted system. A pupil who has gone through a drawing-book "course" gets an idea that it is impossible to draw with anything but a No. 2 pencil and a piece of white paper. He is also impressed with the notion that everything to be a drawing should be in outline; yet outline is the poorest, most conventional, least adequate method of suggesting the appearance of any object, even in the hands of a master. Our pupils should understand that, in any drawing worthy the name, the matter of material is of slight importance. Whether you use a two-inch brush loaded with lead and ocher, or a crow-quill pen dipped in ink, does not matter. The artistic result will depend on mental perception and not on wrist work. In other words, drawing or art work is a purely mental process. If you can see a thing, you can draw it. The trouble is that few ever see anything. There are people to-day who are looking at life in Denver through the eyes of Dumas. To be sure, we hear much about the

ennobling power of art by people who in their hearts prefer chromos. But there is little real understanding of any art. It should be one of the aims of the public school teaching to remedy this defect. The pupil who can begin to appreciate the worth of a drawing by Abbey has enlarged his perceptions to an extent that few can even appreciate. Such a result can only be accomplished by making the aims of the public school work in art approximate as closely as possible to Abbey's aims. Let a pupil even realize that he is learning the rudiments of a language that is capable of such results, and it would be much. The present work is rather away from such possibilities. Naturally enough our pupils get the idea that public school drawing is one thing, the drawing of artists something different—something vague, mysterious, and not to be comprehended. The one ends with book No. 8 of the course; the other—well, the other is not safe to meddle with.

In addition to making the pupil as much of an artist as the conditions allow, it would be well to interest artists in the public school work, and as far as possible make an effort to keep the practical art work of the world in touch with the work of the schools. Accustomed to think of drawing as something merely formal and meaningless, like calisthenics, or the system of pothooks that is supposed to facilitate the formation of the letters of the alphabet, it never occurs to our pupil that his art work is along the same line as the work of the illustrator, painter, etcher, or designer.

Another thing I am going to suggest. It obtains that the general superintendent knows but little of drawing or public school art work. The result is that the specialist is given full swing. There is no restraint, no intelligent criticism, without which the best results are never possible. Of course, one is treading on dangerous ground here. But, at present, the common attitude of the general superintendent, of calmly ignoring the entire subject, or else priding himself on his lack of exact knowledge of it, is to be regretted. On this account, I would suggest that in future superintendents, and principals even, be invited to take part in our meetings—let us even make them officers in our department. We specialists are inclined to be one-sided. Let us endeavor to break up the snug complacency that is sure to follow from a gathering of our kind. Let us hear from St. Gaudens and Kenyon Cox, too—if we can get them. The result would be diverting, at least. I would bring in the business man, if possible—the broker, the real estate dealer—anything to break up the sterile monotony of the regulation educational talk. A five minutes' talk by a member of the stock exchange, on educational work, would be like opening a window on life itself.

ART INSTRUCTION IN NORMAL SCHOOLS.

BY ELIZABETH H. PERRY, BRIDGEWATER, MASS.

ART instruction is but a part of the normal school curriculum. Unless the director of drawing acknowledges the ends to be acquired by the school as a whole, and sympathizes with them in the conduct of her department, her work fails to accomplish all it should. We exist in the hope that we are the means of sending to the children in our public schools young men and women who will educate them ; whose conception of education is that expressed by Mrs. Jameson when she says : "The true purpose of education is to cherish and unfold the seed of immortality already sown within us ; to develop to their fullest extent the capacities of every kind with which the God who made us has endowed us." If our pupil-teachers have this conception of their life-work, we need have no fear for their success, for to live up to that ideal they must be constantly watchful that they make themselves faithful and earnest in their daily lives. Such a life means a broad outlook—a gathering of material from every source of knowledge ; an effort to lay sure foundations upon which to raise the framework, and an effort to finish every detail of the superstructure with care and thought, and the honest and earnest purpose which comes of thorough preparation.

Horace Mann says, "Two grand qualifications are equally necessary in the education of children—love and knowledge." We wish to send out graduates of high moral character with a true love for children which shall spur them on to every effort to make men and women of the little ones in their charge.

Our graduates must be possessed of a considerable degree of mental ability, an all-round education, and a large share of common-sense ; they must have studied human nature for the purpose of learning the laws which govern the action of the mind, have seen these laws applied to teaching, and have applied them themselves under the supervision of most capable instructors.

If such qualities are to belong to our graduates, they must exist to some extent in those whom we receive into our schools.

In the public schools one expects to labor with pupils of all degrees of mental ability, but in a normal school this should not be. Every one must have a public school education, but every one need not train himself for teaching, though that seems at present the respectable thing to do, especially for our girls. So we find among our applicants many who have not dreamed that the life for which they are preparing themselves is one requiring a broad culture and constant devotion to work.

Hear what is said in the catalogue of the Cook County normal school, regarding the mental ability of our pupils: "Ideally, the pupil should enter the training class equipped with knowledge and skill sufficient to begin the work of learning how to teach. Four years' course in a good college should supplement the high school course before a student enters upon professional training. The true requirements for the teacher should be a college course and professional training. But the standard of admission to a normal school is governed by circumstances which do not admit of an ideal standard. When the majority of candidates for positions as teachers attain their purpose by two years in a high school and examinations, it is obvious that an ideal standard of admission to professional training would close the doors of every normal school.

What are the requirements for admission? The catalogues say: "Applicants must pass an examination in subjects taught in the grammar schools; viz., arithmetic, geography, reading, grammar, spelling, writing." Can you tell why drawing is not on this list? The drawing teachers have not demanded it. The majority of drawing teachers do not study seriously to ascertain what may be done to improve their department, and even if they are convinced of possible improvements do not press their needs with sufficient determination when opposed, because the appropriation is insufficient, or they are required to face prejudices or book publishers. We should not be intimidated, but should feel that we have not only a right to demand means for every improvement, but fail in our duty if we do not do so.

The normal art teachers of Massachusetts realize that they are responsible for the future of art in the public schools. They find upon their hands each year a class of pupils ignorant of the subject of drawing, yet expecting to be able to teach it in a few months. They realize that the law of more than twenty-two years' standing, requiring the subject to be taught in the public schools, is not in effect; that in many places where the letter of the law is carried out by requiring pupils to fill drawing-books, the spirit of the law is wholly evaded. They know that by requiring pupils entering the normal schools to pass an examination in drawing, as in other grammar school subjects, they can force greater attention to this department in public schools.

Our State supervisor has therefore presented this claim for us to the Board of Education, with the result that "on and after September, 1893, some knowledge of drawing will be required for admission to our normal schools." This is but one step toward the elevation of our subject to the dignity which becomes it.

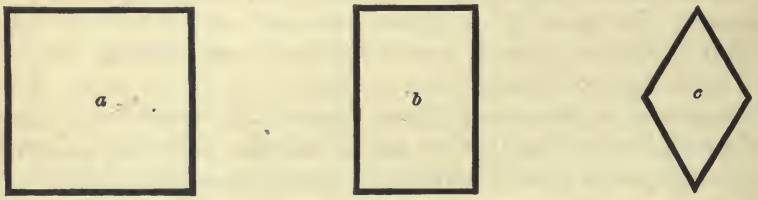
May it lead some of the poor teachers who have drawing on their programmes only because they must, and who dread the lesson, and so make their pupils dislike it—may it lead some of these teachers to turn their

thoughtful attention to drawing, and learn that it may be made as attractive as any exercise of the day.

Yet we cannot expect these teachers of a multiplicity of subjects to be able to make the drawing all it is capable of being, until the normal teachers and supervisors handle the subject in a more masterly way.

Our general plan of work is superficial; our daily work fails to make the child think independently and systematically. There came to my notice recently an examination given to a training class in one of the largest cities of Massachusetts. As I read the questions, notice the simplicity of them, and the hit-and-miss way in which they are thrown together. It illustrates right well the thoughtlessness with which many drawing teachers work:

1. When are two lines or two surfaces said to be perpendicular to each other?
2. Describe a cone.
3. Draw the bottom of the cone; draw the front view of the cone; in these two drawings show the facts of form.
4. When are plane figures said to be equilateral?
5. Draw two examples of an equilateral figure.
6. What are prisms? How are they usually named?
7. State the resemblances and differences of figures *a*, *b*, *c*.



8. Name three objects whose entire surface is curved.
9. Draw a square; bisect each side; draw the diameters; bisect each semi-diameter; from each of these points draw a straight line to each of the two corners nearest.
10. When are lines said to be parallel?

Is a pupil who can answer these questions capable of being taught how to teach drawing? Such questions indicate a state of stagnation.

It was said that our graduates should have studied human nature to determine the laws governing the action of the mind, should have seen these laws applied to teaching, and should have applied them themselves under the best of supervision.

This leads me to a consideration of the so-called training school as distinguished from the normal. The training school was an outgrowth of the feeling, on the part of superintendents, that the normal graduates were too theoretical. It is not long since many looked askance at the nor-

mal school, feeling that it sent out teachers full of beautiful theories which only gave them confidence in themselves and contempt for much of the existing teaching.

The training school gave us the other extreme—graduates who had no foundation for their teaching, but were merely imitators. There was a difference of opinion as to the comparative value of the normal and training school graduate. The normal was too burdened with theories to make her first year's work meet the requirements of individual children. The training school graduate, familiar with the ways of the schoolroom and with many devices of the teacher under whom she had been trained, did more practical work. Comparing their work of the second year, we find the normal school graduate's experience has taught her the need of knowing not only theory, but its application, and she supplies her want by consultation with experienced teachers. The second year of the training school graduate has been a repetition of the first, only, being without a knowledge of the principles upon which the work is based, she has unconsciously wandered farther from the right. If she be serious and thoughtful, she may remedy the difficulty.

Now the authorities of the training school are supplying their need by requiring some study of psychology and pedagogy, and the normal schools are sending out more practical workers because of the attention they are giving to the establishment of model schools, in which their pupils may have some experience.

In the model school the pupil-teacher learns that she must bear in mind that she is developing a human being; that the primary teacher, when she gives for the tenth time her exercises on the sphere, cylinder, and cube, must have her thoughts not upon the little wooden forms, but upon the little minds before her, each of which has a peculiar interest for her. Anna C. Brackett puts it well in her fine article in *Harper's* for May, on "The Private School for Girls," when she says: "The teacher of children now does not keep in mind the subject she is teaching so much as the mind of the child; that it is which she is working on, and the studies are only the tools that are used; it is the live mind of the child that she is watching, and by its reactions she directs her labor."

The normal and training schools are reacting upon each other, and we may look for much the same results from them as they approach the same plane.

The feeling of teachers that the normal school is too theoretical has created a distance between the normal and public school teachers which is most deplorable. Every normal teacher should keep herself in close sympathy with the public schools, that she may be familiar with the application of the theories she is expounding. She should do more—she should teach the children herself, that she may go before the normal class imbued with the child spirit. Pleasant and free intercourse between the

two classes of teachers would prevent the normal school from stagnation, and the public school from deviating too far from principles.

It is possible to arrange as systematic, logical, and elastic a course of study in drawing as in any subject; but we have confined ourselves in our past ignorance so long to copies, and later to pretending to teach before the copying was done, that we have worked with our hands tied, and the poor children have profited but little from our attempted teaching. Does this seem a rash statement? Visit normal drawing teachers and supervisors; notice their arrangement of work; notice their management of classes. Visit normal and regular teachers of other subjects. You will find a vast difference between the drawing lesson and lessons in geography, reading, arithmetic, language, etc. There is only a teacher here and there who has commenced to think that drawing is capable of being taught. Perhaps this is not the place for criticism of this nature, but unless we are willing to look the situation squarely in the face we cannot improve it as we must.

Do you know the feelings of wide-awake regular teachers in regard to this matter of drawing? They are anxious to adopt it, knowing how useful it is; but many avoid it because they do not feel competent to handle it, and do not care to half-way do anything.

If you have seen the faces of regular teachers light up as you showed them that children may be led to find out for themselves the principles underlying drawing, and to express their ideas of objects by drawing with no more assistance than is given in other studies, you must have been encouraged to go on in your good work of finding how to make your teaching bear most and best fruit.

The most skillful regular teachers are waiting for help from the special drawing teacher; not because they are incapable of doing the work alone, but because their attention is turned in so many directions that they have not time to devote to this one subject. We offer them assistance, but we do not satisfy them. We do not get at the heart of the matter. Why? Because in arranging our work for them we do not keep in mind that it is the underlying principle we are teaching, and not the product of a certain number of drawings; because we do not carry on our work in the logical, systematic way in which they are accustomed to conduct other studies; because we do not make the most difficult problems our own—we advise, but we do not do; and, in case of the normal teacher, because she is too far away from the children. Let her go into the public school, and lead the children through an exercise in drawing, holding their interest and enthusiasm, and making them solve all the problems for themselves. If she can do this, and show at the close of the exercise a paper from each child expressing neatly and accurately his idea of the thing taught, and uninfluenced by little sketches in the corner of his paper which he may copy, the normal teacher can win the confidence of the regular teacher, and not

before. When the normal teachers of drawing or any other subject show that they can do this, they cancel the charge which condemns them as mere theorists.

The drawing teacher is a specialist; the normal drawing teacher is a special specialist, and a very exclusive one. She is not present at meetings of drawing teachers; she does not attend meetings of normal teachers; she does not realize that the discussion of general topics may benefit her as much as the instructor in geography, reading, the sciences, etc.

There has been adopted this year, by the Massachusetts Board of Education, an outline of a course of drawing for normal schools which it is my pleasure to refer to to-day as embodying those qualities which are desirable in an outline of any subject. This course has proved its value in thoroughly graded and in ungraded schools; it meets with approval from all regular teachers, and in sending our students out with it we feel confident that we are giving them a knowledge of principles, and a systematic method of working which cannot fail to be applicable to any school.

Drawing is the representation of ideas of objects. A knowledge of drawing, then, implies a knowledge of objects and of the principles which underlie their representation. The first should be acquired in primary schools; the second, in grammar.

Objects must be considered with reference to their color and form. Some normal teachers require their pupils to make a study of form first, because it is with that that the child begins. The other work of the first year follows, then that of the second, and so on through the nine years of public school work. This keeps the pupils working on all kinds of drawing at all seasons, and gives them the whole subject in such broken pieces that when the work is done they have little idea of the continuity of any one part—for example, design—through the nine years. Dividing the work into years makes the element of time altogether too prominent.

Our pupils come to us with some knowledge of form, and acquire a more accurate knowledge in the study of geometry: hence, so far as subject-matter is concerned, here is an opportunity to begin at once upon teaching the pupils how to teach; but this subject-matter is for the youngest pupils—the hardest of all ages to teach—and it is scarcely wise to force upon beginners anything so difficult. If we leave the drawing of primary grades until our pupils have been in the school long enough to realize in a measure the meaning of the work they have undertaken, they will enter into the spirit of primary teaching as they cannot possibly do before.

Representation may be geometric, decorative, or pictorial. A knowledge of geometric representation implies a knowledge of measurement, geometric problems, working drawing, development. A knowledge of decorative representation implies a knowledge of color, historic orna-

ment, plant drawing, design. We have, then, nine divisions for consideration. Our pupils must be thoroughly familiar with the principles governing all representation, must be able to represent freely and accurately, to teach these principles, and to arrange series of drawings for any condition of school. It should be the aim of every normal teacher to make her pupils enjoy drawing. To do this the work itself must be interesting, and must be such that the pupils can produce results pleasing to themselves. The most of those who have had any experience in drawing come with a strong prejudice against design and an almost equally strong feeling against free-hand work. So it seems wise to start with geometric work, in which it is possible for each to feel some satisfaction. This mechanical work requires such exactness and neatness, and is so unsatisfactory if it fails in these respects, that it forms habits which will not allow the pupil to be content later in his pictorial drawing with poor ellipses or unsymmetrical representations. We give one-fourth of the time for drawing to this department. The second fourth of the time is devoted to pictorial drawing; and, as the pupils are at the same time studying botany and geology, we have an opportunity to apply our drawing directly to illustration in these sciences. The science studies have been so recently introduced into the public schools systematically, that we drawing teachers have but begun to realize how valuable is the material they furnish us. We have dwelt too long upon the model, which in its place is excellent, but which has made us unpardonably conventional. During the third quarter of our course we study decoration, while in the fourth quarter our students are led to arrange the work they have done by years for a well-graded school, and to understand where to eliminate and how to extend the work under circumstances demanding either. With this knowledge of the grammar work the pupils can better appreciate the preparation necessary in the primary schools, and now make a special study of that.

During the course we hope the students have gained—

1. A knowledge of the subject.
2. A love for the subject.
3. Ability to draw.
4. Ability to teach.
5. Power to arrange a series of drawings adapted to any school.

Time will not permit us to enter into the details of the nine divisions included in representation, but I have with me illustrations of one of these—pictorial drawing—which is sufficient to show the plan of work.

To know the form of a body is one thing; to represent it as it appears, quite another and more difficult thing to do. The first step toward doing this should be a very easy one. The simplest noticeable difference between facts and appearances is that caused by distance. During the primary course the child has been representing objects having but two dimensions.

Now he is ready to deal with those having three dimensions, and he must represent solidity as well as may be without light and shade. The sphere presents fewer difficulties than any other object. If the sphere, having a dot on its highest point, be placed in front of and below the eye of the pupil, he is easily led to represent the appearance by drawing the outline of the sphere and placing the dot within it—not on top of the drawing, though it is on top of the object. When the pupil adds the representation of the farther edge of his model rest, he has done all he can to indicate the solidity of the object without using light and shade. Let the prolate spheroid be represented in the same way, and the child is ready to draw objects similar to these. It is well to select nothing which has exact outlines. Our drawing will be sufficiently conventional if we avoid that characteristic at every opportunity.

Natural forms give us the best material. The apple and potato have had their claims well recognized, and nothing can quite replace them. The cherry, squash, beet, onion, turnip, etc., furnish plenty of variety.

Foreshortening is next taught. The circle presents this free from other difficulties, and the solid embodying it most simply is the hemisphere. If this is followed by the cone suspended above the eye, so the base is visible, the child has practice in representing foreshortening twice in easy objects before undertaking anything requiring measurement of invisible faces, as in the case of the cone below the eye and the cylinder which follow. These solids in themselves have little interest, but as the pupil finds himself able to make pictures of objects similar to them, he appreciates the knowledge he has gained by the study of them.

When the foreshortening of the circle has been conquered, concentric circles may be taken as a more difficult application of the principle.

The study of convergence follows. We notice one set of retreating edges: first in a horizontal plane, second in a vertical plane. The first is illustrated by the square prism parallel to and resting on a rectangular face. The square prism is better than the cube in this case, because the convergence is much more evident. The second is illustrated in as interesting a manner by the drawing of the half-cylinder, which should be made from the whole cylinder.

Next notice two sets of retreating edges in vertical planes: first at equal angles as illustrated by the cube and square prism at forty-five degrees; second at unequal angles, illustrated by the same objects at accidental angles.

Again we notice convergence, and this time in oblique planes, illustrated in the triangular prisms.

The use of diagonals follows this, and finally relation of axes in ovoidal, conical, pyramidal, and cylindrical objects.

These principles are taught in the normal classes as in public school classes. The applications are more difficult in normal work, the age of the pupils making it possible and it giving them more practice.

The eight other divisions are laid out in the same way, so that when the pupil has completed his two years' course he has an outline for teaching drawing which can be adapted to any school, because he understands what are the essential things to be taught. He has the course illustrated by his own drawings.

Leaving the general arrangement of work, consider for a moment the daily lesson.

In too many drawing exercises the pupil is left to himself to get what he can by questions. If the result on paper is fairly good, the teacher is satisfied. Instead, the teacher should be a guide; should lead the pupil by orderly, systematic steps to obtain the desired result. Too often the completed drawing is merely a collection of lines, especially in mechanical work. Take the working drawing of the cube at forty-five degrees, for instance; it is not enough for the pupil that he see in the plan only the sides of the top face, and in the elevation only edges. He must see the whole cube in each view, and must be able to show where in each the different faces and edges are represented. Each line of the plan represents a face, and the space within the lines, both top and bottom faces. The two rectangles in the elevation represent four foreshortened squares. The center vertical line represents two edges. By this seeing around the drawing, the imagination is trained, and the pupil enabled to read drawings as well as make them—a part of the work which is sadly neglected. A lesson I saw given by a normal teacher upon the pictorial representation of the cube at forty-five degrees is a fair sample of much of the work done, I fear. To prepare the pupils for this pictorial representation, she claimed it was necessary that they make working drawings of the cylinder, hemisphere, square prism, cube parallel, equilateral triangular prism, and cube at forty-five degrees. The subject of working drawing was new to the class. After these working drawings had been made at the blackboard, each pupil placed her cube at the back of her own desk, and was told to draw it as it looked.

During the exercise, a number of questions were asked which led to the explanation finally of all the points to be noticed in the lesson. The object had been placed too far below the eye to give a satisfactory picture. Only one drawing was shown to me; that represented a cube very nicely, but not the cube from which the pupil worked. Evidently the subject of the lesson was not new to her, and she had drawn what she remembered ought to represent a cube.

If the great principle of wholes before parts be applied to each lesson in drawing, many difficulties will disappear.

In this lesson on the pictorial representation of the cube at forty-five degrees the first consideration is the proportion of the whole width to the whole height. When this is determined and indicated upon the paper, the parts may be considered in the following order: widths of the two front

faces, width of the top face, parallel diagonal of top face to find position of right and left corners, lower edges.

I think with pleasure of a lesson given to children in the fifth year of school. The subject was the pictorial representation of the cylinder. The point which was especially gratifying was the result of the pupils' attempts to find the degree of foreshortening of the upper circle. One part of the class claimed the proportion of one to four; the other part, one to three. The teacher suggested measuring again, since some might be mistaken. The second result was the same as the first, no child being willing to change his opinion. Noticing the heights of the children, it was found in every case the difference of opinion corresponded to the difference in heights. When pupils can be made to realize the great advantage of independent thought, and when they stand by their opinions until convinced of error, then and not before have we made them capable of being educated.

Those pupils who fit for high school teachers should have a high school course which is a continuation of the above. And the plan of work should be, as before, based on principles which the pupils thoroughly understand and which they illustrate by a series of drawings.

After the first year in high schools, pupils usually elect a mechanical or free-hand course. Our normal pupils must be fitted for both.

Geometric representation develops into orthographic projection, and is applied in building construction and machine drawing.

I have in mind schools where there is no manual training, and since under such circumstances the pupil has no chance to make objects from his drawings, it is doubly necessary that he have as complete a knowledge of the building and machine he represents as possible. I suppose the size and weight of the objects has been the excuse for not having the building and the machine in the schoolroom, but, instead, parts of each. Pupils do not take much interest in these parts because they are detachments and their use is not half understood. This difficulty can be obviated. We are having a house built from plans accepted by an architect. This house is modern in its arrangement, and by being sectioned twice, enables us to show pupils how plans are made. Enlarged details of windows and doors are sectioned to show their construction. For machine drawing a hydraulic ram is excellent, being small enough to be easily handled, and inexpensive. It has a sufficient number of parts to keep twenty pupils working individually, and, as may be seen from the drawings, it is quite complicated enough for our purpose.

In pictorial drawing the principles of appearance represented in outline have been learned, and we are ready to study the principles of light and shade. What medium shall we use? Pencil, pen and ink, or crayon? The results desired from the teaching of light and shade are, first, to give the pupil power to express himself more graphically than in outline; sec-

ond, to increase his love of nature; third, to enable him to better appreciate works of art. In most high and normal schools precedence is given to crayon work over pencil. Much time is devoted to models and casts. No doubt this has its place in training the pupil to careful study and enabling him to appreciate shade and shadow in nature and art. But he who can record in his sketch-book, with the pencil, localities or events which he wishes to remember, has a power to be valued far above that of the student who labors to get a more finished piece of work. Use of the pencil in expressing breadth of light and shade, and in sketching from nature, have first claim, and until the pupil has fair ability to do this easily, he has no use for the point.

In our normal schools especially, another power should be developed in our pupils before they are allowed the crayon. The use of the blackboard in illustrating exercises in geography, history, reading, arithmetic, languages and the sciences, is essential for teaching, and practice in this is of infinitely more value than the generally accepted light and shade.

Pen and ink, in demanding accurate thought and great care, gives, no doubt, excellent practice, but seems almost too exacting for class work in schools where time is so limited. When pupils have acquired sufficient skill in the use of the pencil, they should be taught water-color. It is useful in illustrating the sciences, and gives, of course, infinitely more pleasure than crayon. The latter can claim no more time than is absolutely necessary to cultivate the appreciation of light and shade called for in the intelligent use of water-color.

As the aim in teaching reading is to create a love for good literature, not to make elocutionists, so one aim in teaching drawing is to create a love for good art, not to make artists. The acceptance of this view of the matter forces us to introduce much more of history into our work than we have done. The study of decoration must lead to a study of the history of art. Pupils must know the ancient and mediæval schools, searching in each for the characteristic architecture, the enrichment, and the pictorial art.

Mr. Bailey, our State supervisor, has selected a set of photographs which admirably illustrate the six schools referred to above. There are four plates of each school. Notice in the arrangement the illustration of the principle, "wholes before parts," mentioned before.

In the Egyptian photographs the first represents the general appearance of the country, showing the Nile in the foreground, the village of Jeezeh (or Gizeh) at the right. In the distance beyond the village is the greatest of the pyramids, supposed to have been built by Cheops, 2170 B.C. At the left is the second great pyramid. Between this and the river is the Sphinx, half buried in the sand. The second picture shows us a typical Egyptian temple, Edfou, while the third gives us a detail of this temple, showing typical Egyptian capitals, winged globe, and hieroglyphics. The

fourth photograph represents a portion of a wall from the temple of Abydos, and shows the decoration which characterizes Egyptian work: portrait sculpture, hieroglyphics, lotus, papyrus, various divinities and their symbols, the hawk, asp, etc., frets, borders of geometric figures, of lotus buds and flowers, etc.

The photographs of the Greek school show a typical Greek landscape with the Temple of Jupiter in the foreground, Athens in the middle distance, and the Acropolis rising above all. That most famous structure, the Parthenon, with the ruins of the Erechtheum in the distance, is the subject of the second picture. The third shows a portico of the Erechtheum supported by caryatides, and the fourth a detail of the same ruin in which we see the three characteristic Greek moldings, "tongue and dart," astragal and echinus, and the anthemion.

The illustrations of the Roman school show: first, the Forum as seen from the Capitol, the Palatine Hill, the Coliseum, and other remains of ancient Roman architecture; second, the Pantheon; third, part of the Temple of Minerva, in which are seen the Corinthian columns, the triple architrave, the frieze with figures, the richly ornamented cornice, the second story, with its figure of Minerva.

A detail of Roman ornament from the Forum of Trajan, showing acanthus foliage, modified Greek units, and the human figure harmoniously combined, completes the three ancient schools.

The Mosque of St. Sophia is, of course, the starting point in the study of the Byzantine school. The photographs show us the exterior of the building and part of the interior, where are seen arches, columns, balustrades, a staircase. A portion of St. Mark's, Venice, gives examples of symbolic ornament with foliated work, and the three types of Byzantine capitals: the concave, convex, and straight. A more enlarged detail, from the altar at Ravenna, shows the ornament more clearly.

A photograph showing the location of the Alhambra commences the series illustrating the Saracenic school. This is followed by the Ambassadors' Court, Court of the Lions, and a detail of ornament showing varieties of geometric interlacing, typical capitals, inscriptions, and sculptured surface patterns.

The Cologne Cathedral is taken as the purest type of Gothic architecture, and is shown in the first picture with a general view of Cologne. A picture of the west doors of this cathedral gives an idea of Gothic arches, geometric tracery, statues, canopies, and gables. The third photograph shows the interior. The fourth is taken from the Lichfield Cathedral, England. It gives the west door, and illustrates wrought iron work and sculptured ornaments at their best. In this picture are seen the Virgin and Child, apostles and saints, and details of the human figure, birds and animals, foliated capitals and moldings, geometric tracery, plain and ornamental cusps and crockets.

Turn now to the pictorial art. Surely, the great artists of the past have some claim upon us. Photographs of such works as Da Vinci's "Lord's Supper," Michael Angelo's "Last Judgment," Raphael's cartoons and "Transfiguration," Correggio's "Nativity," Titian's "Assumption," Guido Reni's "Aurora," Rubens's "Taking down from the Cross," should be perfectly familiar to our pupils.

In closing, allow me a suggestion in reference to the drawing room. Let it be the most attractive room in the school. There is every reason why it should be. Art cannot be taught in an inartistic room. The material we use in teaching is in itself interesting and ornamental. The room must, first of all, be characterized by cleanliness. A plea for doors or curtains to keep the dust from cases is always met by the remark, "It is no use to try to keep dust out of a schoolroom." Granted; but it can be to-day's dust instead of that of the past ten years, can it not? The casts and models in most schoolrooms are repulsive, and it is quite a common occurrence to be forced to consider a moment before deciding which is dust and which is shade. In the drawing room there is every chance for disorder, so much and varied is the material in constant use. This gives an opportunity to prove to our pupils the possibility of having order under most trying conditions.

This room of ours should be tastefully decorated. The walls should be tinted, and hung with photographs of the famous architectural wonders of the world, and reproductions of the pictures of world-wide reputation. Plants in abundance should give the room a flavor of nature.

The refinement of the drawing room should pervade the atmosphere. We should struggle constantly to keep free from the stilted attitudes of the teacher, and to avoid schoolroom mannerisms.

Best of all, let there exist between teacher and pupil that true heart sympathy which is productive of helpfulness in the work of each day, and through that makes the secret life nobler and more in accord with that of the greatest Teacher man has ever known.

What one of us is there who, if he take time for what James Martineau calls "meditative self-knowledge" that will enable him to "see, side by side, what he is and what he ought to be," will not blush to own so many failings, the result of indifferent forethought? George Herbert, in referring to the spiritual life, says:

> "By all means use sometimes to be alone,
> Salute thyself, see what thy soul doth wear,
> Dare to look in the chest, for 'tis thine own,
> And tumble up and down what thou findest there."

We might well apply this to our school work, for we should surely find many things grown musty in the close atmosphere. Our deficiencies have been overlooked long enough, on the plea that the subject is unde-

veloped. It is quite time we showed an effort to conduct our daily work in the systematic, logical manner in which other subjects are carried on.

Let us aim constantly, as William T. Harris says, to "educate toward a knowledge of truth, a love of the beautiful, a habit of doing the good."

THE STUDY OF DRAWING AS COMMON SCHOOL WORK.

BY SUPT. AARON GOVE, DENVER, COL.

DRAWING is taught in schools, first, for its disciplinary value; second, for the cultivation of facility in expression. The teaching of the study in the common schools cannot be defended, when the aim and object be the acquisition of art as an accomplishment. A pupil learns to read in order that he may appropriate to his own use the thoughts of another. The acquisition of the art of reading, in later years, commences at too early a period of life. Young people of the present time read too much. A vast amount of current literature, prepared especially for the juvenile mind, is harmful. Young people, particularly girls, at an early age can be found in many homes, with rounded shoulders, in poorly ventilated rooms, reading, when good judgment requires that they be at other employment involving physical discipline. The perceptive powers of a child are weakened by excessive reading. Parents boast of the number of volumes pored over by young children. Reading circles and societies for the diffusion of catalogues, corporations organized primarily for the benefit of their own treasury, have increased to the harm of the young public. And yet, as with all markets, the demand for the reading causes the supply, and will continue so to do.

I see in the introduction of drawing, as a study generally, a force that shall modify this abuse of excessive reading. The purpose for which the art of reading is acquired is quite similar to that for which the art of drawing should be acquired—to communicate one's thoughts accurately to another, and to appropriate another's thoughts faithfully to one's own apprehension.

Drawing has failed of success as a study in our schools largely because its direction fell at the outset into the hands of artists who were not teachers. Later, men and women have come to the front who appreciate the importance of the study from a different standpoint. A child returns from a visit, and enthusiastically describes to its parents some of the features of the trip. He tells of the beautiful home of his friend; he describes the furniture of the rooms and the location and appearance of the house, the street, and the neighborhood. When he adds to his power

of expression by words, the ability with the pencil to picture to the eye that about which he talks, the description is more definite, and the thought is conveyed fairly accurately to the parent.

How many times in one's life is the mechanic requested to construct something for the house! It may be a kitchen utensil, it may be an article of furniture, it may be the top of a chimney. Heretofore, whenever any complicated article has been needed, a description by words has been inadequate, and the skill of a trained draughtsman has been called to assist in making an order for the articles. To-day, in our best towns, the average boy or girl can make such an order, and give such directions without assistance. The many trips and tedious hours with the dressmaker, and the correction of her mistakes, are avoided by those who have the ability to use the pencil as well as the written or spoken word. In making orders for the drapery and trimmings, even the milliner is made to comprehend more completely than words can do the wish of the patron.

In considering this phase of the purpose of this study in the schools, one must remember that, as in all other studies, a degree of discipline is acquired, and with pencil in hand a different sort of discipline from that which comes from tasks involving only the calculation or the memory. Cultivation of the eye, with that of the hand as a complement, is nowhere so satisfactorily obtained as in the study under contemplation.

To be able to draw is also to be able to comprehend and interpret the drawing of another. A result of the study is that the competency of the pupil acquired by the drill and practice enables him intelligently to observe works of art about him, and to assist in establishing a proper standard of taste in all sorts of decoration.

One realizes the mistakes in the teaching of drawing in the schools, when he remembers the attempts made in the earlier years, and which have not yet altogether ceased, to reach results without regard to method. A beautiful picture, ostensibly made by the pupil, but materially assisted by the teacher, has been exhibited as evidence of excellent school work. A wise teacher of to-day makes no attempt to illustrate the work by showing an example of beautiful products, but rather calls attention to the originality, skill, and discipline used in obtaining that product.

Just as the common schools should avoid the introduction of the teaching of dramatic reading and rhetorical display, that being distinctly without the province of the common school and within the duty of the special school of elocution, so should drawing be held well to lines leading to such a product as will make not necessarily an eminent artist of a boy, but an all-round competent and intelligent citizen. Just as the young people in the high schools are harmed by wild-eyed, long-haired, gesticulating, dramatic elocutionists, so will they be harmed by an exquisite, accomplished man or woman, or so-called genius in art, whose knowledge in other directions is limited. What is needed in a director or teacher of

drawing is that he should be a man or woman of the world, appreciating the condition in which we live and knowing something of everything and much of teaching, who shall have concluded the main purpose of the study to be similar to that of other coördinate branches, viz., general discipline. Like all reforms presented to our profession, this one of drawing was born of truth and right. It was encouraged through various stages of experiment, and nourished by specialists, oftentimes almost fanatics. The stage of unsatisfactory trifling passed, we now approach the healthful part of the life of the study when one can look out upon the prospect deliberately, and view with satisfaction the outcome. Thousands of dollars have been worse than wasted by the investment in incompetent directors, and in a mass of material now found to be unnecessary to the successful issue.

All schools are quite ready to initiate the work, if not already begun, and the annual expense per capita is but a few dimes. The one requisite, without which the enterprise is a certain failure, is a competent director or teacher. Systems and series of books, manuals, and publications of all sorts, each has its place; some are of value, but that which shall be used, and that which shall be avoided, should be subjected to the direct decision of one mind, and that one a director of drawing in the schools, in whom all authority should lie, and to whom the board, superintendent, teacher, pupil, and parent should look for direction and instruction. This directorship should be permanent, and his administration have the assured continuance of at least five years.

The teaching of reading commences with the first grade. I am not sure that the time may not profitably be postponed, notwithstanding the applause which you choose to give to that person who invents a method for teaching reading whereby the art can be learned in the shortest possible time. The teaching of drawing may commence at the same time, but we can afford to wait until the third or fourth grade before the study be systematically commenced.

I cannot emphasize too strongly the opinion that this work should be both constant and continuous through a series of years, else it would better not be undertaken. It is akin to the study of penmanship, but different, as the marked ability to write a beautiful hand soon disappears if there be not persistence in constant repetition. A beautiful penman loses his skill quite as readily as does the pianist when relieved for a time from practice. In drawing we learn that the finer part of the execution may suffer from vacation; but the power of delineation, when once acquired, will remain. Movement in civilization points to penmanship to become a lost art, for the phonograph and stenograph, and inventions yet to come, will soon cause the business of the penman to be little required; and the same causes point to the return of picture language for definite communication—the presentation to the eye of the form of things. In the study of the natural sciences, both the written and spoken word will

be insignificant compared to the presentation of the picture of a leaf, stalk, root, or fragment of organic or inorganic matter.

We must combat that prevalent idea that drawing as a study in the schools is an accomplishment akin to the teaching of instrumental music, painting, or embroidery. It is our duty to represent it as of the same sort of disciplinary study as are arithmetic, grammar, geometry, and physics. It should occupy as important a place on the school programme both with regard to time and sequence. Tasks should be as definitely assigned as are those of arithmetic, and the requirements as conscientiously demanded. The pupil in the sixth year of school life should be able to sketch any object within reach of his eye. The pupil in the twelfth year of his school life should be able to construct working drawings for any piece of machinery or article of household furniture with which he is most familiar, and to give complete instructions to the mechanic. He should be able to draw fairly well with his pencil, in true perspective, any neighborhood in which he may be. He should be able accurately to present to the builder, plans for a house for himself and drawings for the interior finish. These are some of the results which are already accomplished in some schools, and which will be accomplished by those who are constant in their efforts and by all schools that claim to be abreast with the advance of the world.

But these results are secondary. The object of the study is not to be emphasized upon the utilitarian side, however great may be the so-called practical outcome. Should the advance of modern education ever be seriously impeded, the words *practical education*, with all their coördinate ignorant and idiotic adjuncts and shallow superficial catch-penny schemes in the hands of irresponsible and unprincipled men and women misnamed educators, will be the obstructing force.

I have little patience with that drawing introduced in the schools, that calls for great expense for material. I have read of an appropriation in a medium-sized city of five hundred dollars for water colors, and I have noticed the reaction and condemnation of drawing in some districts, the cause of which, by the thinking man, would be attributed to the financial side as it had been presented to the home. I would have drawing as much a part of the course of study as is reading, as definite, as rigid; and would hold the teachers and pupils for positive results. I am not discouraged by the apparent failures. They are not any more in number than failures in teaching in any other branches. Year by year, profiting by the errors and experiences of our neighbors, we are advancing. Men and women skillful in the work, while yet few in number, can be found.

THE AIM OF ART INSTRUCTION.

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THE aim of public school education should be to develop the mind and to impart such knowledge as is useful in any sphere of life, not the knowledge that prepares for special trades or professions, but that which gives the best equipment for successful entrance upon any work. Let us consider the claims of art instruction as a factor in this result. The study of a branch of knowledge that trains to activity certain powers of the mind, increases the capacity to master all other branches that appeal to these powers. Nay, further, it increases the ability to deal intelligently with any affair of life, the successful management of which requires the action of these powers. Viewed in the light of these truths the study of drawing, as a means of mental development, an educational process, assumes a position of importance second to that of no branch in our school course.

When rationally pursued it furnishes an unrivaled means of developing the power to perceive, to remember, and to imagine form, the power of attention or concentration, and the appreciation of the beautiful. Although other studies may conduce to this cultivation, drawing alone gives to the faculties that systematic training that is always essential to satisfactory mental growth.

A keen perception of form is an advantage to its possessor, be his position in life what it may. Its cultivation really enlarges the world for him, for whatever one fails to perceive might as well not exist so far as he is concerned. To the architect, engineer, designer, draughtsman, to all whose occupations lead to the production or embellishment of form this power is a fundamental necessity. The scientist, whether geologist, botanist, chemist, or anatomist, rears his knowledge upon the basis of correct abundant observation of forms and appearances. The power of logical induction avails him little should he lack that of specific perception.

A mind capable of broad, intelligent observation sees variety, individuality, where a less developed faculty finds sameness only. The fruits of the larger perception furnish stimulus and material for higher mental action. The observer is led to compare, analyze, and reflect, thus gaining a fuller knowledge of the objects of his attention and enlarging his sphere of thought.

"The more I think of it," says Ruskin, "the more I find this conclusion impressed upon me, that one of the greatest things a human soul ever does in this world is to see something, and to tell what it saw in a plain

way. Hundreds of people can talk to one who thinks, but thousands can think to one who can see." Speaking on the same topic, Morris says: "How much time we spend in looking, yet how little we see. Cultivate the perceptive power, that our looking may be seeing." Youth is the season for this cultivation, and the study of drawing furnishes the occasion for the mental activity that develops the power. The student is compelled to give a close scrutiny and prolonged attention to the forms he would copy. His effort to reproduce them shows him the uncertainty of his impressions and the necessity of a closer inspection. He examines the parts, compares them, notes their relation to each other and to the whole, thus calling to the work a perceptive energy that no other purpose could enlist.

Since the acquiring of a clear perception of an object is desirable, surely the retaining of it must be equally so; yet how small a per cent. of the forms we studiously observe and strive to remember leaves enduring impressions on the mind. The effort to recall them reveals images blurred and retreating. What we thought to make our permanent possessions prove transient and dissolving.

The Grecian myth tells us that Mnemosyne, the goddess of memory, is the mother of the muses. She might with truth claim numerous and sturdy progeny besides these lovely genii of the arts, for every department of human knowledge is dependent on memory for its very existence, percepts being valuable only as the mind is capable of retaining them.

Drawing from memory develops the power to remember any object of sight that we have attentively observed. It is this faculty that enables the traveler to recall the natural scenery, faces, pictures, buildings that have commanded his attention. By it the student holds in mind the appearance of scientific experiments, scenes from history, the maps, diagrams, and illustrations of geography, botany, astronomy, geology, and physiology. It furnishes material for the imagination, and invention of anything in the way of form, these original products being combinations of elements furnished by memory; so the richer her store, the more successful the endeavor to produce something new. Speaking of the value to recall form to him who would gain culture by travel brings to mind a gentleman who has visited Europe six times. He prides himself particularly on his knowledge of Paris, and his familiarity with all her grand buildings. Not long ago while complacently discoursing on the cultivating influence of these masterpieces of architecture he betrayed his ignorance of the fact that Notre Dame boasts a spire and flying buttresses, and had forgotten, perchance never knew, that Le Panthéon is beautified by a dome.

The power to imagine form, to project before the mind's eye new combinations created from the forms stored in memory—this is one of the most valuable results that art education can claim. It translates into

mental pictures, word descriptions, whether written or spoken. It furnishes the artist and the inventor with their ideals. It brings before the mind of the engineer, architect, or artisan, an image of his work as it will appear when completed. The highest development is rare, and its possessor a genius—a Raphael, a Michael Angelo, a Leonardo, a Galileo, a Fulton, or a Morse; but a fair development is possible for all and its cultivation should be a feature in every educational system. Its influence on the quality and quantity of our mental store is obvious. How much of history, poetry, accounts of travel, geography, and natural science consists of descriptions of scenes, forms, and appearances that must be translated into pictures ere we get the author's idea! Otherwise they are words, merely dry statements of facts, and must be remembered as words.

When we consider the inferior development of this faculty in the majority of persons, and remember that so little effort is made to cultivate it, we should not be surprised that graphic descriptions of scenes, natural and historic, make so little impression upon the average mind, nor that so much that we study is so soon forgotten.

Almost dormant in some, stronger in others, this power may be cultivated by rational methods, carefully pursued. Practice in certain departments of drawing, as original designing and the execution of drawings from verbal descriptions, stimulates it to an activity that must develop even the weakest faculty.

In cultivating the æsthetic faculty, drawing opens the mind to the beauties of nature and art. In the language of Addison: "A person trained to understand art expression and to find a meaning in visible nature is let into a great many pleasures that the vulgar are not capable of receiving. He can converse with a picture and find an agreeable companion in a statue. He meets with a secret refreshment in a description, and often finds a greater satisfaction in the prospect of fields and meadows than another does in the possession. It gives him indeed a kind of property in everything he sees, and makes the rudest, most uncultivated parts of nature administer to his pleasures; so that he looks upon the world in another light, as it were, and discovers in it a multitude of charms that conceal themselves from the generality of mankind." The moral influence of this love of the beautiful must not be ignored, for this gives the study of drawing an added importance in the education of the child. By revealing to him his inheritance of the beauties of nature, by leading him to see the wonders of art, it indirectly aids his moral growth. The contemplation of beauty and the practice of drawing furnish peaceful, humanizing occupation, thus luring the mind from grosser pleasures.

Formerly drawing was considered an accomplishment, or at best an educational luxury, requiring a special aptitude on the part of the pupil, and therefore a study for the few only. An analysis of the activities concerned in the work shows that every normal mind possesses in some

degree the faculties necessary to the school study of the subject. Otherwise the child could not even read or write. Of course, the original endowment varies in different children, some possessing a fine development as a birthright, others being very poorly supplied. All, however, are capable of further development, and, as we see, immeasurably benefited thereby. These facts emphasize the absurdity of the suggestion that a child be excused from drawing because he has "no talent for it." Those most deficient in the so-called "talent," need most the cultivation that drawing gives.

Let us now turn to the industrial phase of our subject. As a study exerting an important influence on the growth of the mind, drawing is a subject for the consideration of the educator and the moralist. Viewed in the light of its relations to the industries of the country, it becomes a subject for the statesman and political economist as well, for the well-being of all classes of society is influenced by the condition of the country's labor interests. Industrial drawing is a first necessity in the thorough training of the artisan. Everything that is made, from a toy boat to an ocean steamer, from a one-cent whistle to a grand organ, is fashioned and manufactured according to drawings. In the construction of houses, bridges, ships, and railroads, carefully prepared drawings showing plan, elevation, section, and detail are furnished the workmen. Every article of dress is made from a pattern. Implements of labor, hoe, spade, rake, our glassware, pottery, and jewelry would be impossibilities but for the exact directions for their manufacture furnished by the draughtsman. These drawings are given to the workman for his guidance in the production of the article, and, be he mason, iron worker, carpenter, glass worker, or weaver, upon his understanding of these drawings, his ability to read them, depend largely his efficiency as a workman. This intelligence lifts him above the mere drudgery of his trade. His work becomes lighter, for it is a weary business at best, weary for the foreman, weary for the workmen, this constant overseeing, directing, and, of a necessity almost, driving. We want workmen capable of making an article that will realize in every detail the draughtsman's idea. In order to do this they must be able to translate into a mental picture the lines given for their guidance. Otherwise they are working "in the dark," and are liable to make mistakes, thus wasting time and material. Their work is apt to be botchy and ill constructed, therefore less durable and less valuable. The study of drawing would acquaint them with the principles upon which the daughtsman's drawing is made, enable them to imagine clearly the object they are about to make, and give a manual dexterity that would further assist in realizing the draughtsman's conception. Not requiring constant supervision and doing better work, their time is more valuable to the employers, and as a result they receive better wages. Several leading manufacturers have expressed the conviction that the work of a man who

has received systematic education in drawing is worth twenty-five per cent. more than the labor of him who has not had this advantage. In the manufacture of articles into which the art element enters a knowledge of drawing is indispensable, and there is scarce anything that we use or fashion that is not considered unfinished until it has some touch of decoration about it. There are many objects of utility whose worth is increased a hundredfold by beauty of form and by applied decoration. Many others owe their value solely to the fact that they gratify that love of harmony, of beauty, of form and color, which is inherent in every mind. The savage, when he has secured food and shelter, begins to decorate his own person, the objects of his rude home, and the weapons of the chase. Civilized man, when satisfied with the acquisition of the necessities of life, proceeds to add what he considers beauty to his own person and to all his belongings. Rich dress and jewelry, elegant houses, and all kinds of interior decorations are secured. The display is beautiful in proportion to the cultivation of the owner's taste. These manufactures, of which the chief purpose is the gratification of the æsthetic feeling, these are the ones that enrich a country. The commercial value of the beautiful cannot be over-estimated ; a carpet, a shawl, a dress pattern, a piece of furniture, may be of most durable material—inharmonious coloring or ugly forms will render it unsalable. It has been aptly said that when the sculptor Flaxman lent his skill to the production of the celebrated Wedgewood ware the Staffordshire clay beds became gold mines. The work of the designer is lost if placed in the hands of the unskilled workman. Fine art products can be made only by the artisan trained to appreciate the beauties of the designer's model, and with the dexterity of hand to carry it out in his material. The countries excelling in these manufactures have for years given to all classes of their people opportunities for thorough industrial art education. The nation who would not be at a disadvantage in the markets of the world will give its workmen the education that will enable them to produce the best quality of work. These are the manufactures in which a country should aim to excel. They bring wealth to the nation and, by requiring more knowledge and skill in their manufacture, they demand a more intelligent class of workers. The foundation of this as of all other education must be laid in childhood. Since a large per cent. of the pupils leave school before the age of fifteen and enter the workshop, their education should begin in the lowest grade. It should prepare them not for any particular department of industry, but should give the foundation for any, the workshop, the technical school, and the art academy being the schools for special education.

It is the aim of art instruction to give the education that will subserve these two ends : the educational and the industrial. By following comprehensive methods we may make these ends identical, for that instruc-

tion which furnishes the best educational development is also best from the industrial standpoint, because it gives most power to the faculties that are necessary to a good artisan, and, at the same time, an art knowledge and skill that are the foundation for after-training in any special branch of industrial art. And, again, if the knowledge that is necessary in the industrial field is imparted according to these methods, it serves, at the same time, the educational end.

I have dwelt thus at length upon the influence of drawing and the aim of art instruction in order to show what character of work is progressive, and what comparatively aimless. In arranging our methods we should be guided by the educational maxim that the ability to acquire is more valuable than the knowledge acquired. We should remember that drawing is a language, a means by which we can express our own thoughts and read those of others, and therefore aim to develop independent progressive power, for in all departments of human activity advancement is conditional upon the power to exercise independent, original thought. The real achievement should be sought in the mind of the pupil, not on his drawing paper, for his work is valuable only as an evidence of his mental growth. Accordingly, a simple original design may be more pleasing to the teacher than a copy of one of Raphael's drawings, for the latter exercises the perceptive power only, while the former enlists memory and imagination as well. All who have given attention to the subject of art instruction know that a great deal of time may be spent in drawing, and very little practical education result therefrom. Pupils spend years at the work only to find themselves in the end copyists merely—copyists of the flat or copyists of the object. I have in mind now a school of design in which, during the course of three years, not one drawing calling for the exercise of memory or imagination is required of the pupils, the reason given being that they are not yet sufficiently skillful in copying; that they must not attempt any original work until their means of expression are improved. Sad confusion of means with end! From the first we should give such exercises as require the widest range of mental activity of which the class is capable, considering memory and imagination as well as perception in the work of even the youngest pupils. If we would make the instruction most effective we would require the children to utilize in their other studies the systematic training they received in the drawing class. This practice should be begun in the lower grades and continued throughout the school course. It may be introduced as a valuable assistance into the study of almost every other branch. That the children's earliest efforts are simply grotesque must not deter from further effort. If they make merely an attempt, the purpose of the work has been in some degree accomplished; which purpose is the cultivation of the power to concentrate the attention, to observe detail, and to remember the same. This practice increases many fold the value of the object lesson, while in

the study of geography and the natural sciences it is invaluable. As the pupils advance in their regular drawing-class work and gain a juster appreciation of form, a knowledge of light and shade, and of perspective, the quality of these illustrations will improve.

A double purpose is here served. The wider application of art knowledge increases the pupil's skill while at the same time it serves to advance his education in the other branches. As a result of art instruction pursued in this manner we may expect a more finely developed perceptive power, an improved ability to remember and imagine forms, and consequently a higher rate of progress in all those studies and aptitudes that may be influenced by the improved quality of these faculties. It enables one to enjoy with keener delight the manifold beauties that nature spreads on every side and to understand the messages that the gifted send through painted and sculptured art. It gives the power to receive and convey ideas through the language of form. It makes the skilful workman, capable of producing artistic wares, and it makes the appreciative buyer. In the words of one of art's devoutest worshipers: "It opens new fields of enjoyment, new powers of comprehension, and a broader basis for a correct understanding and a sound judgment of whatever belongs to human experience."

PROCEEDINGS AND ADDRESSES

OF THE

DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC EDUCATION.

MUSIC DEPARTMENT.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

JULY 14, 1892.

THE eighth annual meeting of the Music Department of the National Education Association was opened at 3 P.M., in the Second Presbyterian Church, by prayer by the Rev. A. H. Trick, Pastor of the Second Presbyterian Church, Saratoga. This was followed by four selections, entitled "Mount Vernon Bells," "America" in two-part music, "Tenting Tonight," and a hymn, "Now the day is over," in two-part music, by the children of the public schools of Saratoga, under the direction of David M. Kelsey, teacher of music, Saratoga.

The President's Address was then given, and was followed by a contralto solo entitled "Call me Back," by Miss Myrtle Mabbett, of Saratoga. This was followed by a paper on "The Value of Music in Public Education," etc., by George C. Young, Wichita, Kansas. Discussion of this paper was opened by W. E. Pulsifer, New York City. Mr. Pulsifer's time was extended by a vote of the meeting beyond the eight-minute limit. The discussion was then thrown open to members of the department. Mr. Twitchell, of Paterson, called out H. E. Holt, of Boston, who discussed the paper. He said: "I received the questions sent out by Mr. Pulsifer, and replied that I had no time to answer these questions except the last. To this I answered emphatically, Yes. We have gotten beyond the stage of doubt on the other questions. It seems to me that we in this music section of the National Education Association are much behind the other sections. We should now turn our attention to learning how better to teach music in the public schools. We, as musicians, are constantly asking our pupils to do what we ourselves cannot do—sing independently. I do not believe in the theory that none but professional people are able to teach music."

Supt. Powell, of Washington, was called out by Mr. Pulsifer. He said: "I indorse what has been said this afternoon, particularly by Mr. Holt. I have been spending a great deal of time in finding out how to teach music as we teach other subjects, objectively. I looked for the man who could tell me how, and I found him in Mr. Holt, and I followed him up till I found out how from him. I differ from Mr. Holt in his opinion that the teacher who doesn't know how to sing can teach music, espe-

cially to little folks. It can't be done, Mr. Holt to the contrary notwithstanding. Allow me another thought. The teacher should give much of his time in getting the children to distinguish sound, and then to make them musical."

Mr. Philip C. Hayden, of Quincy, Ill., said: "Mr. Powell declares that music can't be taught except by a musician, but I wish to differ with him. There is here in this audience a lady who never sang a song in her life, and never sings a note before her class, but for the past three years she has most successfully taught music in one of the schools of Quincy. This, I think, is an argument which Mr. Powell cannot meet."

The audience was then favored by the following selections upon the violoncello by Victor Herbert: "Träumerei," by Schumann, and "La Cinquantaine," by Gabriel Marie. After vigorous applause, Mr. Herbert gave a third selection. A vote of thanks was then offered as follows:

Resolved, That the thanks of this audience are due to Victor Herbert for his exquisite playing, Professor Lund in accompanying Mr. Herbert, and to them both for their kindness in favoring us this afternoon.

The next paper on the programme, "Music as an Aid in School Government," was not given, as Mrs. Thomas was unable to be present on account of sickness. The discussion by Mr. W. K. Steffy, of Elmira, was also omitted.

The next paper, "Music in the Public Schools: What it is and what it ought to be," by A. J. Gantvoort, Piqua, O., was then read. This paper aroused a vigorous discussion, though the one who was to open the discussion, Mr. F. A. Lyman, of Syracuse, was not present.

Principal Round, of Elmira, asked that some one eminent in the teaching of music would explain to him why it was that a class of pupils would sometimes sing flat and sometimes the same selection accurately. Professor Holt was called on, and said this was one of the things in music very difficult to explain, but that he was convinced that it was largely due to lack of study and voice-training. Mr. Gantvoort said that the teachers are to blame, usually, if pupils flat, because they do not inspire them to sing accurately.

Professor Howard, of Bridgeport, Conn., said that he indorsed what the President in his opening address had said, if he correctly understood it: that the musical director should carefully study the voices of the pupils, and should help the teachers, so that they could help in cultivation of the pupils' voices. The discussion was further continued by N. Coe Stewart, of Cleveland, O., W. K. Steffy, Elmira, David M. Kelsey, Saratoga, N. L. Glover, Akron, O., and Philip C. Hayden, of Quincy, Ill. In closing the discussion, Mr. Forsman said that, from his observation, he believed that the occasion of flatting was largely due to physical condition.

The President then appointed as a Nominating Committee, N. Coe Stewart, of Cleveland, O., George C. Young, Wichita, Kan., and Philip C. Hayden, Quincy, Ill., with instructions to report at the opening of the next meeting.

The meeting then adjourned until the next day, at 3 P.M.

SECOND SESSION.

JULY 15. 1892.

The second session of the eighth annual meeting of the Department of Music of the National Educational Association was opened by a solo by Miss Alice Humeston, of Saratoga. This was followed by a paper, "Music in Public Education and Some Elements Essential to its Success," by Philip C. Hayden, Quincy, Ill. Mr. Hayden, before presenting his paper, spoke as follows:

"In order to put myself more quickly in sympathy with the atmosphere of this meeting, and as an introduction to my paper, allow me to informally give expression to some thoughts suggested by the papers and addresses which we heard yesterday afternoon in this section. The paper to be read is not a theoretical one, but is the outcome of work in schools along the line indicated. We shall have no time to discuss methods. They lie back of the results which we strive to attain, and are all important and vital, but it is a vexed question which cannot be settled by discussion, but which will be settled only when right methods bring forth their perfect fruit of good works and are seen of all men. The question of results is the important one. Let us decide together what results we are aiming to secure before we differ as to how to secure them. Let us first speak what we should teach before we discuss how we should teach it. The papers read and the remarks made yesterday show that there is a vast amount of faulty teaching in our schools, and the paper read leads up to the practical question of how this is to be remedied. We are confronted by this deplorable condition in our school music. What shall we do about it? The paper presents a suggestion which, I trust, will meet the support of the members of this section.

"One further remark: we wish it understood that in the using of the word music we do not mean singing; we mean by it the mental effects of scales and intervals and the harmonic relations of tones and keys. Singing or playing may be the expression of these mental concepts, or they may be the veriest mechanical performance of a selection of music, which may be put on a level with driving nails or sawing wood. Having made these prefatory remarks called out by the papers and discussions of yesterday, I will proceed with my paper."

After the able paper by Mr. Hayden, the Misses A. G. and Nettie S.

Carey and Messrs. J. S. Pardee and G. R. P. Shackelford favored the audience with the quartette entitled "Maiden with the Lips so Rosy"—*Jan Gill.*

The discussion of Mr. Hayden's paper was opened by N. Coe Stewart, Cleveland, O.:

"It seems to have been determined by much philosophical investigation and practical induction, and hence has become the prevailing opinion, that in perfect mental, moral, and physical development, the proper study of music, woven into each individual life, as the education has proceeded from childhood to manhood and womanhood, makes a better quality of material in the individual person, gives him material for enjoyment and self-employment, makes him of greater service in the family and in society, and, consequently, better fitted for the duties and relationships of life. Music, therefore, should be an element in public education. It requires much time for communities universally to come to this conclusion, but progress is being made in this direction, and in proportion as proper teaching and proper hearing of music create better ideals, communities will advance; for public opinion, like organic life, must grow, and the quality and extent of growth depend on what it feeds upon, and the time and care required for full development.

"These are some of the elements to its success; namely, the general public, the parents, the school authorities, the teacher, and the children. These all, except the children, are the parties interested in the education of the children, who in time are to become the parents, the school authorities, and the general public. Upon the appreciation of the public, the parents, and the school force, and upon the qualifications of the teachers—proper teaching—as well as upon the right learning of the children, their continued and earnest practice of the same, depend the result. Proper teaching of music in public schools is comparatively a new study; hence proper conditions in all of the foregoing parties cannot be expected. The work, then, while doing the best possible with the present school population, is also to educate the public to right appreciation of the necessary conditions. This must be done by interesting the children, and by so instructing them that they will desire to learn, will make the necessary effort, and will continue the study and the practice."

At the close of his discussion, Mr. Stewart offered the following series of resolutions, which were seconded and discussed by Mr. F. E. Howard, of Bridgeport, Conn.

Resolved, That it is the sense of the music section of the N. E. A.; that,

First. Sight singing, that is, the thinking of musical tones in their scale and harmonic relations, the thinking of rhythm, of tone lengths, and the quick perception of the signs which stand for these definite mental concepts, should be taught in the primary grades, and made the basis of all work in music.

Second. Good quality of tone should be sought in all exercises and songs; and the

voices of children should be protected from injury by avoiding the extremes of high and low pitch, or of loud and soft singing, and by securing distinct articulation.

Third. Correct intonation and blended voices in part singing should be developed.

Fourth Musical taste should be cultivated by the use of best music in all grades.

Fifth. Emotional or expressive singing should be secured.

These resolutions were adopted by a unanimous vote.

Following this, Benjamin Jepson, of New Haven, Conn., read a paper on "Methods and Devices in Teaching Music," which was followed by an exercise illustrating this, with a choir of twelve boys, twelve and thirteen years of age, of the seventh grade in the New Haven school.

After the exercise a vote of thanks was unanimously extended to Mr. Jepson and his choir of boys for their excellent work in illustrating methods of instruction and the delight they gave by their song-singing.

The Committee on Nominations reported as follows:

President—N. L. Glover, Akron, Ohio.

Vice-President—Benjamin Jepson, New Haven, Conn.

Secretary—George C. Young, Wichita, Kansas.

These officers were unanimously elected.

The section then stood adjourned *sine die*.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

N. L. GLOVER.

FELLOW TEACHERS: Our annual meeting again brings us together. The object of these meetings is too well understood to demand attention at this late period in the existence of educational associations.

This year, we believe, marks the greatest elevation of our beloved art (in an educational way) that it has attained since its incipiency. We base this conclusion upon the fact that at no time in the history of the world has it been possible to disseminate knowledge as at the present period. The wonderful annual increase of educational and art journals, the great facilities for the distribution of them, and the willingness of musicians and educators to take up the pen in the interests of their profession—these and many other indications bring us to the conclusion alluded to above.

Of a certainty we have not reached that degree of excellency whereby we may relax our efforts and feel that we have accomplished all that is desirable. There are yet many barriers that stand in the way of anything like uniform success, one or two of which I will endeavor to indicate. It has become proverbial that superintendents of public instruction almost invariably prefix any remarks that they may make at these meetings, upon the subject of music, with the statement that they "know nothing whatever about the matter." After which they proceed to make manifest the truthfulness of the assertion.

We would not require that superintendents of schools be specialists in music, but would have them sufficiently informed to readily discern the difference between successful results and a superficial imitation of the same. This would not demand a great knowledge of the subject. With proper investigation they could readily perceive the difference between a good and an indifferent quality of tone. Then, too, it would not call for unusual attainments, for them to absolutely determine the readiness with which the pupils under their supervision read music at sight. These are very important factors, the possession of which will almost invariably insure the remaining essentials. We believe this an important duty that rests with superintendents of schools. We also think that the general public have a right to expect that men having the management of their schools shall be competent, general men.

Another obstacle in the way of a high degree of success is the wide difference of opinion existing between music teachers, as to what may be termed ideal results in music.

Not long since, we listened to an address upon the subject, "Music in the Public Schools," which was illustrated by a class drill. A goodly part of the address was directed to the tone quality that should be recognized and propagated. The expressed ideas concerning this important branch of our work were excellent, but the practical illustrations as given by the class were indifferent indeed.

We believe that no one should be intrusted with the responsible occupation of directing the voices of youth in singing, without having at least a practical knowledge of vocal culture. The abuses that arise from a lack of this knowledge are manifold, and obviously very disastrous.

In conclusion, let me urge upon every music teacher, every superintendent of public education, and every friend of music, to use all the influence at command to see that vocal music be made a part of the course of study in every school in this broad land of ours, including, of course, the rural districts; so that a pupil, whether he come from the country, village, or city to enter our schools, may have had musical instruction commensurate with his other attainments.

We will now submit to you our programme, which we hope may furnish material for beneficial reflection. We desire that a free and kindly discussion of each number may be participated in.

THE VALUE OF MUSIC IN PUBLIC EDUCATION AS A MEANS OF DISCIPLINE AND CULTURE.

BY GEORGE C. YOUNG, WICHITA, KANSAS.

THE genius of music is as old as creation. In the twilight of history the "music of the spheres" was but the prelude to a science that has commanded the attention of the profoundest thinkers of all times, and the development of an art that appeals to the highest type of culture.

And yet the three famous verses on Peter Bell, to whom

> "A primrose by the river's brim
> A yellow primrose was to him,
> And it was nothing more,"

might be readily paraphrased, and in their new setting be justly applied to the crusty Dr. Johnsons, the self-elected critics, and to a large class of presumably intelligent people, to whom music is mere sound, and "nothing more."

If for no other purpose than to serve as a means of defense against the unwarranted assumptions of those who would deny the potency of music as an agent for intellectual and moral growth, it may not be uninteresting

for us to pause a moment at the threshold of this discussion to note what some of the master minds of the world have said about it.

Plato wrote: "Music is a moral law. It gives a soul to the universe, flight to the imagination, a charm to sadness, gayety and life to everything. It is the essence of order, and leads to all that is good, just, and beautiful, of which it is the invisible, but nevertheless dazzling, passionate, and eternal form."

"Music," said Luther, "is one of the best arts. The notes breathe life into the text. Music drives away sadness, quickens and refreshes the heart. It is half the discipline, and makes men more gentle, more modest and sensible. Music I have always loved. A schoolmaster must know how to sing, else I will have nothing to do with him. It is a beautiful and noble gift of God."

Beecher esteemed music so highly as to take the ground that "in singing you come into sympathy with the truth as you perhaps never do under the preaching of a discourse."

That wonderfully gifted woman, Margaret Fuller, wrote in her journal in regard to the influence of music: "I felt raised above all care, all pain, all fear, and every taint of vulgarity was washed out of the world."

The Grand Old Man of England says: "They who think music ranks among the trifles of existence are in gross error, because from the beginning of the world down to the present time it has been one of the most forcible instruments both for training, for arousing, and for governing the spirit of man."

Even the trenchant Carlyle found it possible to rise above the mutterings of his discontent into the serene atmosphere of music, when he said: "All inmost things are melodious; naturally utter themselves in song. The meaning of song goes deep. Who is there that, in logical words, can express the effect music has on us? A kind of inarticulate, unfathomable speech, which leads us to the edge of the infinite, and lets us for moments gaze into that!"

If these estimates are true, and they might be almost indefinitely multiplied, we may at once claim a place for music as a regular branch of instruction in public school education; and if it possesses sufficient merit to justify such a claim, its value, from whatever point of view it may be regarded, is worth some consideration.

I wish to give to the word discipline the broadest interpretation. I shall not confine it to the sense in which we ordinarily hear it used. Whatever contributes to one's mental growth, whatever enlarges our range of vision, whatever gives us a keener insight into the relations of things—that is discipline, at once the means and the end of all true education.

With this point clearly defined in our minds, we shall find the one great value that music possesses consists in the relation that it bears

to other studies, aiding them both directly and indirectly by means of this contact. While it stimulates the faculties in general, it renders us little assistance in the cultivation of the will, it strengthens the memory, inspires the imagination, leads to habits of exact thought, and promotes graceful expression in reading and speaking. In every song a child attempts to interpret, he is training the eye, the ear, the memory, the voice, each performing a distinct service, yet blending in the one thought the song is intended to convey; nor must we forget that beneath these outward forms lies the silent influence of that inward grace, the training of the emotional nature, and the cultivation of that peculiar sympathy which human nature always demands, but which is so desirable in child-life.

Perhaps the more immediate effect of music as a related study is apparent in the work of reading. It is very evident that the cultivation of the soft, pure tone of voice in every singing exercise, whether that exercise be a practical drill or a song for recreation simply, cannot pass without in a large measure reacting on the vocal drills incident to the reading lesson. It does not of necessity follow that a good singing school must be a good reading school, but, other things being equal, the child that uses his voice correctly in singing will know how to use it correctly in reading. Speech may be made melodious, and the testimony of those who have taken the pains to look into the results in this regard, is unanimous in support of the belief that the rapidly fading sing-song and drawl of the reading class of our earlier years are largely due to the influence of music in the schoolroom. If reading is thus made better, all oral work may be improved; and if proper articulation, clear enunciation, and correct intonation be made an essential part of every musical exercise, it will surely bear fruit in promoting flexibility, facility, and correctness in everything in which our pupils are expected to express themselves in any way whatsoever.

Again, were music desired for disciplinary purposes merely as a means of control, it would be found to fully meet all that could reasonably be demanded of it. How often does it act as a safety valve through which an overflow of boyish fun or girlish mischief may expend itself, and thus, in the pleasantest way possible, harmonize the discordant elements that so frequently arise between muscular and intellectual activity! Periods of unrest, moments of fear, and occasions of nervous excitement may all be controlled by some simple song.

Another source of more than ordinary value in the study of vocal music, and one which is of vital interest to every person, is the service it renders in the promotion of health. "It accomplishes this *directly*, by the exercise which it gives the lungs and other vital organs; and *indirectly*, by the cheerfulness and genial flow of spirits which it is the prerogative of music to bestow. Vocal music cannot be performed without an increased

action of the lungs; and an increased action of the lungs necessarily causes an increased action of the heart, and of all the organs of digestion and nutrition. The singer brings a greater quantity of air in contact with the blood. Hence the blood is better purified and vitalized. Good blood gives more active and vigorous play to all the organs of absorption, assimilation, and excretion. The better these functions are performed, the purer will be the influences which ascend to the brain. The scientific physiologist can trace the effects of singing from the lungs into the blood, from the blood into the processes of nutrition, and back again into the blood, and into the nerves, and, finally, from the whole vital tissue into the brain, to be there developed into the flower and fruit of cheerfulness, increased health, increased strength, and prolonged life."

In support of the foregoing, and especially of the preceding statement, which is given from a musical point of view, I beg to quote the opinion of Dr. Charles Warren, of the United States Bureau of Education. He says: "It is well to remember that singing, when well and gradually done during the whole of school life, affects favorably distinctness of hearing, the health of the throat and lungs, the stature and carriage of the body, and the development and shape of the thorax; that by judicious alternation with other studies it preserves the beautiful childish capacity of quick perception and retentive memory, while it does not interfere with the acquirement of that tenacity and continuity in all effort which will be found useful in later life; and that of all arts it is among the most social, natural, humanistic, and permanent in all the occupations and responsibilities of maturer life and culture."

Before so intelligent an audience, it is needless for me to enlarge upon the influence of music in relation to the development of the moral nature. Not a small part of the earnest teacher's work is to illustrate, both by precept and example, the moral value of refined pleasures, and I assume that you appreciate the advantages that music affords in this particular.

For the same reason, I shall refer but briefly to music as a means of culture, awakening and refreshing as it does the intellectual activities, cultivating the phantasy, and touching the life of the soul far beneath the analytic processes of thought, thus abiding with us as an agency for good in our strivings for the ideal life. This power which reaches out into the infinite for its inspiration, this force which permeates all nature, is not an emotional fancy, is not the caprice of some turbulent soul, is not the whim of some day-dreamer's vagaries. Take the best of Bach, Beethoven, Mendelssohn, Mozart, Chopin, or Schumann, let it enter into one's inner life and become an essential part of his being, "what culture can he lack that would seem rich enough to covet in exchange for this! And all the more by virtue of this one unspeakable possession will he be sensitively open, heart and mind, to every hint of truth and beauty in nature, in poetry and art, in history, philosophy, or science."

Music enters into all the conditions of life. It is at the cradle as the mother, with some familiar melody, or, perhaps, an improvised lullaby, hushes her child to sleep; it is at the marriage altar to mellow the stern "Wilt thou?" and strengthen the confident "I will"; it is in the sanctuary to sanctify the holy office and hallow the sacred service; it is in the home circle as a wall of protection around the dear ones who are soon to go out from the anxious eye of father and mother; it gives an unceasing charm to social life, while it lends character to public life; and it is at the grave to comfort the grief-stricken heart, and to waft the soul, released from earth, beyond the spangled court of God into the sunlight of glorified peace.

With an agency of this character, meeting us under so many different circumstances and affecting us in so many different experiences, at our command, if we may regard ourselves as centers of influence for the development of the mind, the heart, the soul, we shall, as we radiate from our various centers, touch first the magnificent army of school children with whom we come into daily contact; these children, perhaps feebly in their earlier years, but more and more strongly as they struggle upward, will touch the home circle; the influence of the home circle will reach out in many different ways and affect the social circle; the social circle with its numberless charms will tone the more practical life of the public circle; and thus, as these circles widen and become more far-reaching, the influence of this sweet, persuasive power shall grow and continue to grow until it has received due recognition in its unlimited resources to refine, elevate, and expand all the lasting associations of life.

Accepting music, then, as an essential in all processes of education, placing it, where it justly belongs, on the same plane with other branches of study, and regarding it as such from the highest point of view, let us, as co-workers in this field of action, endeavor to read more intelligently the underlying thought of the text we are seeking to interpret; and, seeing thus more clearly for ourselves, we shall be the means of helping others to see that Divine light which, beaming in rich effulgence through the pages of prophetic genius, shines for all who are willing to behold its rays as they fall from an altar that stands as the symbol of unselfish devotion to one's self-purpose, and before which no one need hesitate to bow.

DISCUSSION.

W. E. PULSIFER, New York City.—*Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:* Should vocal music have a place in the curriculum of the public schools? Relatively, is the subject of sufficient value from an educational point of view to have its time and place in the course of study with reading writing, arithmetic, and the other required branches? Is it purely an ornamental study, and the main reason why it should be taught, that it gives pleasure to the pupils or is a means of relaxation from the fatigue

consequent upon close attention and application to the other studies of the curriculum? Can the friends of music give sound pedagogical reasons, based upon observation and experience, to the patrons of the schools and the taxpayers who support them, why the pupils should concern themselves at all with this subject in the public schools?

These are practical questions that we must satisfactorily answer to members of school boards, some of whom are often honestly skeptical concerning the wisdom of teaching music at all in the schools, to a large number of taxpayers whose ideas of education are found shut in somewhere between the lines of the triangle each vertex of which is marked with an R, and to those musical people who are frequently superciliously critical, and profess to believe that nothing good can be found outside the wall of their little Nazareth.

Fortunately music, as a school study, has now passed beyond the experimental stage. It is now possible to present to those who object to it as a branch of public school education the most indisputable evidence to show the value of music, first, as a means of mental discipline; second, as an almost invaluable aid in moral education; and, third, as a potent agency in securing a helpful discipline in the schoolroom.

The history of music is as old as the history of civilization. A certain sort of music seems to have existed in all countries and at all times. The Hebrews, Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans considered music as one of the essential elements of their civilization, and accordingly fostered it. "Plato and Aristotle seem to have agreed in thinking," says Paine, "that the rhythm and harmony of music inspire the soul with the love of order, with harmonious regularity and a soothing of the passions." Music, as we all know, held a large place in the life of the Greeks. Their laws were promulgated in song. You remember it was held that the education of Themistocles had been neglected because he did not know music. Although Plato placed a high value on gymnastics, he regarded music as of more importance. "We attach," says Plato, "such great importance to a musical education because rhythm and harmony sink most deeply into the recesses of the soul, bringing gracefulness in their train." Quintilian would have the child taught geometry, music, and philosophy simultaneously. For this plan he proposes the following argument: "Must he, the child, learn grammar alone, and then geometry, and in the meantime forget what he first learned? As well advise a farmer not to cultivate at the same time his fields, his vines, and his orchards and not give his thought simultaneously to his meadows, his cattle, his gardens, and his bees." He considered music an excellent preparation for eloquence, as he thought it cultivated the sense of harmony and a taste for number and measure. The Quadrivium, one of the courses of study of the middle age, comprised music, arithmetic, geometry, and astronomy. Luther, as you doubtless remember, attached great importance to music, especially vocal music. "Unless a schoolmaster knows how to sing I think him of no account," he says. Germany, France, England, and other modern European countries have recognized the value of a training in music, and the fact that that training should be begun early, to the end that the voice of the pupil might be well shaped and his ear properly educated from the beginning. Mr. E. Mooney, in a paper read at the International Health Exhibition, London, 1884, discusses the importance of music in the schools in the following manner: "Where should music then be placed in the system of primary education? I answer: Music must be distinguished in two different capacities; first, as a means of culture; second, as a special form of knowledge; and at once I say that in its first capacity it is entitled to be treated with the three R's as a necessary element or instrument of mental culture."

Mr. John Spencer Carwin, the noted tonic-sol-faist, and Her Majesty's assistant inspector of music, W. G. McNaught, who also read papers at this meeting, were equally emphatic in their statement that music is of the very first importance as a means of mental development, and insisted with much earnestness that it should be more diligently taught in both country and city schools.

Having now shown the high regard that music has inspired in the minds of all civilized people since civilization began, allow me to come more directly to the discussion of the subject, music as a means of mental development; and here I want to put on the witness stand some of the foremost educators of the country, whose opinions it is worth while to carefully consider. Four questions were prepared and presented to these educators, to which answers have been returned. The questions were as follows:

1. Do you think that the subject of vocal music should have a place in the public school curriculum?

2. Do you consider vocal music, as it should be taught in the schools, a means of stimulating and developing the mental faculties?

3. Which particular faculties of the mind do you think vocal music most directly stimulates?

4. In your judgment, should vocal music be made a required study by act of Legislature?

Hon. Andrew S. Draper, Superintendent-elect of the Cleveland schools, and ex-Superintendent of the public schools of the State of New York, answers "Yes" to the first question. To the second, "Perhaps so. Certainly does no harm in that direction. Anyway it makes school life and then home life brighter and happier." To question four he gives an affirmative answer.

Hon. John W. Dickinson, Secretary of State Board of Education, Mass., replies: 1st, "I think that vocal music should be one of the regular branches of instruction in all grades of our public schools." 2d, "Musical sounds, as they fall upon the ear, may produce an agreeable effect without regard to what they may express. They may produce a pleasing effect, by being the representatives of other sounds, or by expressing ideas and emotions. Whatever is agreeable or pleasing to us, becomes an object of our desires. In the desires is found one source of motives that move the will. Whatever moves the will is the occasion of activity, and mental activity develops the powers that act." 3d, "The perceptive faculties, imagination, the mental sensibility, called taste, the moral sensibility, called conscience, and the will. Music is naturally associated with our ideas of beauty and sublimity, and the employment of musical sounds in expressing these ideas stimulates the mind to a more intense activity in forming them (the ideas)." 4th, "I am sure that a complete course of studies must include vocal music among the *branches to be taught in all our schools.*"

Dr. Edward Brooks, Supt. of Schools, Philadelphia, replies; 1st, "I most certainly think that it should." 2d, "It is especially adapted to cultivate the sensibilities and the moral nature, and thus elevate and refine the character." 3d, "The sensibilities and the moral feeling. Indirectly, like gymnastics, only in a higher degree, it gives tone to all mental activity. It is an intellectual tonic." 4th, "I have not a decided opinion."

Dr. Wm. H. Maxwell, Supt. Brooklyn Public Schools, replies: 1st, "Yes." 2d, "Yes." 3d, "All of them." 4th, "No."

Supt. W. B. Powell, Washington, D. C., answers: 1st, "Most certainly." 2d, "Yes." 3d, "Perception, memory, judgment, its tendency to develop a fine discriminative power is most valuable and remarkable, attention, imagination." 4th, "Yes."

Supt. Edwin P. Seaver, Boston Public Schools, replies: 1st, "I do." 2d, "Yes." 3d, "The feelings, or emotions. Also perception in tone and harmony." 4th, "Permitted, not required."

Principal Larkin Dunton, of the Boston Normal School, replies: 1st, "I do." 2d, "I do." 3d, "The faculty of hearing, and that of beauty." 4th, "By all means."

Supt. Thomas M. Balliet, Springfield, Mass., answers: 1st, "Yes." 2d, "Yes, to some extent. It certainly develops the power of tone-perception as far as the senses are concerned; also the power of comparison." 3d, "I think the chief pedagogical value of music lies in the fact that it is the language of the emotional life and is one of the most effective means of mental culture." 4th, "This involves a question of practical expediency. I feel like answering it affirmatively. Music *ought* to be taught in all schools, but so long as it may be taught very poorly in some, if it is made compulsory, it is a question whether it had better be made compulsory at this time."

Supt. C. B. Gilbert, of St. Paul, replying to question 1st, says "Yes." 2d, "Yes." 3d, "When properly taught, accuracy, perception, judgment, imagination, taste." 4th, "I am inclined to think that legislative action would do more harm than good to the cause of music."

Wm. E. Anderson, of Milwaukee, gives a most excellent reply, as follows: 1st, "I do." 2d, "I answer this question emphatically in the affirmative. While it develops the mental faculties its larger influence is exerted in developing moral sentiment and social feelings. Without singing in the schools, without the songs of the age, some of the best flavors of our civilization would be lost in our system of education. I believe singing should be systematic and technical, but in all the lower grades should include a liberal portion of the time in singing a variety of songs or hymns." 3d, "Vocal music improves the faculties largely by improvement of the sensibilities. It is therefore more indirect than direct. Rhythm, tone, simple incident with sentiment and proverb, form the staple literary composition of vocal exercises. The most positive and direct result of vocal music is in its appeal to the moral and emotional nature of the child." 4th, "I do not think it necessary to make vocal music a study by act of legislature. I have a suspicion of the motives which suggest the making of any particular branch compulsory. If you mean it should be required as one of the elementary subjects, to be taught as reading and arithmetic, then I see no objection."

Supt. L. H. Jones, of Indianapolis, answers: 1st, "Certainly, in all city and village schools." 2d, "To a high degree." 3d, "Discrimination, judgment, taste (or

æsthetic faculties in full) and the finer emotions." 4th, "Yes, as in answer to question 1."

Supt. Gove, of Denver, answers: 1st, "Yes." 2d, "Yes." 4th, "No." His paper read before this body at St. Paul, 1890, clearly sets forth his views on this question, and should be read by every friend of school music.

Supt. A. P. Marble, of Worcester, Mass., says in answer to question 1st, "Yes." 2d, "Yes." 3d, "Attention." 4th, "Yes."

Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia College, replies: "I cannot answer fully, owing to pressure of work, regarding music in the schools. That it has an important place in education is very certain, for its psychological influence, while subtle, is very real."

Supt. C. E. Meleney, of Somerville, Mass., expresses his views as follows: 1st, "Most certainly." 2d, "I consider it an important and very effective means of mental training." 3d, "Perception through voice and ear training. Thought power in the development of the concept of musical tones—representation. The habits formed by proper music instruction are of especial importance in education. Attention, precision, time, self-restraint, subordination, etc., and *a whole chapter* on moral values." 4th, "Am not prepared to say."

Supt. Benj. Baker, Newport, R. I., answers: 1st, "Yes." 2d, "Yes." 3d, "Perception in its relations to sounds, judgment as to classification of sounds, and reason as to the relation of sounds. Vocal music, properly taught, is also a tonic to the emotions, cultivates the taste, and puts a person in possession of a new mode of expression for his feelings."

Supt. Gregory, of Trenton, says "Yes" to questions 1st and 2d. 3d, "Perception and imagination." As to the 4th, he is in doubt.

Supt. C. N. Campbell, of Saginaw, Mich., answers: 1st, "Yes, by all means." 2d, "Decidedly. Its educational value is great." 3d, "Judgment, observation, memory. It trains to attention and accuracy." 4th, "I believe so. Schools should train the moral nature. Unless they do that, they fail. Music, properly taught, is of very great value along special lines."

Supt. Mary S. Snow, of Bangor, Me., replies: 1st, "A thousand times yes." 2d, "Most absolutely." 3d, "Concentration, perception, calculation, imagination, attention." 4th, "Perhaps so, on the theory that a bird that can sing, etc."

Supt. Amos Hyatt, of Des Moines, Ia., replies: 1st, "Yes, by all means. I know of no study that is productive of more good than music. It would be very difficult to get our people to abandon it." 2d, "Yes, we find that pupils will take music in the schools and then do better work in other branches than they did before. But it is in the line of character building that music has the most power." 3d, "Memory, seeing, harmony, love, reverence, conscience, admiration." 4th, "No." Thinks if the question is forced, harm would be done. Believes in keeping sentiment in favor of music alive, and then the music question will be settled according to the desires of its promoters.

Dr. Bouton, Supt. at Bridgeport, Conn., answers: 1st, "Yes." 2d, "Yes." 3d, "Attention, quickness of apprehension, memory, accuracy." 4th, "At least, not at present."

Professor Edward Conant, Principal of the Normal School at Randolph, Vt., replies: 1st, "Yes." 2d, "Yes." 3d, "The power of voluntary attention as associated with perceptive and reproductive powers." 4th, "Yes, whenever the conditions will permit the enforcement of such requirement."

Supt. Hatch, of New Bedford, replies: 1st, "I do." 2d, "I do." 3d, "The æsthetic faculties chiefly, that is, the emotional. Of course, the training and discipline that come through the proper teaching of music, reaches other and various faculties." 4th, "I do not."

Supt. William E. Buck, Manchester, N. H., replies: 1st, "Certainly I do." 2d, "Yes." 3d, "Attention, judgment." 4th, "No; instead, have right kind of school officers elected, then all proper studies will be cared for."

Supt. S. T. Dutton, Brookline, Mass., replied: 1st, "Without any question. It is a very important element in both æsthetic and moral culture." 2d, "Certainly it is equal to arithmetic or algebra." 3d, "Attention, judgment, will." 4th, "Just the same as the three R's."

Dr. C. C. Rounds, Principal Plymouth Normal School, Plymouth, N. H., answers: 1st, "Yes." 2d, "In some degree." 3d, "Sense perception through the ear. Attention, comparison. Its main value is æsthetic." 4th, "It would not be well to do this now in New Hampshire."

Supt. Vernon L. Davey, of East Orange, N. J., replies: 1st, "Decidedly yea." 2d, "The mental faculties must be developed by the study of any subject pursued regularly

and logically. This is true whether the subject is coal-ashes, geography, or music. It does not seem to me that there is any particular mental benefit obtained from music in the line of increasing mental power." 3d, "It seems valuable for the pleasure it brings and for its soothing and refining influences" 4th, "No."

Dr. James M. Cassety, of State Normal School, Buffalo, N. Y., replies: 1st, "In a certain way it should. The public school curriculum is so full now that if anything is put in, something must be left out. Singing should be practised daily in all schools. I am not prepared to say that the science of vocal music should be made compulsory study." 2d, "Yes." 3d, "The imagination and a certain faculty of discrimination. It also improves the taste, and improves the æsthetic nature and gives a certain form of pure pleasure that cannot be obtained in any other way." 4th, "No. Leave such matters to the free choice of localities. Home rule."

Supt. W. W. Stetson, Auburn, Me., replies: 1st, "Yes." 2d, "Yes." 3d, "Attention, perception." 4th, "Permitted, yes."

Dr. E. A. Sheldon, Principal, Oswego, replies: 1st, "Yes." 2d, "I do." 3d, "Attention." 4th, "Yes."

Supt. W. H. Love, of Buffalo Normal School, replies: 1st, "I do." 2d, "I do." 3d, "Sense, perception and emotions, particularly æsthetic emotions." 4th, unanswered.

Principal J. H. Haaren, School No. 10, Brooklyn, N. Y., replies: 1st, "Yes." 2d, "Yes." 3d, "While I think it appeals more to the emotions, its study secures power over attention and the effect as a discipline, in my mind, is great." 4th, "Yes; but the mistake made in England should be profitable to us. I believe that the place of the expert teacher is to act as a stimulus, while the class teacher should teach the subject as a regular study."

Professor Charles H. Whiting, formerly a teacher of music in the Boston Public Schools, and the author of the "Whiting Public School Music Course, replies: 1st, "Yes, because I believe it gives more pleasure to the pupil in his school days and after life than any other study." 2d, "Yes, if the child is taught (as he should be) to think as in his other studies." 3d, "Memory, attention, not only to his own singing, but to the other parts. He must keep his own voice in unison with the other parts." 4th, "Yes."

Professor Geo. A. Veazie, an author of repute and the director of music in Chelsea, Mass., public schools, answers: 1st, "Yes." 2d, "Yes." 3d, "Concentration of thought, judgment, memory, reason, quick perception." 4th, "By all means, if for no other reason than that there is no study which can be used so advantageously as a means of inculcating and fostering a love of country and a spirit of patriotism."

Professor A. S. Caswell, director of music, Brooklyn, N. Y., and a well-known author, replies: 1st, "As an extra, as in Brooklyn, yes." 2d, "Undoubtedly." 3d, "Perceptive." Regarding No. 4 he doubts the wisdom of making the subject a required study.

Professor James J. McCabe, teacher of music in the Brooklyn public schools, answers: 1st, "Yes." 2d, "Yes." 3d, "Memory, hearing and sight." 4th, "No."

Mr. Bernard O'Donnell, teacher of music in the Brooklyn public schools, answers: 1st, "I consider it (music) one of the most important studies in the whole list." 2d, "Yes, if it is taught theoretically and practically. Rote singing should not be taught at all except in the lower primary graded schools." 3d, "It trains thought, attention, observation, and correct hearing. Besides it is a positive benefit as a physical exercise, demanding as it does correct position of the body and exercise of the vocal organs," 4th, "I should wish to see it made so, provided it would be under the supervision of trained teachers as well as practical and experienced musicians."

Professor Frederick Chapman, director of music in the Cambridge, Mass., public schools, answers: 1st, "I believe no school curriculum is complete without it. It is true wisdom to cultivate that which makes us happy." 2d, "I believe no study can claim superiority over music in developing mental activity; and if the circumstances attending its thorough teaching are perfect, its influence is at once apparent in all other studies, stimulating and lubricating the mental faculties to wonderful attainments." 3d, "Unquestionably the perceptive faculties." 4th, "I have been on record for years as a thorough believer in and supporter of the fact that vocal music should be made a required study by law."

Principal H. C. Young, Wichita, Kan., replies: 1st, "By all means. It is only by teaching it as a regular branch of instruction, under first-class supervision, that we can look for the best results." 2d, "Yes. Know it to do so through my experience in my present work." 3d, "The mind, the reasoning powers, and the phantasy." 4th, "Yes."

Professor Leonard Marshall, director of music, Boston, answers: 1st, "Yes, most assuredly." 2d, "Yes; I believe if the subject is properly presented and developed, there are few, if any, subjects more potent for stimulating and developing the mental

faculties." 3d, "In answer to this question, I hardly know which faculties to specify. Certainly the imagination and the judgment are awakened and trained; but it seems to me that through the perceptions so many delightful impressions are made upon the brain that the general thinking power is strengthened, and that many, if not all, of the faculties of the mind are brought into action. I would not confine the beneficial effects of music to its influence upon the mental faculties. It has other charms which command our respect and admiration. As a means of moral, spiritual, and physical culture, and because of its bearing upon the health and happiness of each individual, I unhesitatingly answer in the affirmative to the above inquiry."

Mr. L. Richards, director of music in Worcester, Mass., replies: "1st, "Yes." 2d, "Yes." 3d, Unanswered. 4th, "Yes."

Supt. of Schools Bradley, Minneapolis, Minn., replies: 1st, "Yes." 2d, "Yes." 3d, "It cultivates the taste, refines and stimulates all the mental faculties on their æsthetic side." 4th, "I do not see any serious objection, but doubt if it is necessary to enforce instruction in music by legislative requirement."

To recapitulate. All these authorities agree that music should be taught in the public schools.

All agree that music is a valuable means in stimulating, shaping, and developing the faculties of the mind.

The particular faculties of the mind which music most directly stimulates have been mentioned in detail without hesitation or reservation by nearly every writer. As to whether it is wise to make music a required study by act of legislature, there is considerable difference of opinion. "In the multitude of counsellors there is safety."

These eminent educators by general consent then agree that vocal music, because of its value as a means of mental development, as well as for its importance in moral education, should have a place in the curriculum of the public schools.

With such a strong, vigorous, and intelligent sentiment behind them, it is possible for the friends of vocal music to place the subject on so high an educational plane that it may find its way into the course of study of every city and village school in this land. The music of the masters has been to a large number of people in this country practically a sealed book, though it means much more to them now than formerly. But if the public schools continue to do the work so well begun there is no reason why, in the near future, the grand creations of Wagner, Beethoven, Mendelssohn and the other great composers may not be as familiar to the scholar at least as the creations of Shakespeare, Milton, and Bacon. Educators have come to recognize the fact that the three R's give the instruments by which knowledge can be acquired, and that art, especially the art of music, cultivates the sense of feeling for the beautiful, which vivifies the grosser things of life with spiritual beauty. "Science, art, religion. They are the three primary colors which blend and form the living light of the soul."

As we think of the far-reaching influence of this noblest art of all, we feel like exclaiming with the poet:

> "There is a charm, a power that sways the breast,
> Bids every passion revel, or be still;
> Inspires with rage, or all our care dissolves,
> Can soothe distraction and almost despair;
> That power is MUSIC."

MUSIC IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS—WHAT IT IS, AND WHAT IT OUGHT TO BE.

BY A. J. GANTVOORT, PIQUA, OHIO.

IN writing a paper on this topic I was naturally thoroughly conscious of the expansive proportions of the subject, and felt that timidity was entirely out of place in dealing with the first part of it, as much so as a lack of lofty ambition would be with the second part.

I have, therefore, tried to tell briefly the exact state of things as I have

seen it in many places, and to offer my criticisms upon it, in the hope that it may aid some fellow-teacher in whose hands the volume of Proceedings may presently pass, to a better realization of his work, and to the consciousness of its deficiencies.

Let us begin, then, with a view of the instruction of music in the primary grades of some of the schools which I have visited. Upon entering the room with the music teacher I was introduced to the regular teacher and to the children, and, upon my request to hear the children sing, the music teacher began making a staff on the board, asking the children what it was. An answer followed in tremendous chorus. He next placed the notes representing the scale of C on the board, and asked that it be sung, which was done—the children starting each from their own individual tone, ranging from A below the staff up to F first space. By the time the third or fourth tone was reached the stronger boys' voices had drawn the girls' voices with them until, with the exception of two or three, all the voices had the same pitch, finishing about B flat. The teacher then turned to explain to me about the owners of the voices who were not in pitch with the rest, and expatiated on the difficulty of treating them for fully three minutes; the children, meanwhile, sitting idle, anxiously awaiting a word of praise or instruction. The teacher then continued asking questions of a technical nature, such as definitions of a bar, a measure, a note, a tone, a scale, and so forth. This continued for fully fifteen minutes of the twenty minutes assigned for the lesson. Irritated almost beyond endurance by the teacher's catechising of the children on such questions, I asked him to please let them sing something, as the children were evidently anxious to do it. Assent was given, and the children were asked what they would like to sing. There were numerous requests for different songs, but judge of my surprise when, after consultation with the regular teacher, a decision was given in favor of a song telling all about the bones in the human body. Think of it! six-year-old children singing such things as that wedded to a tune that was simply wooden, and that had to be altered in each verse to suit the words! At the close of the song, which consisted of several verses, the lesson was declared over for the day, and the teacher would not return to that room for a week or more. I left the room thoroughly disgusted, not with the work done, for there had been none done to my knowledge, but with the incapacity of the teacher, the carelessness of the superintendent, who allowed such work to go on in his schools without criticism (for I know he thought the music teacher an exceedingly able exponent of the profession), and almost with myself for having spent the time and money in going to visit this school.

At another place which I visited the teacher informed me how much the children knew about voice-culture, and proceeded to illustrate by having the children perform a series of gymnastic exercises supposed to

favor the correct use of the vocal organs. Fully two-thirds of the lesson time was thus expended in this work, and a little technical questioning on the orthographical part of music, and then the children sang. And such singing as it was, in spite of the so-called voice-culture exercises! It was not singing at all, and words fail me when I try to give it a name.

The higher grades of the same school were no improvement on those of the younger children; but still the teacher in his locality is almost universally considered one of the brightest members of the profession, because he so thoroughly understands voice-culture that the children do not need any further private instruction to become great singers. The teacher confidently informed me that he had a natural voice, and that when he went to a voice-teacher in a certain city he was informed that his singing was already perfect, and he needed no further instruction. I could go on with this subject of music in the primary grades almost *ad infinitum*, but I will not weary you with a further recital. Suffice it to say that, in four out of every five schools which I have visited, theory, technicalities, and so-called voice-culture absorbed three-fourths of the lesson time, and singing the remainder.

Now, I am well aware that a certain amount of theory is necessary, but it is so infinitely small in comparison with what is attempted in many places, that it seems hardly necessary to mention it. The third and fourth years of school seem to be the best time for instruction in the technicalities of music, because they can be better understood and more clearly realized than at the earlier ages, and because the pupils at that age seem to remember more clearly the things they learn than either before or afterward. There is one more thing which I noticed almost universally in my visits to various schools in different States, and that was the poor class of songs which were taught the children; such songs as had not only no musical value whatever, but were positively silly as regards the text, and absolutely wooden as regards the melody; or else songs whose text and music were very good, but better adapted to children of a much advanced age. There seems to be a dearth of real good poetry for children that can be adapted to music; but I cannot help thinking that if a want was more universally felt for this class of literature it would not be long till that want was filled.

Let us now take a look at the work in the intermediate grades, say the fifth and sixth years of school. As a rule, the work is much more satisfactory in some respects than that in the lower grades. There is, however, one thing absolutely necessary to a proper realization of what music in the public schools should be, and that is the cutting loose from singing by syllable. The child which can only sing the song or exercise properly belonging to his or her grade after a repeated singing of the syllables has not fulfilled the ideal realization of the possibilities of the work in that grade. Only a few days ago, I heard a music teacher of many years'

standing, a man who has occupied a prominent position for more than twenty years, say that he could read music at sight, but not at first sight, and when quizzed as to what he meant by reading music at sight he answered that he meant reading the notes by syllable, not the words and music, as that was a double performance. The thing was so utterly absurd that I could scarcely contain myself, and asked him what use vocal music was without the words. Fellow-teachers, there is something wrong with our methods of work if we do not realize the result of having enabled the majority of children to read words and music at sight. It *can* be done, and *is* done by some teachers, and I for one am anxiously and devoutly studying methods for the purpose of thoroughly achieving this result, and I expect to do it in the higher grades as I am doing it already in some of the lower ones. But we must first of all cut loose from an entire dependence on the syllable system, which should be regarded only as a crutch or a brace which is to be laid aside as soon as possible so that we may be able to get along without it and get strong from within and not from without.

While on this subject it seems perfectly appropriate to state the custom and manner of the ancient Greek system of teaching music. The child first learned to read and write simultaneously a given lesson, and on the next day he learned to sing the same lesson. The reading and writing lesson was necessarily thoroughly adapted to the capabilities of the child, and the music was consequently of the same grade of difficulty. How is this done to-day? In most places the child first learns to sing the song by syllables, and then without first reading the text learns to sing the song, words and music. Now, is that logical? Can we thus divorce the music from the text without serious loss of understanding of the song? Is it not true that the text suggests the music? If so should not the text be the first to be understood? Why, then, should we teach the music first and give no study whatever to the text? Is that not going backward? The Greeks of the time of Aristotle held music and poetry as inseparable and necessary to the true cultivation of the moral and intellectual qualities of man. But they also held, and logically so, that the music without the text was undefinable and uncertain as far as any meaning was concerned. We know this to be true to-day, even of our advanced state of music. A certain instrumental composition does not excite the same emotions in different individuals. To one, the music seems to portray a storm; to another, the restless feeling of a mind in trouble; to a third, perhaps the homely idea of getting out a week's washing. It is only when music is wedded to a text that it can definitely express any meaning. Let us, then, not neglect the text in the study of the song, and let it be thoroughly adapted to the understanding of the child. Another crying evil in the musical instruction in the intermediate grades is the unnecessary shouting of the boys. The teacher is constantly urging the

boys to sing louder, thus forcing the voices and producing that abominable flatting which we have all experienced, if not in our own schools then in others.

Another fact which I noticed was the inability of many teachers to tell which part was wrong when the school was singing two or three part music. It may seem surprising to some of you, but is nevertheless a fact which I have repeatedly noticed in my visits. The cause is simply a lack of thorough preparation on the teacher's part.

We now come to the grammar grades, the seventh and eighth years of school, when many pupils leave school forever and ought to be able to read at sight the words and music of a simple chorale or anthem without any accompaniment whatever. Can they do it, fellow-teachers? How many of us can hold up our hands and say that three-fourths or even half of our pupils of the eighth year can do this? Of course, you who are present at these meetings can do this and more, for you are alive and progressive teachers, which is proven by your attendance at these meetings every year. But how many others do you know who are able to do this? If we do not accomplish this result there must be something wrong with our method of teaching, and as we are here to learn from each other, to compare methods, and to become conscious of our deficiencies or inflated with the thought that many of the foremost of the profession are doing as we are doing, therefore I sincerely hope that a thorough discussion of methods may follow.

We have now arrived at the point where the high-school work ought to be considered. In many high schools which I have visited, the work is an utter failure, or at least falls far below what might be expected from the excellent work which is sometimes done in the lower grades of the same school. I have in mind now a certain school which I visited last year where the work in the lower grades was apparently very good, but in the A grammar and the high schools it was an utter failure. Not more than one-third of the school sang willingly; another third sang evidently either from a sense of duty or because the eye of the teacher was upon them, and the remaining third sang not at all. I visited this same school again at another time and found things just the same. I began to study the matter to see why this failure in the high-school work when the lower grades were apparently so well taught, and found that the fault lay largely with the teacher. There were several things totally wrong about his high-school work. First, the class of music sung was not educational in its tendency, and of the Sunday-school variety as far as musical value is concerned.

Second, the teacher was hampered by an over-officious superintendent, who thought that the work in the high school could not be well done without his assistance; who informed me, in fact, that his presence was necessary to discipline the room, and to assist the basses in their

struggles with the music, but who really spoiled the music teacher's best efforts.

Third, the teacher could not play a moderately difficult accompaniment to a chorus, and was thus entirely dependent upon a faulty accompanist, whose time was as uncertain as April weather, and whose idea of the altitude of her abilities was only equalled by the profound contempt she had for the music teacher's instrumental inability.

Fourth, the music teacher himself either could not tell which part was wrong when anything went crosswise, and therefore accused the wrong people of the wrong thing; or else blamed the singers when the accompanist was at fault, rather than lose such a valuable assistant; or blamed the sopranos and altos for mistakes when the basses were to blame, for fear of offending the superintendent who sang with them.

Ladies and gentlemen, let me assure you this is not overdrawn, but a fact, and I have no doubt there are many other places where the lack of success in the high-school work is attributable to one or more of these reasons, which may all be said to originate from the same cause, viz.: lack of ability and preparation on the teacher's part.

The teacher of music in the public schools must first be a teacher in the full sense of the word; not a talker, but a teacher; one who knows not only how to impart knowledge to others but who knows how to make others teach themselves, he being simply their guide. Education to be valuable must come from within as well as from without, and I am not sure but the former part is the more valuable. He must also be a person whose knowledge of school work is not confined to a little elementary or even an extensive knowledge of music alone, but who is thoroughly up with the times and who can take an active interest in the other branches of school work and appreciate their value.

Not long ago I heard some teachers talking together on the subject of the time given to music in the school curriculum, the average being twenty minutes per day. It seemed to be the universal opinion among them that what the public had a right to expect from the musical instruction could not be accomplished in that time. I think it can be done if our work is thoroughly systematized and our methods apace with those of other branches of education. I know in Europe the time given to the subject does not exceed fifteen to twenty minutes per day, and the results are reached there without any apparent effort. Now, why should we not do so? We have as good teaching talent, if not better, as there is in Europe, and all that is necessary is study on our part and we will be sure to reach the goal. I learned some time ago that certain American methods of teaching public-school music had been adopted in some of the principal cities of Europe. I do not know how true it is (perhaps some one here may know), but the fact that the matter should even be contemplated is a feather in the cap of American methods of instruction.

The music teacher in the public schools should be also a musician in the highest sense of the word, which does not mean an executant, but a practical musician thoroughly informed on all musical matters, history, biography, etc. He ought to use only the best of music for the school work, for a lack of it will cause the best part of the pupils to lose interest in his work. I might say many other things necessary for good work, but enough has been said for this time. If we will all go to work with the desire to become all-around musicians thoroughly fitted for our work, we will be sure to make public-school music not what it is, but what it ought to be.

MUSIC IN PUBLIC EDUCATION, AND SOME ELEMENTS ESSENTIAL TO ITS SUCCESS.

BY PHILIP C. HAYDEN, QUINCY, ILL.

Music in public education needs no advocate in this assembly. It would be an ill use of time to plead its cause before a body already filled with a great faith in its value, and inspired with a purpose to use every power to make its future the future of the expanding public-school system of the nation. We believe in it because it trains the mind, stimulates the emotions, invigorates the body, develops character, and enriches life. It stands in our school system as a champion of beauty and of pure emotions, counteracting in a degree the tendency of the age toward an extreme utilitarian conception of the purpose of public education.

Neither is there the same need for an advocate of music before the public which existed a few years ago. When in 1885 the National Education Association voted to add a music section to its departments, the unequivocal stamp of approval was placed upon music as a study which should be pursued in every system of public schools in our nation. This placing of music on the list of the necessary studies was not an act reluctantly performed, nor was it merely the passing of a meaningless resolution to satisfy the demand of a few enthusiastic music teachers. It was plainly the recognition of the fact that a large proportion of our educators were heartily in favor of making music an important element of public education.

This position has been steadily maintained by the association, and the effect of its moral support has been positive and wide-reaching—a great benefit to the cause of public-school music. It has strongly influenced the attitude of the public, and of school boards and superintendents, in its favor. Since that time scores of cities have added this to the list of their regular required studies, and it is steadily growing in favor with the public and school authorities.

Another cause for the increase of confidence and interest in the practical results of this study is that specially prepared teachers have entered the field from the several excellent normal schools for the training of special music teachers, which have been organized and successfully maintained with constantly increasing numbers; men and women who are now doing successful work in school music.

The advent of the specially trained teacher marks a new era in the school music work. School authorities are coming to understand that ability to play the violin or piano does not necessarily carry with it the ability to properly present the subject of music to a class of school children. It is a truism that the teaching of music, like the teaching of all other branches, should be based on tested and sound educational principles, and that the instructor should be first of all a teacher, then a musician—first a pedagogue, and then, if you please, a performer.

The improvement in teaching, and in the sentiment of the public and of school authorities toward music, has been very marked. As vitally interested in the development of this branch of study, the consideration of these facts must be gratifying to all.

But this is only one side of the school music question. I desire to direct your attention to another view—one that, as it seems to me, cannot be contemplated with entire complacency. I refer to the subject matter presented to the class by the average teacher as the proper element of the science and art of music, to be studied by public-school scholars; to the order of study pursued in many schools, or rather to the lack of any order of study in practical work; to the faulty conception of what constitutes the proper study of school music which prevails to-day in a large number of school systems. We refer to the antagonistic theories and systems held by writers and teachers, embodied in published music courses, and put into practice by various special teachers; to the widely divergent practice in their daily work of instructors who hold important positions as special teachers; to the fact that to-day in many large school systems in important cities the teaching of music is by methods which cannot for a moment stand the test of true educational principles, nor of that searching and ultimate test by which all courses of books and all methods of teaching must finally be judged, by an examination of the results obtained. We refer to the fact that in some large cities there is no uniformity of system in different districts, and that each of the special teachers devotes a certain amount of time to teaching that element of music by him esteemed most important, practically ignoring other equally important, or more important elements. There is a chaos of systems, and music teachers are not trying to teach the same things, are not aiming to procure the same ultimate results.

And there is to-day no statement embodying a course of study to serve as a guide to inquiring teachers or superintendents or stating the kind of

work which should be required of the different grades in the school, which carries the sanction of any number of influential teachers, as for instance of this section of the National Educational Association.

Do not understand that objection is made to the methods, or systems, or expedients of teachers, or that individuality in teaching is criticised. Far from it. A teacher to be earnest and enthusiastic and successful *must* be individual. It is not the road the teacher travels that we would condemn, but the place he is going to. Not the way he teaches, but what he teaches; not his method, but his results.

It may be that some think this point is urged too strongly, that school music is taught in about the same way the country over, and that about the same results, in a general way, are attained by all special music teachers. Unfortunately such a view is not sustained by the facts. To illustrate: Some time ago the speaker visited five special music teachers, while at work, in a certain large city. It was observed that the results aimed at by these five teachers differed in a marked degree. Only one out of the five made the intelligent thinking of tones the basis of his work. The other teachers were doing what might justly be called one-sided work. In one district the classes could sing songs well, but could read neither tune nor time. In another they could sing in parts excellently, but showed that they were dependent on their ears for all the music they learned. In another the children's voices were being trained very skilfully and some beautiful tones were produced, but the class could not think the simple tone represented by a short phrase written for them on the blackboard. Four of these teachers were striving to give artistic expression to music which belonged to their classes only as they could remember the melodies. Can thoughtful teachers commend teaching which ignores the faculties of perception and comparison, and makes no demand on the thinking powers of the child? For example: Could a teacher demonstrate that literature was being well taught by having a class or pupil recite a selection with perfect elocutionary effect, when an examination would reveal the fact that a page of simple English in the Second Reader could not be read intelligently?

This brings us to the point where it is timely to state that the first element, and the fundamental element in school music, is sight reading of both tune and time. By sight reading is meant, not simply the rapid reading of music at first glance, but that the music is read and comprehended through the eye, and not through the ear. It represents the attitude of the mind when singing. Sight reading means that the written note when seen, stands for a definite concept which has been developed by comparing the mental effects of the tones of the scale in their scale and harmonic relations, and that a series of tones enters the mind through the eye, from the written sign, unaided by voice or instrument, and is the basis of all genuine education in music, instrumental as well as vocal. It is this

which makes the musician. As this is the element so many teachers fail to make duly prominent in their work, it should be considered at some length.

Sight reading should be promptly taken up in the lowest grade, for the following reasons :

First, It is the basis of all mental culture in music. Culture of the mind is only possible by the efforts of the mind. The uncertain groping for a phrase in music which addresses the mind through the ear as in the practice of rote singing, imitating either voice or instrument, is very doubtful mental culture. It only requires a simple act of the mind to imitate a certain succession of sounds. On the other hand, the genuine reading of music from the staff requires a complex action of the mind, the accurate and keen use of the sense of seeing, the carrying in the mind of the rhythm and key and a constant effort of the mind in thinking the pitch of the tone represented by the notes, and in securing accuracy by mentally comparing that tone with the other tones of the scale. These acts of the mind—imperatively swift and accurate—constitute as valuable an exercise for its powers as any study in the public-school curriculum ; their use develops accuracy and promptness of thought, and gives a mental culture not supplied by any other study. Rote singing is guessing at it, note singing is thinking it out.

Second, It is the method of progress. It gives power for reading, comprehending, and singing difficult music almost at sight, a power which increases and expands with exercise, unlocking the riches of musical literature to an active and cultured mind, feeding to overflowing the fountain of the emotions, and adding to the keen mental enjoyment of knowing the music, the great delight of feeling its beauty, its grandeur, or its tenderness. With the ordinary ear singer this is not true. Having gained a certain proficiency by continued practice, progress ceases. It takes a certain time to learn a selection, or a phrase, by listening, and it will always take about that time. Usually before the High School is reached this power of imitation is developed to its utmost, and further practice simply brings knowledge of new music, to be remembered *if possible,* but gives no new powers for the mastering of new music almost at a glance, as is done by the proper study of music reading. Rote singing is not progressive.

Third, It is the only way to get general singing. Teaching the scale —the whole scale, the parts, the parts in relation to the whole, the parts in relation to each other, the harmonic relations—teaching music reading —is the only way to secure general attention and general results. If the first years of school life are given largely to song singing, from one-third to one-fourth of the scholars will not learn to sing. Not having special musical ability the singing of songs will be very hard, almost impossible. Each new song is a new discouragement, for the class will take up a new

song before the unmusical scholars have learned the old one. What do these musically dull scholars learn of singing during these early years of their course? Why, they learn that they cannot sing, and it will require careful work and continued urging to secure their efforts, later in the course, if they are then asked to study music in a rational manner. If you start with the scale and continue the scale and develop its harmonic relations you will secure the efforts of all your scholars, and will make accurate singers of at least ninety-five per cent. of them. They discover that they can learn the scale, and their application and final success may then be counted on, for they can be assured with truth, that, having mastered all the intervals of the scale, they can read any music they may be called on to sing.

Fourth, It is the only consistent way of presenting the study. To introduce the study of the scale as the first work in music in the lower grades is the only course which requires no change. If the study is taken up that way at the start it can be so continued to the finish. There is no occasion for a change later in the course, and the first habits of mental activity, acquired in the lowest grades, when the mind is enthusiastic and receptive, may be continued and confirmed by all the subsequent study. The practice of learning songs by rote makes its appeal to the mind through the ear; the attention of the ear is riveted upon the tones produced; they are listened to, gauged, and sounded; the attention is concentrated on the impression made on the organs of hearing by the tones as they are formed by voice or instrument, and the word of admonition is—listen! That practice, if it accomplishes anything, develops a habit of catching music by listening and merely imitating the tones created by others; it fixes the habit of learning music through the ear. Does the time finally arrive when the pupil should be taught to sing through the eye; to read music intelligently? Then comes a revolution. Do not listen to what others are singing. Think how the tones sound. Stop singing through the ear, use your eyes. Now the word of admonition is—do not listen, look and think! Put away that habit formed by months or years of study, and learn this new way. Break up that old habit and form this new one to take its place. A method or practice involving such a violation of sound pedagogics and of sound common sense, cannot stand the test of intelligent analysis for a moment. It is wrong theoretically and fatal to the best results in practice.

Fifth, It is the only way to teach the musically dull scholars to sing in tune, and to give the mass of the public-school pupils permanent powers as independent singers and readers of music. There is a charm in the rapid and accurate action of the mind, which results in the accomplishment of the desired end, which gains and holds the interest of all minds to a greater or less extent, and the teacher of music will gain his highest success by taking advantage of this tendency of the mind, securing the con-

tinued effort of the unmusical scholar by demonstrating that the mind may act as definitely and as accurately in music as in mathematics.

Sixth, It is the only way to fully utilize the teaching powers of the many good teachers who may be deficient in music, and, for some reason, unable to sing. Such a teacher can make a class practise music reading, and accomplish excellent results, by seeing that every scholar *works* at his music, for, as in other studies, it is only by *doing* that progress is made in this study. As Locke says, "Children are not to be taught by rules, which will always be slipping out of their memories. What you think it necessary for them to do, settle in them by an indispensable practice."

To summarize: The thinking of musical tones through their scale and harmonic relations, and the thinking of rhythm through the musical accent should be taught in the first year at school, continued through each year of the course, and made the basis of all work in music—because it is the foundation of all strictly mental culture in music; it is only by this means that thoroughly progressive results can be obtained; it is the only way to secure the efforts of all scholars and to get general singing; it is the only consistent method of presenting the study; it is the only way to teach the musically dull to sing and to give the mass of pupils permanent power as singers and readers, and because it is the only way to fully utilize the teaching power of good teachers who are deficient in music or unable to sing.

Having presented arguments in favor of this first and fundamental element in successful school music at length, a brief mention of some other necessary elements, concerning which there is less division of opinion, will suffice.

The second essential to successful music is—preventing injury to the voice by securing musical tones; in other words, teaching soft singing. If soft singing is secured, the extremes of high and low singing avoided, and good articulation taught, the voices will improve and not deteriorate from school singing. School music cannot be successful which permits loud, harsh singing, for by it voices are permanently injured, and vocal habits are formed which eventually render the voices wholly unmusical.

Third, Pure intonation and blended voices in part singing should be developed. Where all the children take part in the singing, and they should always do so, this can only be secured by patience and persistency, and by the assistance of music reading. However, the teaching cannot be considered satisfactory which does not cultivate a keen conception of tones and harmony, and establish, so far as is possible, correct hearing and correct intonation. The study of the scales as a mental as well as a vocal exercise will be found very important in securing these ends.

Fourth, A taste for the best in music should be cultivated by the use of music which is the best, musically speaking, which can be understood and mastered in the grade using it. When words are used they should have

literary merit. It is not difficult to create a taste for good music, it will be readily formed if good music is practised, and such a taste, formed in the school work, will prove a permanent and powerful factor in securing for the masses of the American people a more general musical culture.

Finally, emotional singing is essential. Music is the natural expression of emotion, and children should early be taught to analyze the sentiment of songs and to give expression in their voices to the feelings of the words and music. The importance of securing this sort of singing is unquestioned. It is this element which softens the hard, smooths out the rough, cheers up the despondent, makes brave the timid. When the emotions are engaged in singing, the singer becomes, for the time, a new being; he is sympathizing with suffering, aiding the weak, inspiring the discouraged, burning with patriotism, thrilling with the highest emotions embodied in the music and words written by noble men, giving expression to the noblest sentiments which can inspire mankind. In emotional singing is the element which assists in the discipline, for it refines and ennobles, not only for school life, but for all life.

No one of these elements which enter into the study and singing of music can be neglected without detracting from its value as a study, and as a means of culture. It may be that all are not of equal importance, but the best results cannot be obtained if any one of them is overlooked or lightly considered.

In conclusion one practical point is suggested to this section of the National Educational Association. It would be of great benefit to the advancement of school music in general, if an influential body of teachers, like those gathered here, should adopt a statement enumerating the elements which are, in their judgment, essential to the proper teaching of music in the schools. Such a statement would be a valuable guide to students preparing themselves for this special field of labor, defining for them the scope of their work ; to older teachers who desired to know the opinion of their fellow-teachers on the important points with which such a statement would deal. But it would be of the highest use in furnishing a standard to superintendents and committees whereby to judge of the character of the work done in their schools. It could not fail to clear up the subject and to bring some degree of uniformity where now there is the greatest diversity and contradiction.

We do not think such a statement should contain any reference to systems so-called nor to methods. The best teachers may differ vastly in their manner of teaching, and there should be no attempt in this body to abridge the liberty of teachers or to express disapproval of methods which are producing good results along proper lines. But it cannot be truthfully said that the best teachers may differ vastly in the matter that they teach, because there are certain essential elements which must take their proper places, and be given proper attention, in any judicious course of

study in school music. This would seem to be the proper place, and this a propitious time, for giving form to a statement or course of study, which shall explicitly state those elements which must be taught in order to reach that standard of results which is commended by the Music Section of the National Educational Association.

METHODS AND DEVICES IN TEACHING PUBLIC SCHOOL MUSIC.

BY B. JEPSON, SUPERVISOR OF MUSIC IN THE NEW HAVEN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

To have lived in an age and especially in a country in which the universal watchword seems to be "onward," is a cause for profound gratitude. Every avocation, profession, or calling whatever, is organized in quest of light, more light. We have lived to little purpose, as it seems to me, if we have not been influenced, more or less, by this great American quest. Educational methods on all subjects are undergoing a searching investigation, in fact I am informed that the department of music in this association has already been the theatre of some animated discussions. I believe that a little friction, just enough and not too much, is a very good thing, and while I am glad at all times and in all places to give a reason for the faith that is in me, I am also willing that others should be heard ; I am not willing, however, to concede that any one theory embodies all the wisdom and experience of the ages.

If any one can accomplish more without the aid of staff notation than I can with it, they are certainly welcome to proceed on that line ; at the outset then I will say that I have no quarrel with Tonic Sol Fa, with fixed dohs or movable dohs. By way of defining my own position I may say that if the fixed doh is something which stays in one place for a long time, I suppose I may be fairly classed among the adherents of that system, as I have been a fixture in the New Haven schools since January, 1865 ; otherwise my sympathies are with the movable doh. It requires a degree of courage to figure up the number of years which have intervened since my first appointment, and I will therefore leave that task to those who are fond of statistics. I can only say in extenuation that I entered the service very young. Joking aside, however, it is a matter of pride that I was permitted to be a pioneer of public-school music in the State of Connecticut. Personally I feel it a privilege no less than a duty to do what lies within me in behalf of this great work, whether in a municipal, state or national direction, and I am glad therefore to be able once more to respond to the summons of your programme committee.

It has been my uniform experience that whenever the study of music in public schools has been thoroughly systemized and faithfully practised, it awakens an interest and enthusiasm which never die out. Especially is this the case in primary grades. When the little children find themselves actually singing their first simple exercises by sight, their pleasure is unbounded, and this interest, when it reaches the parent, becomes intensified in a manner that impresses itself upon the whole community.

Notwithstanding the recognition which music has received and is still receiving as a regular branch of study throughout the country, much, very much, remains to be done. With our magnificent system of graded schools the study of music should also be carefully graded, and in every respect made subject to the same rules and regulations as other branches. In other words, the study of music should be made a real thing and not a sham. But here comes the difficulty. Not all boards of education, superintendents, principals, and teachers can be made to see that the claims of music are equal, if not superior, to those of any other study, whether pertaining to life in its childhood or manhood.

The popular estimate of music in schools has been, and in most communities continues to be, its use as a recreation to relieve the tedium of study in other branches. Taught in this way, the study of music loses all character and dignity, and the public come to regard it as an ornamental branch to be lopped off whenever economy of public funds or political expediency may dictate.

The practice of music is refining in its tendencies, conducive to social and moral elevation, decidedly antagonistic to pulmonary diseases, encourages precision and punctuality in the pupil, is unequalled as a means of mental discipline, comforts the home, and makes the heart better. In a word, no single study can compare with music in its multifarious advantages to the children. What we need at present, is some influence, more potent than any yet discovered, to make the public realize the truth of these statements. As teachers, we must aim by practical results to demonstrate the utility of music as a study, and at least make it morally impossible for future governors to veto legislative enactments in the interest of musical education.

If in some communities reproach and failure have been the result of attempts to introduce music as a study, it must be said that not infrequently, the underlying cause has been found to be the indifference or incapacity of the instructor. In some instances the study of music is made obnoxious by the dry and uninteresting manner of the teacher. In other cases the elementary practice is ignored and all progress is measured by the number of songs which may be taught in a given time. Surely the last estate is worse than the first. In this connection I may be permitted to say that if I have enjoyed a degree of success in public-school work, it has been entirely on opposite lines. I have endeavored in all

possible ways to so systemize and simplify the study as to make note practice even more attractive than rote practice.

In music, as in everything else, the foundation must be laid before the superstructure is built. It goes without saying that the bed-rock of all elementary instruction is found in the kindergarten. In my early days of teaching, one of the greatest difficulties encountered was how to adapt musical study to the lowest primary grade. I have met many teachers who were similarly embarrassed, and many are still asking: How do you begin musical instruction with the little ones? With the assistance of the class of boys present, I will presently endeavor to show how I would begin the study of music with "six-year-olds" on the first day of school life, and how proceed through all the various grades of study from kindergarten to high school.

I venture to assert that the elements of music, if properly presented to little children, can be more successfully taught than any other branch. My own experience is that children of tender years learn to read notes long before they can read the little words placed under them. It is needless to say that little children, not less than children of larger growth, need to have their studies amplified, not condensed. How many adults are there present who would achieve success in the study of music if asked to condense a dozen or more topics in the first lesson? And yet there are many primary instruction books published in which staff, notes, time, rests, letters, keys, signatures, varieties of time, clefs, and all, are presented in the first few pages. In music, as in all other studies, the ability to read, and thereby to interpret and understand, must ever be the first great object in education; and this must be our first great care with the masses who attend our public schools, comprising, as they do, the high and the low-born of every creed and nationality in the world. It cannot be expected, with but fifteen or twenty minutes per day devoted to musical instruction, that any portion of this time can be expended in the technicalities of vocal culture. It will surely be sufficient if, by a well-grounded knowledge of the elements of music, the children are fitted to unlock the treasures of music themselves. If I might condense all I desire to say in a single paragraph, it would be this: *The highest and best incentive to sing music is the ability to read music.*

If the children of our public schools are well versed in the science of music the art will take care of itself, and so I say it is not well to go into the technicalities of vocal culture. In the practice of singing, children learn most by imitation; not one in a hundred will fail to imitate correctly, the first time, a loud tone, a soft tone, a sweet tone, or a harsh tone. On the other hand, scarcely one in a hundred will succeed, the first time, in giving the required sound when hampered by technical explanations. On the whole, 'twere better far, perhaps, that children should sing in blissful ignorance of vocal cords, diaphragms, abdominal muscles, etc.

Children sing as sweetly and naturally as birds, if they are properly restrained. All that is needed, in this respect, is a few common-sense rules in reference to erect position, full breaths, and sweet tone, such as will suggest themselves to any competent teacher.

The time spent in elementary drill by the regular teacher should be at least fifteen minutes per day; more than that might prejudice the study, in some instances, especially when the school curriculum is somewhat crowded. A less amount of time would be insufficient.

In primary grades more or less rote practice will always be necessary. Through the instrumentality of rote songs, many lessons in loyalty, reverence, obedience, filial affection, and other virtues, may be taught, which, if withheld until the children actually read music, might never be learned. No one doubts that the children should be early imbued with sentiments of loyalty and national pride, hence teachers of all grades, both public and private, have a duty to perform in educating the children to love, revere, and defend the flag, with all it represents. Surely this desirable result can be attained in no better way than by the practice of national songs.

I know of but one objection which can be urged against a proper amount of rote singing. The practice of songs, especially those of a patriotic character, is much more exhilarating than that of solfeggios, hence the tendency to harsh singing. In reference to this whole matter of rote and note, I would say: let recreation in music be ever kept subordinate to study in music; throughout the lower grades let the study of the science and the practice of songs go hand in hand, each having its allotted time in the school programme, and neither being allowed to interfere with the other.

I am frequently asked my opinion in reference to the use of charts in teaching music. I think that all who have used them, whether for music, drawing, writing, arithmetic, or any other branch, will concede that they are very good in the absence of a blackboard. In my early days of teaching I expended much time and money in the preparation of charts, but I soon found they were inadequate to furnish the needed supply of daily food for hungry music readers. The limited number of exercises which they contained were soon learned, and thenceforward were practised by rote. There is inspiration in an original exercise, or even in one which may be copied, so long as it is new to the class; hence I have found crayon in the hands of a live teacher far more effective than either books or charts, especially in primary grades, where single-part exercises only are needed.

In reference to time and measure, I have never yet failed to obtain perfect accuracy in time, whether for the full, half, or quarter beat, by the most rational way, it seems to me, ever yet devised, viz., a motion of the hand. Pendulums and time-names may answer the purpose when attention to the music is immaterial, but with pupils in the act of reading

music, any device that does not permit pupils for themselves to estimate the length of rests and notes by self-made counts or beats, must be a failure. The only device outside of themselves which can be of any use whatever, is the audible tap of the teacher. The ultimate object of all musical drill is to enable the pupil to read exercises at sight. The best results in this direction may be accomplished by frequent tests. In my own practice I have found that daily tests, and as many of these as possible, from book, blackboard, or printed slip, greatly facilitate the work. In this kind of practice a single reading, perhaps two, is sufficient, as perfect accuracy cannot be expected.

The plan of fifteen minutes' daily drill by the regular teacher, which is now practised all over the United States, is obviously the best, as without the co-operation of the regular teacher perfect success cannot be attained. The speaker, by the way, adopted this plan in January, 1865, and unless some one can antedate him, is clearly entitled to the patent.

Fellow teachers, we have every reason to feel encouraged in our work. Thousands of voices in every street and alley of our large towns and cities are ringing out the praises of public-school music. The grand army of adult pupils who have graduated, with more or less ability to read music, and have become parents themselves, are now anxious to perpetuate musical instruction in the schools for the benefit of their own children. Educational associations, both State and national, have accorded musical exercises and discussions a place in their programme. More and more, as the years move on, will come the demand for competent teachers and best methods. To those of us whose lives are devoted to this work, may these things be a perpetual stimulus and inspiration to fulfil our best desires and highest conceptions of the work intrusted to our keeping.

In conclusion, I will submit for the benefit of any who may wish to know, a condensed programme covering eight years of study.

First year : Development of scale ; blackboard exercises, using quarter note heads without form or measure, simply writing seven-note cadences, first to three, next to five, and finally to include all the notes of the scale.

Second year : Double, triple, and quadruple measure without skips, introducing quarter, half, dotted half, and whole notes. Dictation exercises in singing with cadences of three notes.

Third year : Letters, note words, key signs, and slurs, "all-key exercises" written in *C* and sung in *G*, *F*, *D*, *B*, *A*, and *E*. Dictation with five-note cadences and note words of three letters.

Fourth year : Intervals from thirds to octaves with quarter notes, eighth and sixteenth notes, accent, triplets, and rounds, dictation with seven-note cadences, and note words of four letters.

Fifth year : Treble and bass clef, two-part music, varieties of time, slurs with all intervals, singing with syllables *lo* and *loo*, dictation exercises on bass clef, also note words of two syllables.

Sixth year: Three-part music, half beats, compound time, triad practice, crescendo, diminuendo, and swell, dictation exercises on both clefs.

Seventh year: Four-part music, diatonic and chromatic scales, accidentals, transpositions, syncopation, chanting, dictation with accidentals.

Eighth year: Modulation, major and minor keys with accidentals, dictation exercises in *C* on either clef, transposed to any other keys.

The reading of this paper was followed with a class exercise by a small company of boys from the New Haven public schools, with which Mr. Jepson illustrated various methods and devices as practised by him in his system of musical instruction.

ROUND TABLE CONFERENCES

ON

PHILOSOPHY.

THE ROUND TABLES ON PHILOSOPHY.

THE following abstracts have been sent in for printing in this volume of Proceedings. A reference to the programme will show what proportion of these exercises they cover. It is regretted that reports of the other round-table discussions have not been furnished to the editor. A meeting was held at Congress Hall, and some twenty or more of the leaders in this movement gave their counsel as to the future of this part of the programme in the National Educational Association. President G. Stanley Hall presided, and it was voted that the management of the round tables at the next meeting should be placed in the hands of an executive committee consisting of W. T. Haris, Nicholas Murray Butler and James MacAlister to act in conjunction with the President of the National Educational Association.

I. Abstract of Professor Fullerton's Remarks.
II. Letter of Professor Howison to Professor Fullerton.
III. Abstract of Professor Bryant's Paper.
IV. Abstract of Dr. McBride Sterrett's Paper.

HOW DO CONCEPTS ARISE FROM PERCEPTS?

(An abstract of Introductory Remarks made by Professor Fullerton at the Round Table held at the meeting of the N. E. A., Saratoga, N. Y., 1892.)

My remarks on the rise of the concept out of percepts will be brief, as the object of a Round Table is free discussion and an exchange of views, not the detailed exposition of the views of the leader. Moreover, I shall consider only the sense of the word "concept" which makes it equivalent to "general notion," leaving out of view altogether the concept as memory-image, and treating in the same way empirical general notions of the lowest order and the concepts sometimes known as rational or transcendental, the much-mooted universals of philosophy. By the concept I shall mean that by means of which the mind grasps and holds together as belonging to one class a plurality of individuals which have some element or elements in common. I shall briefly consider: (1) The relation of concepts to sensations and to percepts; (2) The elements actually present to

the mind when it forms a concept; (3) The various degrees of generality covered by the concept; and the distinction between the abstract and the general notion; and (4) certain questions arising out of my view of the nature of the concept.

I.

We may regard sensations and the records left in the memory by sensations as the raw material of consciousness—elements which, when arranged and interrelated, give us consciousness as it appears when we are in a position to reflect upon it in even a rudimentary way. Of course, a group of wholly unrelated sensations is, to the developed mind, a something conceived of, but never actually experienced, for sensations, when they enter consciousness are apperceived, *i. e.*, are elaborated. Nevertheless, we can draw the distinction between the sensations, as mere material for thought, and the forms in which they are worked up into knowledge. Sensations and memories of sensations grouped in certain orderly ways form percepts, or individual things. Percepts do not differ from each other in all their elements, but contain points of likeness and points of difference. When the mind compares and classes them, it distinguishes, whether with or without conscious purpose, between the elements in which they agree and those in which they differ, and gathers them into a class by means of the former, *i. e.*, it frames a general notion.

II.

Thus it will be seen that, in forming the concept, the mind takes cognizance of—holds in the focus of attention—certain psychic elements which are insufficient, taken alone, to form a percept, a complete individual, and recognizes that these elements are to be found now in combination with this group of other elements, now with that. In other words, our consciousness is of a given nucleus with a varying "fringe." It is the presence of this varying "fringe" that gives generality to the concept—makes it a concept proper, and not merely an incomplete image. As consciousness tends to rest in images, it is but natural that the attempt to discover by direct introspection what is actually in mind when one forms a concept should result in misconception. The nominalist, finding it impossible to picture the nucleus I have mentioned, denies generality to all but the name (Berkeley, "Principles," Introduction, § 10). The crude realist adds to this nucleus elements that belong to the "fringe," and makes of his general notion an individual of the same nature as those he is trying to class (Pulleyn, "Sentent.," p. 1, c. iii., quoted by Hauréau, "Philos. Schol.," I., p. 328). The conceptualist admits that the mind can grasp the nucleus and abstract from the elements which, when added to it, form an individual, asserting generality of what is in the mind of the person forming the concept, but denying it of the world of real exist-

ences ; a procedure which, of course, denies that the mind knows things as they really are, and classes them by means of that which they really have in common. No one of these three doctrines expresses the whole truth concerning the concept. The conceptualist is, from the point of view of psychology, the nearest to the truth, though his philosophical position with regard to real existences is open to criticism.

III.

The concept may be one of the most rudimentary sort, or it may be the result of much abstraction and generalization. In every case the process of its formation is essentially the same. In every case there is the nucleus and the "fringe," whether we consider the empirical concepts of common life or the "universals" of the school-men. It may be difficult in any given case to discover just what elements belong to the nucleus, as it may be difficult to enumerate all the elements present in a percept ; but there is in the nature of the concept nothing occult or inexplicable, nothing to prevent one's forming a clear idea of the process and expressing it in psychological terms sufficiently unambiguous. The concept formed by the brute, as we may infer from his actions and his comprehension of general terms, and the concept discussed by the philosopher do not differ in kind, though they differ vastly in degree of generality and in wealth of meaning.

In speaking of the rise of concepts out of percepts, one conveniently treats percepts as though they were definite and complete before the comparison of them which results in the concept. But it is evident that concepts of a certain order may arise long before the mind has attained to such full and definite knowledge of percepts. That concepts may be formed, it is only necessary that the mind experience groups of sensations having points in common and points of difference. Concepts formed at such a stage of a mind's development are necessarily of a low order, and extremely vague. Still they are concepts, with nucleus and "fringe," like concepts formed later.

IV.

The view of the nature of the concept expressed in what precedes suggests one or two interesting questions upon which I can merely touch. In the first place, can one hold this view, if one regards, with Professor James, the total consciousness at any one moment as an unanalyzable unit—a something without parts ? Plainly one cannot ; nor can one, in my opinion, make in any way intelligible what is present to the mind when it forms a concept. In the second place, can we conceive of the concept as having a physical basis in cerebral activity ? I answer, yes ; and we have here no greater mystery than that we meet in assuming a physical basis for sensations, or the complexes of sensation, which form for us individual

objects. In speaking thus, I have no desire to bring forward any theory as to the nature of the connection between mind and brain. I wish merely to point out that one may as reasonably assume a physical basis for concepts as for sensations, whatever the significance one allows to that ambiguous expression "physical basis." Finally, may one ask why the mind forms concepts at all? why it is thus active? Yes, but it may also ask, and with as much reason, why it experiences sensations at all. If the former question can be satisfactorily answered, probably the latter can also, and probably the answer will, in both cases, be substantially the same.

HOW DO CONCEPTS ARISE FROM PERCEPTS?

BY PROF. GEO. S. FULLERTON.

SIR: I beg to offer the following points for the consideration of your company. They are not intended to furnish a definitive settlement of the question discussed, but rather to bring out certain facts and certain distinctions which seem to me to be of a determining importance for such a settlement. Rightly weighed, they should lead to the conclusive result.

By way of preliminary, I may say that my attention has been called to this subject through a partial discussion of it that has been going on, at intervals during the past year, in "The Public-School Journal," the well-known educational magazine published at Bloomington, Ill. The question appears to have been raised in that periodical by our eminent educational psychologist, Dr. W. T. Harris, now United States commissioner of education. I agree with him, that there is no problem more fundamental to psychology than this of the true origin of concepts (unless it be that of the origin of percepts), and none of greater practical import to the right theory and the genuine art of education. I can therefore well understand why its discussion, left as yet incomplete in the journal mentioned, should be transferred to the more public field of the National Association, and brought under the concentrated light of the best minds engaged in our teaching profession. My own purpose, in this brief communication, is to contribute, if I can, toward a just solution of this problem, so difficult as well as so vital, mainly by aiding towards an exact understanding of what the question started by Dr. Harris really means. Until an agreement is reached upon this, there can be no hope of a conclusive result.

I.

My first point is this: That the word *concept* employed in the question must, of course, have all its variety of meaning clearly realized, in

order to a fruitful discussion ; and that this variety, or ambiguity, is much wider than seems to be recognized in the usual discussions.

There is, in the first place, the distinction between the general, generic, or "universal" concept, and the particular concept—between the remembered image of any single object of sense and the generalized notion of the class to which we are in the habit of saying the object belongs. Very likely, the intent of our question, as apprehended by those who have raised it, is to include only the origin of these *general* concepts ; indeed, it may probably be claimed by some, that the word *concept*, as distinguished from the word *conception*, has a technical restriction to such generic notions. My main purpose, however, in this first connection, is to insist on the significance of the fact that the very same stem-word is used to cover both meanings, and to call attention to the need of considering both. The procedure by which the particular conception arises from the percept is at least as interesting and as important an inquiry as the rise of the general notion. I believe that the true doctrine of the rise of the particular concept is the clue to the true doctrine of the rise of the generic ; if, indeed, it be permissible to speak of the "rise" of concepts from percepts at all ; which, strictly speaking, I think is assuredly not permissible. This is so really the case, and so thoroughly implied to be the case by Dr. Harris himself, in his letter on the subject to "The Public-School Journal," that I am tempted to wonder why he did not rather reverse his question, and put it : *How do percepts arise from concepts?*

II.

For now we must not fail to notice, in the second place, that there is a still subtler distinction covered by the word *concept*. Over against all such concepts as we have thus far been considering, whether particular or general, stand concepts of a wholly different and a higher order, which, so far from being derived from them, or even from percepts, require us to admit that they are acts of consciousness strictly *original*. Without admitting their reality, and their actual operation, the existence not only of the generic but of the particular concept will prove to be inexplicable; and not merely this, but the existence of percepts as well. For the sake of discrimination, let us agree to call concepts as they are usually understood, both general and particular, *empirical* concepts; and give to the others the name of *transcendental*. In this nomenclature we are following Kant, though we give to his term *transcendental* an extended and new application. Instead of restricting it to the absolutely primordial *elements* of thought, that are constitutively present in *every* concept alike, and indeed in every percept also, and usually known as *the categories*, we carry it forward to cover all those primary yet specific acts of apperceptive unification of the categories and the sensation-contents, which must be recognized

as at the basis of all percepts and all empirical concepts, both particular and general. We employ it in Kant's own meaning—to denote a causal thought that remains indeed within the limits of *possible* experience, and is always engaged in setting objects of sense into being, but which nevertheless passes beyond—"*transcends*"—the limits of *actual* experience, actual sense perception, and predicts the course of subsequent perception, *in that kind*, by laying down *a priori* the condition for the total career of each particular object of perception, and of the whole kind, or *genus*, to which it belongs; indeed, the particular can be said to "belong" to the genus only in virtue of its transcendental concept covering by its nature the whole range of relations both within the particular object and within the class. This leads us to recognize now, that our "transcendental concept" means the same as Plato's "*idea;*" that is, when Plato uses the term consistently to signify the self-active ideal forms that are the life of real objects, and does not by confusion employ it, as he too often does, to signify the mere general notion abstracted out of experience.

III.

Distinguishing thus between transcendental and empirical concepts, and, in the latter, between the particular concepts and the general, and duly marking off all from percepts—that is, from the always particular objects of sense-perception, or actual existences, ordinarily so called—to which of these, now, does our question about the rise of concepts from percepts refer? And will our answer to it vary according to the order of concept to which we may happen to refer it?

I will not occupy the time of the "Table" by discussing this at any length. I will only say that those who give as the proper answer the doctrine current in most books on logic, evidently consider no concept but the empirical generic notion, and that their answer is, from that point of view, of course convincing; the generic notion, *as part of experience*, based on experimental reflection upon the particulars of experimental perception, is the result of comparison and abstraction; its "rise" from the percepts is by dropping out the differential traits of the real particulars, and retaining only those common to all.

This explanation, granting the assumption on which it rests, no one, surely, can accuse of incorrectness. Let us admit that it is right, *so far as it goes;* but let us not overlook the fact that it goes but a very little way on the regressive path to the *cause* of the concept investigated, and let us not ignore the perplexity into which its result plunges us. This perplexity is the old and famous one that shook the mediæval schools with that dispute over Nominalism and Realism, whose faint echoes still reach trained ears in the close of this nineteenth century of "utility" and "enlightenment." Is the universal *real?* or is it a mere *figment of speech?* Or at best, shall we say, following Abelard, that it is a mere *way of thinking*

about particulars, which alone are real? If the universal has no other reality than this; if it *is* only a way the thinker has of looking at realities, then farewell to all reality for science; farewell, still worse, to the reality of human hopes for immortality, and even of human belief in God. For we cannot blink the awkward fact, that, if there is no other foundation for the universal than generalization by abstraction—if taking the "common remainder" after dropping out every trace of *particular* difference be the true and sufficient account of it—then the universal is reduced to the nondescript that has neither definite quality nor quantity nor mode nor relation. "Triangle," for example, turns out to be that extraordinarily "pure" three-sidedness that has no real dimensions, no real slope of sides, and no real position. 'Tis only another name, apparently, for nonentity; and so, likewise, of all other general notions. Truly, it seems but just, that the phrase "a mere notion" should have become the proverbial equivalent for vagary and phantasy.

And yet, on the reality and the self-active character of the universal in our consciousness, and on its consequent conditioning of all our sense-perception (that is, of all Nature), depends our provable existence after death; while upon this grounding of Nature in human nature depends the doctrine that the eternal ground of things is the realized ideal of our true humanity—the doctrine, that is, that there is a God.

IV.

But if this view has unpleasant consequences for such as have no taste for philosophical scepticism, how is it to be evaded? So long as the question is so put as to imply a "*rise*" of concepts out of percepts, so long must the attention be fastened upon merely *derivative* elements in thought; so long, it would seem, must the purview of the inquiry be confined to the merely empirical and reflection-grounded aspect of the universal—to its mere *pseudo-universal* aspect of a generalization from particulars.

It is no *explanation*, even of this mere general notion, to say that it "arises" from percepts by a "process" of dropping out particular differences. This does not touch the *knowledge of the general concept in its cause*, which is the only philosophical knowledge of it, the only real *knowledge* of it. This is only to describe the *manner* in which the abstract universal is found, on after comparison, to differ *de facto* from the particulars. While it answers that obvious part of the question which requires us to take note of concepts (general ones) on the one hand, and of percepts on the other, and include in our notice their differences, this is absolutely all it does. The vital word in the question—the word *how*—is silently ignored. *How come we*—this is the real question—*how come we* to have the instinct to drop the particular differences, and seek thus, even though in vain, for something that we feel is more real than the particular? —for something that may answer for the permanent identity of the partic-

ular amid the fleeting instants of its sense-perceived elements on the one hand, and something that may answer to the felt and experienced greater reality of its kind or genus on the other?

Thus it becomes plain that, before we can look for a sufficing answer to our question, we much change its tenor. We must insert into it the real meaning of *concept*—the *causal* thought-element at the basis even of perception itself—if we are to save our investigation from ending in the *cul de sac* of Nominalism.

V.

The preliminary question, in short, is one which takes us still farther into the depths of a true and genuine psychology—the question, *How do percepts themselves arise?* Are they conceivable as merely coming to us from existences that are in and of themselves, whether we exist or no? Are they mere *data* to us—us purely passive recipients—given by force of such things-in-themselves? Or do they depend absolutely on certain pure *thought-acts* of ours, the existence and spontaneity of which, conditioning and so far setting into being the particulars of the sense-world themselves, are the real explanation of those after-experiences of reflection which we call by the name of concepts of experience, particular and general both?

As I have already indicated, it is not my object to present any solution of this question in this paper, but rather stimulate and guide inquiry upon it. In the hope that what I have written may really prove of service in that sense, I subscribe myself,

Yours sincerely,

G. H. Howison.

University of California,
Berkeley, July 6, 1892.

THE FREEDOM OF THE WILL—DOES IT CONCERN SPONTANEITY OR CHOICE?

BY WM. M. BRYANT.

(The paper here presented in abstract will be published in full as a monograph.)

Will is life in manifestation. Freedom is self-consistency in such manifestation. How does the will that is born become possessed of this quality (freedom) in the concrete?

For the created (evolved) individual, life, as Mr. Spencer has defined it, is the "continuous adjustment of internal relations to external relations." For our present purpose this is to be interpreted in its highest spiritual implications no less than in its lower physiological import.

The existence of evolved minds presupposes the actual existence of a

perfect, and hence eternal mind; that is, the type of mind is really thinkable (in the sense of tracing its necessary implications) only as completely realized.

Evolution is really thinkable only as a consistent process; as the manifestation of a power conforming to law, to a method. The ultimate energy manifested in the total range of evolution is thus self-regulated. It is the absolute *total* of existence. Hence it can have no "external" relations. On the contrary, all relations, in respect of the ultimate energy, are necessarily *internal* relations; for there is nothing beyond it to which it could bear relation.

Thus, as the organic total of all relations, this ultimate energy, in respect of its method, must be *intelligence;* in respect of its manifestation, it must be self-directed energy or *will;* and in respect of the unison between its method and its manifestation, it must be *feeling.*

That is the type which it is the (normal) destiny of the individual (evolved) mind progressively to fulfil. Such mind is itself (initially) an "external" unit; since to all those aspects of the typical mind, which it has not yet realized in its own individual life, it still stands in relation as to something practically external.

For it, then, life consists in the continuous adjustment of its own already developed modes of internal activity to the whole sum of those (as yet to it) external relations constituting (as ultimate complement of the individual mind) the total self-unfolding energy.

But this means that for the individual (evolved) mind, life consists in the continuous adjustment of internal relations to external relations in such way that the relations initially external to it shall be progressively assimilated into its own substance and into its own modes. That is, for the individual (evolved) mind, life consists in the continuous and progressive *transformation* of external relations *into* internal relations. It is, in short, just the process of approximation on its own part to the perfect (and hence eternal) mind.

The perfect mind is self-manifested in absolute self-consistency. That is the "necessity" of its nature. It is also its perfect *freedom.* To approximate the perfect mind in the sense of progressively realizing in one's own life the universal type of mind, that is progressively to attain freedom.

This process of self-realization is exceedingly complex. The relations of the world to which (as primarily "external" to him) the individual must adjust himself are (1) physiological (including physical), as well as (2) social and (3) cosmic.

The physiological relations involve the whole vast complex of conditions determining what is commonly termed "heredity." Man is born of an ancestry reaching back, through more and more humble degrees, to a *first* generation. There heredity seems to vanish altogether. The "*first*"

generation simply arose out of *nature* through the workings of purely "natural" laws.

But *nature* is itself nothing else than the outer aspect of the self-manifestation of the ultimate energy or perfect mind. It is in and through this that man has arisen, as the highest term of evolution (that is, of the total creative process). In other words, *nature* may very well be regarded as literally *natura*—the eternal birth-process of man as the one (evolved) being possessing, *in type*, all the characteristics of the ultimate creative energy. Divine fatherhood and divine sonship are but correlative terms.

Without this primal factor "heredity" is a will-o'-the-wisp. With it heredity presents a legitimate account of the origin of man, both as an individual and as a race.

Thus, in his *nature*, individual man is already at birth a *will*—a unit of energy destined to self-regulated development. And yet, as determined through heredity, he is at birth already a *pre*determined unit. He has tendencies toward definite forms of activity; but such tendencies are already *predestined* through his vastly complex and extended birth-process.

Thus limited in point of development, will is of that degree known as simple *instinct*. It is *will*, but not *free* will.

Nevertheless, the simplest act even of such will is still an *individualized* act; and so far as such act is of a nature to emphasize the unison between the individual and his environment, it quickens his life-functions; his energy as a will is thus increased and rendered more definite and consistent; whence his activity is heightened in rhythm, ease, and effectiveness—that is, a degree of *physiological freedom* is attained.

But mistakes are inevitable, and collisions resulting in pain to him will occur between the individual and his environment. His intelligence will thus be quickened. Whence (normally) he will come to prefer (choose) those modes of activity in which he avoids such collisions on the one hand, and on the other hand increases the degree of harmony in his relations with his environment. In this process he develops a "healthy *nature*"—is progressively *born* into a higher degree of life.

Here, too, his more complex environment is the *social* world. In this sphere again he is primarily determined by his environment. But by degrees he comes to determine himself *to it*—unfolds the definite modes of activity known as *habit*—that is, of *subjective social freedom*.

So doing he gains in individual power ("force of character"), and so comes to react upon the environment, and in greater or less degree to determine it *to himself;* that is, he attains an appreciable measure of *objective social freedom*.

This is a distinct expansion in his spiritual birth-process. The elements and conditions of his life are more complex, and there is undeniable increase of self-consistency and of vigor in the manifestation of his life.

This aspect also in the birth-process of the individual as will reaches back through the whole history of the race. For *habit* is but confirmed as well as consistent conformity to *custom;* and custom is just the slowly evolved, organic habit of the race.

But here, too, collisions arise—collisions of such subtle violence and wide-reaching import as to arouse the whole intellectual nature into a vigorous questioning of the whole order of the world in its widest compass. The intelligence, awakened out of mere vague wonder, becomes more positively infused with will. With the shock of contradiction the mildest interrogation points become keen-edged poniards to thrust into the heart of every mystery. What is the *ultimate* order of the world? What is my relation to that order? What is my destiny within that order?

Such inquiry leads to the discovery that the ultimate world-order is characterized above all by its absolute self-consistency; that normal relation of the individual to that order is a relation of conformity; that the individual life is to be realized only through continuous self-adjustment (willing conformity) to that order; and that, hence, the individual's destiny within that order is, by his willing conformity thereto, to progressively assimilate the very world-order itself into his own life-process.

This, indeed, is the highest degree of the endless birth-process by which the individual attains the concrete realization of his own true (*i. e.*, divine) *nature.*

But thus also, in this very manifestation of his life (consisting, on first view, merely of reflex action upon *external* conditions), the individual attains continuously to richer degrees of actual life and to ever-increasing self-consistency of manifestation of life.

That is, the continuous self-adjustment of the individual to the ultimate world-order in its spiritual as well as in its physical aspects is the process of actual assimilation of that order—*the progressive transformation of the external or "mechanical" into the internal or "spontaneous."* It is the gradual approximation of the created mind to the creating Mind; the increasing attainment of concrete, creative self-activity—Freedom in the ultimate or cosmic sense of conscious, deliberate conformity to the rational (ultimate) world-order.

In its subjective, predominantly intellectual aspect, such self-activity is *choice* (as between subjective representations of possible courses of action); while in its objective or predominantly volitional aspect, it is *spontaneity* in the character of concrete self-manifestation of will, giving objective form to the selected representation (ideal, type, plan).

It thus appears that the actual, concrete freedom of the individual will is progressively attained, and that it concerns both spontaneity and choice, since these are but the complementary (subjective and objective) aspects of the will in its actual process of concrete self-manifestation.

COSMIC SUICIDE.

(An abstract of Prof. Sterrett's paper.)

SCIENTIFIC pessimism fails to establish cosmic suicide as a solution of the world-drama.

The topic was opened by stating the difficulty of taking pessimism seriously, its proposed cosmic suicide seeming, at a first glance, to be rather comic philosophy. Yet such philosophy is really only an analysis and interpretation of the *Welt Schmerz* (despair of life) that imbues so large a part of current popular literature. The discussion, however, eliminated all sentimental and rhetorical pessimism—that of mood and fancy—and was confined to the reasoned or scientific form given by Von Hartmann. The subjective, individualistic pessimism of Schopenhauer was only touched upon, Von Hartmann's criticism of it being given; note being made of the easy optimism and capricious individualism of the last part of the eighteenth and much of the nineteenth centuries, pessimism being a product of their failures. A brief outline of Von Hartmann's philosophy of the unconscious was given, showing his unreconciled dualism of a reasonless will and a powerless intellect, following through the three disillusionments of humanity in its progress to the goal of painlessness through a concerted cosmic suicide; thus, as he says, "to annihilate the whole actual volition of the world without residuum, and cause the whole cosmos to disappear at a stroke." Granting this to have been once accomplished, it was maintained that there was nothing in the first principle to guarantee against another a logical act of creation, another resurgence of the reasonless will into the "sinister fact" or "original mistake" of creation again.

Von Hartmann's concession of the probability of this occurring was noted and emphasized as leading to the Hindoo doctrine of cyclic transmigration.

The chief criticism was that of his failure to prove the unconscious to be a sufficient first principle rather than self-consciousness. The Christian form of the theistic first principle was maintained as meeting all the needs.

His "Philosophy of History" was also sharply criticised by contrast with the Christian conception of the kingdom of God, resulting in the perfection of the creation back to God, its home, rather than in annihilation, due use being made of his relative optimism and of his caricature of Hegel's view.

It was also pointed out, on the practical side, that his philosophy failed to show the sufficient moral dynamic necessary to carry on the social progress, intellectual and moral, to the point where cosmic suicide

would be possible. For he declares that growth of consciousness is necessary for this, and yet that all progress into consciousness is progress into deeper pain. Only a few will at first live through the third stage of illusion and gain the sense of the absolute worthlessness of life. And yet they must be heroic leaders in the moral conflict; they, thoroughly *blasé*, must heed the categorical, imperative calling to noblest forms of self-sacrifice. But the practical syllogism of such prematurely enlightened ones will be "back to less knowledge and less pain," both for their own sakes and that of their fellow-men, and thus prevent that cosmic disillusionment that must come before man can resolve upon cosmic suicide. He has allowed that "the life of a fish is more enviable than the life of a horse; that of an oyster than that of a fish; that of a plant than that of an oyster—till we descend below consciousness, and find individual pain disappear altogether." Maintaining eudæmonism, weighing the worth of the world in the scales of hedonics, he cannot expect individuals to do other than apply the same unheroic principle to their own conduct, and to decline the moral effort necessary to advance the intelligence of the race to the point at which cosmic suicide could take place.

Among those who also took part in the discussion were Prof. King, of Oberlin, Rev. George L. Richardson, and Commissioner W. T. Harris.

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENCE.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST DAY.—MORNING SESSION.

TUESDAY, *February* 16, 1892.

THE Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association met in the rooms of the Brooklyn Art Association, Brooklyn, N. Y., on Tuesday morning, February 16, 1892. The President of the Department, Hon. Henry Sabin, of Iowa, called the meeting to order at 10 o'clock.

Prayer was offered by the Rev. Dr. R. S. Storrs, of the Church of the Pilgrims, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Mayor Boody, in behalf of the people of Brooklyn, extended a cordial greeting to the Department, tendering the hospitality of the city.

President Joseph C. Hendricks, of the Brooklyn Board of Education, speaking in behalf of that body and of the City Public Schools, extended a generous welcome to the members of the Department.

To these very neat addresses the President of the Department made suitable response.

On motion of Mr. W. E. Sheldon, of Boston, the President was authorized to appoint the usual standing committees.

Superintendent Edwin P. Seaver, of Boston, extended a most earnest invitation to the Department to meet next year in the city of Boston, submitting the following action of the Board of Education of that city :—

Boston, Mass., *February* 9, 1892.

On motion of Mr. Capen, the Superintendent of Schools was authorized to invite the National Association of School Superintendents to hold their next annual convention in Boston, and to extend to them the usual hospitalities.

ATTEST : PHINEAS BATES, *Secretary.*

Action deferred until the afternoon session of Wednesday.

Hon. Henry Raab, State Superintendent of Illinois, was introduced. He read a paper on the Rural School Problem.

Superintendent J. A. Shawan, of Columbus, Ohio, was appointed to report the discussions on this paper.

Superintendent Raab's paper was discussed by Hon. O. E. Wells, State Superintendent of Wisconsin; Mr. John MacDonald, editor of the *Western School Journal*, Topeka, Kansas; Hon. E. B. Prettyman, State Superintendent of Maryland; C. C. Rounds, Principal of Plymouth Normal School, Plymouth, N. H.; Judge Andrew S. Draper, State Superintendent of New York; Hon. Geo. H. Martin, Agent Massachusetts State Board of Education; L. R. Klemm, of the Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.; and Dr. Henry Barnard, of Connecticut.

The President declared a recess until 2:30 P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Department convened at 2:30 P.M., President Sabin in the chair.

The following standing committees were announced :—

ON RESOLUTIONS.—Hon. Andrew S. Draper, of New York; Miss Elizabeth Harrison, of Chicago; Supt. J. M. Greenwood, of Missouri; Inspector Jas. L. Hughes, of Toronto, Canada; and Hon. E. B. Prettyman, of Maryland.

ON NOMINATIONS.—Supt. A. P. Marble, of Massachusetts; C. C. Rounds, of New Hampshire; Hon. D. H. Kiehle, of Minnesota; Hon. N. B. Coy, of Colorado; and Hon. W. R. Garrett, of Tennessee.

Dr. Selim H. Peabody, chief of the Department of Liberal Arts, read a paper on the Educational Exhibits of the World's Columbian Exposition.

Supt. F. Treudley, of Youngstown, Ohio, was appointed to report the discussions of the afternoon.

A running discussion followed the reading of Dr. Peabody's paper, consisting principally of questions and answers, participated in by U. S. Commissioner Harris; Seaver, of Boston; Greenwood, of Kansas City; Tarbell, of Providence, R. I.; Brooks, of Phildelphia; Supt. O. M. Brands, of Paterson, N. J., and others.

Dr. W. T. Harris, U. S. Commissioner of Education, read a paper on the World's Educational Congress.

The subject was discusssed by Supt. Lane, of Chicago, and others.

IN MEMORIAM.

President Sabin, addressing the Association, called attention to the fact that the following distinguished gentlemen, members of the Department of Superintendence, N. E. A., had died since our last meeting.

Dr. John P. Wickersham, late State Superintendent of Pennsylvania. Born March 5, 1825; died March 25, 1891.

Dr. John Hancock, late State Superintendent of Ohio. Born February 18, 1825; died June 1, 1891.

Dr. Thomas W. Harvey, late State Superintendent of Ohio. Born December 18, 1821; died January 20, 1892.

Eulogies on the lives and public services of the above were pronounced by the following gentlemen :

On Dr. Wickersham, by Dr. Edward Brooks, of Philadelphia.

On Dr. Hancock, by Mr. W. E. Sheldon, of Boston.

On Dr. Harvey, by Supt. L. W. Day, of Cleveland.

Dr. Zalmon Richards of Washington also addressed the Department.

The President declared a recess until 8 o'clock P.M.

EVENING SESSION.

The Department re-assembled at 8 o'clock, President Sabin in the chair.

A paper was read by Supt. J. H. Phillips, of Birmingham, Ala., on History and Literature in Grammar Grades.

Pres. Charles W. Eliot, of Harvard University, read a paper on Shortening and Enriching the Grammar-School Course.

Supt. V. G. Curtis, of New Haven, Conn., was appointed to report the discussions of the evening.

President Eliot's paper was discussed by the following gentlemen : Dr. Brooks, of Philadelphia ; Hon. John T. Prince, of Massachusetts; Supt. Bouton, of Bridgeport, Conn.; Judge Draper, of New York; and President Low, of Columbia College. President Eliot closed the discussion.

Adjourned until 10 o'clock, Wednesday morning.

A reception was tendered the Department at the close of the session, Tuesday evening, by the Brooklyn Board of Education.

SECOND DAY.—Morning Session.

WEDNESDAY, *February* 17.

The Department re-assembled at 10 o'clock, President Sabin in the chair.

Judge A. S. Draper, of New York, moved that it be the sense of the meeting that persons who discuss papers do so without using previously prepared manuscript. Adopted.

On motion of Superintendent Aaron Gove, of Denver, Col., the Secretary was directed to send the manuscript of the proceedings, addresses, and discussions of this meeting to the printer, not later than March 1, 1892.

Commissioner Harris submitted the following preamble and resolutions, which were unanimously adopted :

Whereas, The World's Congress Auxiliary of the World's Columbian Exposition have made a patriotic suggestion that, at the same time that the Exposition Grounds at Chicago are being dedicated on Oct. 12, 1892, the Anniversary of the Discovery of America, all the people of the United States unite in a celebration of the Anniversary, of which celebration the Public Schools of the Republic be everywhere the centre ; therefore,

Resolved, 1. That the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association heartily indorse this suggestion, as serving the purpose both of interesting the youth of the Republic in the Exposition, and also of giving to the Public Schools of the Nation a fitting prominence as the fruit of four centuries of American life.

2. That we ask Superintendents of Education and Teachers everywhere in the Republic to unite in the effort to do all in their power to make this National Columbian Public School Celebration universal and successful.

3. That we request the newspaper press of the United States to insure the success of this celebration by lending to it the powerful aid of their sympathy and co-operation.

4. That we name the heads of education in the several States as a General Committee, ex-officio, to be the patrons of the celebration in their respective States, and to carry out so far as they can, the suggestion of the Executive Committee.

5. That a Program Committee of five persons shall be appointed by the Chair to prepare a program of exercises and furnish the same to the Committee of Superintendents to use according to their discretion ; one of the five persons of said Program Committee to be the manager already appointed by Mr. C. C. Bonney, President of the World's Congress Auxiliary.

In accordance with the above resolutions, the following standing committee was appointed :

Francis Bellamy, of Massachusetts; Hon. J. W. Dickinson, of Massachusetts ; Thomas B. Stockwell, of Rhode Island ; Hon. W. R. Garrett, of Tennessee ; and N. C. Hewett, of Michigan.

Superintendent Frank A. Fitzpatrick, of Omaha, read a paper on What is the Duty of the State towards children of Kindergarten Age ?

The subject was further discussed by Superintendents Aaron Gove, of Denver ; Edwin P. Seaver, of Boston ; Miss Elizabeth Harrison, of Chicago ; Inspector J. L. Hughes, of Toronto ; Superintendent W. B. Powell, of Washington, D. C.; Eugene Bouton, of Bridgeport, Conn.; Mrs. Rebecca D. Rickoff, of New York City ; Superintendent W. N. Hailman, of La Porte, Ind.; Judge Andrew S. Draper, of Albany ; Superintendent W. H. Maxwell, of Brooklyn; United States Commissioner W. T. Harris; and Superintendent Fitzpatrick, who closed the discussion.

During the discussion the following resolution, offered by Superintendent Hailman, was, on motion of Superintendent Maxwell, referred to the Committee on Resolutions :

Resolved, That the Kindergarten as a means to give to the nascent social tendencies of children direction toward benevolence and civic efficiency is a necessary part of a complete system of schools.

Dr. A. J. Rickoff, having obtained permission of the chair, called attention to two circulars that had been placed on the members' desks after the morning session. Both circulars were issued by Dr. W. T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education.

The first one, dated March, 1891, calls to mind the efficient services of Henry Barnard (1839 to 1849), in reforming the schools of Connecticut and Rhode Island, and that then "having resolved to devote his life to the work of providing easy access to the great works on education in all

languages, through translations into English, he printed and published *thirty-one* volumes of the *American Journal of Education,* containing nearly one thousand pages each, with the result of sinking his own private fortune and embarrassing himself in his old age by debts and mortgages to a vexatious degree."

This circular further informs us that in March, 1891, Dr. Barnard "had on hand at his home in Hartford volumes of the *Journal* and special treatises derived therefrom, to the amount of at least $20,000, counting at half price, together with stereotype plates of the *Journal,* which alone would cost $30,000 at current rates."

Dr. Barnard having thus exhausted his resources and arrived at an age when the further prosecution of the enterprise was impossible, many individual efforts were made to aid him, but they have all proved inadequate. The printed matter was in danger of being sold for waste paper, and the stereotype plates in danger of being sent to the melting pot. To save this valuable material as the nucleus of a standard library for all who are now or in time may become interested in the cause of education or in any department of human culture from the Kindergarten to the University, but one plan seemed available, the formation of a stock company to purchase the entire plant of the *American Journal of Education.*

In the circular of December 1, President Harris formally announces the incorporation and complete organization of the Henry Barnard Publishing Company under the Laws of the State of New Jersey. "The amount of capital stock is twenty-five thousand dollars, which is divided into shares of $100 each, FULL PAID AND NON-ASSESSABLE. Certificates of stock are ready for delivery on receipt of $100 by the Treasurer."

In this circular he also publishes the fact that "the Company has purchased of Dr. Henry Barnard, of Hartford, Conn., the plates, stock, and entire plant of the *American Journal of Education,* to and including Volume 31, and all the special publications derived therefrom, and will continue the publication and sale of these works and of other treatises on psychology, pedagogy, and schools; and that, to facilitate the accomplishment of this object, a contract has been made and entered into with Charles W. Bardeen, Esq., of Syracuse, N. Y., whereby the latter has become the general agent of the Company for the purpose of publishing and selling the works named."

The circular of Dec. 1, 1891, also announces that at the meeting of the Board of Directors held July 2d, action had been taken to establish the Henry Barnard Society, the object of which is to make known and promote a general circulation of Dr. Barnard's publications.

The management of the Society to the end of the year 1893 is in the hands of the officers and general agent of the Henry Barnard Publishing Company, and its business and correspondence will be conducted through them.

The certificate of membership, handsomely engraved by the Homer Lee Bank Note Engraving Company, "bears on its face a portrait of Dr. Barnard, from a daguerreotype taken when he was about to begin his educational publications, and a second, from a photograph taken fifty years later, when about to close his educational activity." On the back of these certificates will be printed the rates of discount allowed to members, as follows :

1. A member paying one dollar for a certificate of membership is entitled to a discount of 25 per cent. on the retail price of any of the Henry Barnard Publications that are kept in stock by the Publishing Company.

2. The payment of five dollars or more for a certificate of membership entitles to a like discount of one-third of the retail price.

3. The payment of fifty dollars or more entitles to 40 per cent. discount.

4. Any number of members having paid, in the aggregate, one hundred dollars for membership in the Society are entitled to appoint a representative to act as a member of the Publishing Company.

5. Any club or other association may in its associate capacity become a member of the Company. In this way the National Educational Association has taken five shares of stock at one hundred dollars per share, and also ordered and paid for five hundred dollars' worth of the publications of the Company, exchangeable for capital stock at the discretion of the Board of Trustees.

Allow me to recapitulate briefly the means by which you may aid this enterprise.

1st. You may secure memberships of either the *Society* or the *Company* from the attendants at State, County, City or Township associations. The names, addresses, and fees of all members of the Society should be promptly sent to the Secretary or agent of the Company for certificate and record.

2d. You may procure the sale of publications of the Company. Complete sets of the *Journal* should be placed in every public library.

3d. By becoming a member of the Company you will help to forward its purposes not only by your financial contribution but by your personal influence.

Finally, permit me to express confidence that by the means proposed the teachers and friends of education in the United States will not fail to lift the burden from the shoulders of Mr. Barnard, who has struggled under it for forty years, and who by old age and by the exhaustion of his own private fortune is now compelled to relinquish any further prosecution of an enterprise which from the beginning was designed, in the language of Dr. Harris's first circular, "to provide easy access for teachers to the great works on education in all languages through translations into English."

The President declared a recess until 2:30 P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Department was called to order by the President at 2:30 P. M.

Mr. Charles W. Hill, President of the Massachusetts Schoolmasters' Club, read a paper on the subject: What can be done to bring Children on further in their Studies before they leave School to go to Work.

The question was further discussed by Hon. J. H. Shinn, State Superintendent of Arkansas; Mr. J. H. Blodgett, of Washington, D. C.; E. O. Vaile, Editor of *Intelligence*, Chicago; and Mr. C. W. Hill, who closed the discussion.

President E. H. Cook, of the National Educational Association, made a number of important announcements in relation to the Saratoga Meeting. Judge Draper extended a cordial invitation to the members of the Department and teachers generally, to attend the N. Y. State Teachers' Association, convening this year at Saratoga, and also the University convocation at Albany early in July next.

The report submitted by the Chairman of the Committee on Statistics, Hon. W. T. Harris, National Commissioner of Education, will be found on page 000.

The report as submitted was unanimously approved.

The matter of the selection of the next place of meeting was then brought up by Mr. W. E. Sheldon, in accordance with the action taken on Tuesday. Superintendent E. P. Seaver extended a cordial invitation to the Department to meet in Boston next year. Hon. J. H. Shinn urged that Little Rock, Ark., be selected as the next place of meeting.

On motion of Superintendent Gove, Boston was selected.

On motion of Mr. Winship, a vote of thanks was tendered the people of Little Rock for the very cordial invitation extended to the Department to meet there next year.

Adjourned to meet at the Pratt Institute at 8 o'clock P. M.

EVENING SESSION.

The evening session was held in the auditorium of the Pratt Institute, President Sabin in the chair.

Superintendent John E. Bradley, of Minneapolis, Minn., read a paper on the subject: The Influence of Manual Training upon Habits of Thought.

Superintendent W. B. Powell, of Washington, D. C., read a paper on the question: Is there a Place for Manual Training between the Kindergarten and the High School?

The question was further discussed by Mr. W. E. Sheldon, Superintendent Hailman, Dr. E. E. White, of Ohio, Superintendent A. P. Marble, of Mass., and Superintendents Bradley and Powell, who closed the discussion.

Adjourned to meet at 10 A.M., Thursday.

THIRD DAY.—Morning Session.

Thursday, *February* 18, 1892.

The Department re-assembled in the rooms of the Brooklyn Art Association at 10 o'clock, President Sabin in the chair.

Supt. W. H. Maxwell extended a cordial invitation to the members of the Department to visit the Brooklyn city schools on Friday.

Dr. G. Stanley Hall, of Clark University, Worcester, Mass., read a paper on the Health of School Children as affected by School Buildings.

The subject was further discussed by means of running questions and answers, many members of the Department participating.

Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia College, New York, offered the following resolution:

That this Department deprecates most strongly the tendency in this country to make the political opinions of school officers a condition of their retention in office, and asks the sympathy and support of intelligent public opinion in wholly divorcing school administration from party politics.

Adopted by an unanimous rising vote.

The Committee on Resolutions, through the Chairman, Hon. A. S. Draper, of New York, submitted the following report, which was unanimously approved:

Resolved, That the thanks of the Department are hereby expressed to the President, Hon. Henry Sabin, and the Secretary, Supt. L. W. Day, for the good judgment and indefatigable effort which have resulted in such complete and excellent preparations for this meeting, as well as for the satisfactory manner in which they have discharged the delicate and exacting duties of their respective positions during the sessions. Their conscientious labors have largely contributed to the great success of one of the largest and most profitable meetings ever held by the Department.

Resolved, That we likewise extend our appreciative thanks to the Mayor, the School Board, the Superintendent of Schools, his assistants, and innumerable citizens of Brooklyn, for the courteous attention and generous hospitalities which have been manifested at all times and on every side, and which will cause every member of this Department to hold this city and its active and generous people in pleasant and grateful recollection.

Resolved, That the Department reiterates the declarations of the National Educational Association in reference to the importance of co-ordinating the Kindergarten with the Common School work of the country, and expresses satisfaction that the movement in that direction seems to gain strength and headway in the succeeding years. The Kindergarten has unquestionably passed the experimental stage, is not only entirely practicable in connection with the Common Schools, but will greatly promote their efficiency and greatly facilitate their work in preparing parents and children alike for the duties and responsibilities of citizenship.

Resolved, That we commend the policy of the General Government concerning the education of the Indians, and urge upon Congress the increase of appropriations for that purpose until schools are provided for all.

Adjourned to meet at 2:30 P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Department met at 2:30, the President in the chair.

Mr. W. H. Brett, Librarian of the Public Library of Cleveland, Ohio, read a paper on the Relations of the Public Library to the Schools and Workingmen.

The question was further discussed by Dr. A. E. Winship, editor of the *N. E. School Journal;* Supt. Whitcomb, of Lowell, Mass.; Dr. W. A. Mowry, of Salem, Mass.; Hon. D. H. Kiehle, of St. Paul, Minn.; Dr. H. M. Leipziger, of New York City; Hon. N. B. Coy, of Denver, Colorado; Miss Elizabeth Harrison, of Chicago; Hon. E. B. Prettyman, of Baltimore, Md.; Dr. Brooks, of Philadelphia; Supt. Greenwood, of Kansas City, Mo.; Mrs. Rebecca D. Rickoff, of New York; Dr. Houston, of Philadelphia; Supts. Powell of Washington, Lane of Chicago, Day of Cleveland; and Mr. W. H. Brett, who closed the discussion.

The Committee on Nominations submitted the following report, which was unanimously adopted :

For President, Supt. Edward Brooks, of Philadelphia.

For Vice-President, Supt. John E. Bradley, of Minneapolis.

For Secretary, Supt. J. H. Phillips, of Birmingham, Ala.

Adjourned to meet at 8 o'clock P.M.

EVENING SESSION.

The Department re-assembled at 8 o'clock, the President in the chair.

Dr. Max Hark, of Lancaster, Pa., read a paper on the Life and Characteristics of Comenius.

Supt. W. H. Maxwell, of Brooklyn, N. Y., read a paper on the Text-Books of Comenius, illustrated by stereopticon views.

Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia College, New York, read a paper on the Place of Comenius in the History of Education.

Dr. Brooks, the newly elected President of the Department, was introduced. He accepted the responsibilities of the Presidency in a neat but brief address.

There being no further business, the Department adjourned to meet next year in the city of Boston.

L. W. DAY, *Secretary.*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS.

THE RURAL SCHOOL PROBLEM.

BY HON. HENRY RAAB, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF ILLINOIS.

When I promised to present at this meeting a "paper" on the "Rural School Problem" I felt conscious that I should not be able to solve this problem; but in the conviction that everything that may help to bring this problem nearer its solution will be meritorious, I undertook to offer a contribution to that end. And the improvement of the rural schools is a task in which every lover of his country and his race may profitably engage. Our city schools, in fact all our schools, do need the thought and work of the best talent, but our social and financial conditions rest more heavily upon the schools of the country, and naturally hinder their growth and prosperity. Where I quote statistics I can give them best for my own State, Illinois, but I believe that, except the former slave States and those recently admitted into the Union, Illinois is a fair average representative of the condition of the schools in the American Commonwealth. The superior or inferior features of the school laws of the different States do not affect the conditions of the graded or ungraded schools in such a manner as to come under consideration here. And what I am able to say about the school laws of my own State, namely, that the people under these laws have the power to make their schools good, provided they will put enough money into them and give them sufficient care and attention, is equally true of the other States. The machinery of administration in some States may not be quite perfect and the application of a little oil in its different parts might prevent friction, yet one thing the school laws of all the States permit the people to do: to employ competent teachers, to giving them permanent positions, and to pay them living salaries. The last two named things, especially, will secure the first, the desideratum in all schools, competent, well-prepared teachers, who love their calling and are proud of their work. For, with the most glorious enactments, the most spacious and well arranged school buildings, the most comfortable furniture, the best text-books and the most ingenious apparatus and contrivances, schools without good teachers are like a manufacturing establishment without the propelling power.

After these prefatory remarks you will at once see where I stand and what I consider the solution of the problem mentioned; yet there are other factors, which enter into the problem, and which have to be discussed. Though it seems scarcely necessary in this assembly of enlightened schoolmen to define what a rural school is, I make free to state, it is a school which is taught by one teacher and in which all ages from six years to majority are represented; a school which is mostly kept open from five to seven months in the year; a school situated all alone in the country and generally more than forty rods from any human habitation. It is distinguished from the graded school, which is situated in a village, town, or city, and is divided into grades according to the attainments of the children, and is supervised by a principal or superintendent, and of which each grade is taught by a different teacher. I very much regret that, for comparison's sake, this distinction does not extend further back than 1880 in the school reports of Illinois, and the numbers for 1880 and 1890 only are here given. Of a total of 704,041 pupils enrolled in 1880, 266,831 were enrolled in graded schools and 437,220 in ungraded schools; in per cent., about 38 of the whole number in graded and 62 in the ungraded schools. The graded schools were taught by 4,908 teachers, or 22 per cent. of all the teachers in the State; the ungraded by 17,340 teachers, or 78 per cent. of all the teachers in the State. Now mark how these figures are changed ten years later, in 1890: Of a total of 778,319 children, 400,159, or 51 per cent., are enrolled in the graded; 378,160, or 49 per cent., are enrolled in the ungraded schools; of a total of 23,164 teachers, 8,462, or 36½ per cent., were employed in the graded, and 14,702, or 63½ per cent., in the ungraded schools. The average number of children taught by one teacher was 47 in the graded and 26 in the ungraded schools; the average length of term in the graded schools was 8.6, in the ungraded 7.2 months; the cost of tuition per capita on the enrollment was $15.43 in the former and $13.25 in the latter per year, or to reduce it to an equality, $1.80 and 1.84, respectively, per month.

What do these figures teach? In the first place it is most conclusively shown that the number of children instructed in rural schools is constantly diminishing; that the cost of tuition in rural schools is higher by a fraction than that in graded schools, owing to the smaller number of pupils intrusted to the teacher in the former compared with that of the latter, and that the salaries paid in rural schools are much smaller than those paid in the graded schools. Were the salaries paid in the country in a measure equal to those paid in towns and cities, the cost of tuition would be about 100 per cent. higher. And what a loss of human energy, when 51 per cent. of the children are taught by 36½ per cent. of the teachers, in the graded schools, and 49 per cent. of the children are taught by 63½ per cent. of the teachers, in the ungraded schools.

I suppose the drift of population into the cities, instead of diminishing,

will increase in the future, and the number of children instructed in rural schools will proportionately diminish, too. The labor-saving machines in agriculture have lessened the number of laborers on farms, and the constant growth of our large cities has correspondingly drawn more men to those centers of population.

But let us look first at the rural school, its grounds, building, surroundings, outhouses, drainage, water-supply, furniture, apparatus, and *teachers*. The picture that I have to draw has a few bright spots. There are rural districts where the culture and sentiment of the people demand good houses, beautiful surroundings, needful apparatus and contrivances, and comfortable furniture, and where the directors have the good sense to seek competent teachers and, when they have found such, to keep them by paying living salaries and sustaining them in their laudable efforts to instruct and educate the children of the district. Such bright spots, however, are the minority; the daubs and blotches, gray in gray, are far more numerous. In many instances the school grounds are bare, the fences torn down and neglected, no shade trees nor flowering shrubs, coal bin open to the depredations of the tramps, outhouses unclean and offensive, no walks nor well, a rectangular, tasteless house, looking more like a barn than a building for human beings to live in. The gable-ends without any windows, the door in one of them, and three windows in each of the long side-walls. The provisions for healthy light, one of the first requisites of a schoolhouse, are totally ignored. The door opens directly into the schoolroom, where, besides the furniture, clothing and dinner pails, and in winter time, sleds and skates and all sorts of things, have to be kept during school hours. (It seems impossible to keep the air in such a room in a condition fit to breathe.) The stove, oftentimes rickety so that it is constantly endangering the lives of the children, overheated in wintertime, causing those that sit near it to roast, while those in the remote corners are shivering with cold; the walls dingy and without plaster in some places, the ceiling black with smoke, the floor unswept, the windows covered with film; such is often the place into which the rural population sends its children. Without sound blackboards, without maps and charts, without globe, reference books or supplies, the teacher is compelled to "make bricks without straw."

Now, all this would not be so bad if care were taken to procure good teachers, those agents who can awaken the minds of the children and lead them to culture and humanity. But what is the practice? The school-year is divided into a fall, a winter, and a spring term. During the winter term, when the work on the farm does not require their presence at home and the larger boys can attend school, a strong, experienced (?) teacher, sometimes a man, is hired; in fall and spring, when only younger children attend, a young, cheap teacher of little experience, generally a woman, is considered good enough for that primary work. What, under such cir-

cumstances, the results must be, needs no comment. If anything is done at all, the teacher can convey some little literary, textbook knowledge; government and moral training receive very scanty attention. Yet, even where the school year is not divided into terms and the teacher is employed for the entire year, from five to eight months, cheapness is the condition on which he or she is hired. That "poor teaching, poor pay" go hand in hand, needs no proof. And where does our supply of teachers come from? When a boy or girl, mostly the latter, has "fagged through" the country school as it is, and has imbibed sufficient textbook knowledge to pass the county superintendent's examination and is of the minimum age at which she is by law permitted to engage in teaching, she goes out in search of a school, and hires to the district at the closest salary they can agree upon. In the name of humanity, I ask, what preparation, what training, have these young people for the responsible office which they are to fill? Do not tell me that "docendo discimus," that by teaching we learn, and that the desire to teach is inherent in man. Like the desire to teach, the desire to heal is inherent in man; yet do you, for this desire, employ every man as your physician? Do you not expect of the one who is to take charge of your body that he undergo a rigid training in a medical college, hearing lectures and dissecting bodies, studying in hospitals and at the bedside, before you allow him to apply the scalpel or to administer physic? Yet, in teaching, no such preparation is deemed essential; the desire to teach stands for the preparation and ability to teach. It is true many have become teachers in the course of years after many sad failures, but the truth is also that only few, as teachers, survive this time of trial and experiment. The average life of the teacher in Illinois in '84 was as follows: In graded schools, men 81.5 months, women 59.5 months; in ungraded schools, men 34.5 months, and women 21.5 months. Or in other words, men in ungraded schools taught almost five years and women about three years. No one will contend that five or three years, respectively, are sufficient time for acquiring experience in teaching, even for teachers who have before had professional training in normal schools.

Since the average experience of the teaching force of one entire State is of so short duration, the graded schools have another advantage over the rural schools, that of supervision. Where in towns and villages more than one teacher is employed, generally the more experienced one is made principal, and to that one the subordinate teachers look for guidance, aid and support, for counsel and admonition in questions of government and instruction. In cities some person or persons are appointed simply for this work. But in the rural schools the young teacher has for days, nay, weeks and months, no one to look after him or her, if a disgruntled parent does not come around to "look after things." The county superintendent would gladly do more in this direction, but the great number of schools and their distance from one another forbid that officer from

doing more. By supervision our city school systems are kept in motion, and somewhat creditable results are obtained in them. Then the city teachers enjoy the advantages of living in constant touch with their colleagues; scarcely a day passes on which questions of common interest are not brought under discussion among them.

I do not wish to multiply the many hindrances to good education in rural districts, but will turn my attention to the means by which the teaching in country schools may be improved. The farmers themselves are beginning to feel that they do not hold the position in the commonwealth which by reason of their numbers, their importance as the principal producers, they ought to occupy. They have organized themselves into all sorts of societies, open and secret; granges, alliances, and clubs are found in many townships. Among a great many impossible things they demand also a great many just things, and in these they deserve the recognition and support of every citizen and, especially, the teachers of the country. When the farmers demand special legislation in their behalf; when they propose to form into a political party by virtue of their occupation; when they expect the government to purchase their surplus produce and store it; when they demand the unlimited issuing of paper money without any funds to redeem it; then citizens, and especially teachers, will respectfully differ with them; but when they strive to improve their social, intellectual, and financial condition, every one may well contribute his share towards the consummation. But as long as the farmers expect salvation from without, they will look for any improvement of their condition in vain, even in the shape of legislation. They can elect public-spirited, liberal men, school directors, vote sufficient funds to maintain good schools, and cause their children to attend these regularly and for the necessary length of time. In the same manner they may improve their condition socially and intellectually. What hinders them from uniting in townships or smaller territories for the purpose of organizing reading circles, debating clubs, dramatic and musical entertainments, and similar pastime? With a little energy and a small outlay of money, not only an improvement of the social and intellectual needs of the farmer will be accomplished but also another complaint would be silenced, namely the drift of the young people into the cities. For, why do the young people wish to leave the country and go into the city, if it is not from the desire to take part in those social and intellectual advantages that city life offers? Perhaps, the expectation of better financial results in the city may lead to this drift. But it is a well-known fact that the fittest only survive and the great majority go under in the race; shattered in fortune many, too many, return to the country to find themselves unable to follow the work there. Used to city ways, they find it impossible to work with energy on the farm. Would it not be better and cheaper for the parents to prepare for their sons and daughters the much coveted

prize at home and allow them under their parental surveillance all those liberties and amusements, those opportunities for mental improvement and recreation, in the country? I believe teachers of ambition, too, could be induced to remain in rural districts where they may have a more blissful field of labor than ever they can find in graded schools.

It seems to me that school officers should labor both in meetings and through the press in this direction to convince the farmers of the necessity of their helping themselves in this matter. If they go on in their present course, the evil will grow greater from year to year; whilst by a judicious self-help the regeneration of the rural schools is not impossible. Even if there should be the present employment of home talent only, that talent will be so much more serviceable and better cultured as the farmers avail themselves of this self-help. In another direction the farmers have to exert themselves. We have seen from the figures quoted that 49 per cent. of the children in rural schools are taught by 63 per cent. of the teachers, or while one teacher in the city was able to instruct 47 pupils, in the country he was able to instruct only 26 pupils, on an average. I know by inquiry from county superintendents made in 1886, that there are numerous districts in which one teacher has an enrollment of less than ten children. What a waste of energy! For the most trivial causes districts are cut in two so that neither has enough assessed valuation of property to maintain a good school. The tendency has been to increase the number of districts, while, for the sake of strong, good schools, the opposite ought to be the rule. This is another text upon which school officers and the press might preach.

Since our people are apt to believe in self-given laws, and foreigners praise them for obedience to these laws, you will expect me also to propose some amendments to the existing acts. The first one I have to make is, what I have always proposed as a condition *sine qua non* for effective work in all common schools, the training of teachers for their calling in State normal schools. The recruiting of the teaching force for the common school from the common school, without professional preparation, is so detrimental to the interests of education, and the lack of provision for the professional training of teachers is so manifest, that it seems to me like "carrying coals to Newcastle" were I to dwell upon this extensively in this assembly. I hold these truths to be self-evident: The State having assumed the control of elementary education for its own sake, it follows that this elementary education should be made as thorough and effective as human skill can make it. Education is both a science and an art. Scholarship alone does not constitute ability to impart knowledge, nor the ability to govern a school well, nor to educate. The ideal of the teacher, namely, to develop the human being in all its powers and to all its possibilities, is not the product of common school life, not even of the high school or college; it must be acquired by careful training and con-

stant exhibition of example to this end. And, when the ideal has been secured, the means leading to this end do not come as a matter *per se.* These means have to be taught, theoretically and practically, so that the teacher may perform his work cheerfully, harmoniously, and successfully, with the least expense of energy and the highest advantage to the taught. What is most conducive to all this, is not acquired by chance ; it can not even be acquired in colleges and universities which make scholarship and general culture their aim ; but there have to be established by the State professional schools for this purpose, the same as law schools for the jurist, medical schools for the physician, theological schools for the clergyman, and all the polytechnic schools for the engineer and architect.

And is not the field covered by education sufficiently large to demand special schools for the training of those who are to engage in it ? The demands made upon the teacher are so enormous, and ought to be great, and the agencies to satisfy these demands are so scanty. Especially in the country is there such a wide field of usefulness for the progressive, enthusiastic teacher. The establishment of libraries, instruction in horticulture, in bee-keeping, etc., the leadership in all intellectual and social entertainments, would be a task that every teacher might be proud to engage in. But in order to do this, the teacher must have superior culture, should be well versed in literature so as to assist in all these laudable enterprises. Would not men who possess these qualifications enjoy much greater confidence and respect than is now the case, when the pedagogue is looked down upon by every one who is competent to earn a few pennies more ? Is is not about time that Ichabod Crane existed in literature only ? But who is sufficient for that circle of usefulness that I should like to see the teacher hold in rural districts ? Certainly not those who graduate from the rural schools such as they now are. The State normal schools should make it their business to prepare their students to fulfill this mission for teachers when they are to take places in country schools. And I have no doubt that, when such usefulness and attendant respect is accorded the teacher in rural districts, he will prefer to remain in the country, thinking like Julius Cæsar : "I would rather be first in this village than second in Rome."

While I like to see women teach in certain departments of graded schools, I think it unwise both for directors to employ and for women to accept places in ungraded schools. While I believe that women when they possess the scholarship and the necessary training can instruct as well as men, I doubt whether they can properly govern a school or exert the proper educational influence over large boys and girls. We cannot close our eyes to this condition of things. There are certain things which women, because of their sex, can not do and should not be made to do. I, for one, have always considered it cruel to place an innocent girl all by herself in a country school, there to watch over the large boys.

This reflection brings me to another one and the last suggestion I have to make. Our country schools need closer supervision. There is more and better work done in city schools because of the supervision. Now, I am not of the opinion that in the country schools supervision is necessary for the enforcement of courses of study, for uniformity of attainments and all those measures which govern the city schools, but for the encouragement and assistance of the teachers and ascertaining whether each one makes the best of his opportunities for the good of the people of the district. There is now supervision, and it is made incumbent upon him by law in Illinois, by the county superintendent; but when you consider a territory of 550 square miles with 200 teachers scattered over it, you will see that close, nay adequate, supervision is impossible. If a law could be passed to enable the districts of a township to unite in appointing a competent teacher, superintendent to watch over the schools of the township, visiting them often and doing all that a principal in a town or village school does, much in the way of better instruction and discipline might be accomplished.

I feel that I have not been able to advance any new thoughts upon the subject of the rural schools. But, on the other hand, I am conscious that startling disclosures could not be expected on this subject. It remains partly in the hands of the farmers themselves, and partly in the hands of our law-givers, to make the best of the opportunities offered them. As the people are the source of all power in our commonwealth, it is also the people who must aid themselves, if they really desire the help which is to liberate them from the vice of indolence and to give them intelligence and culture. I do not preach extravagance, but true economy. Too often the people do not derive the advantages which should accrue from their investments. It will not be necessary to invest 25 per cent. more under the favorable conditions named, to improve the schools 100 per cent. But one thing is needed in addition to the enhanced investments, namely: as much care and attention to the education of the young as the prudent farmer gives to his crops and to his stock. The noblest product of creation is, after all, noble men and women.

DISCUSSION.

[Reported by Supt. J. A. Shawan, Columbus, Ohio.]

Hon. O. E. Wells, Madison, Wisconsin.—The solution of any problem requires us first to find out the conditions, and then to apply rational principles. If there is a rural school problem, it offers no exception to the rule. We are not at liberty in the office or in a convention, to describe ideal conditions to be secured by theoretical applications. A good

system of schools must be a growth under normal conditions and in natural ways. If the people have low ideals, they must be taught higher ones, but it takes time to grasp and to appreciate new and noble ideals. We must study the schools as they now are. We need to know what changes they have undergone or are undergoing. If they are at a standstill, we should know whether they have crystallized at perfection or in deformity.

Complaints and denunciations will work no cure. If the rural schools are ill-housed, it is of no use to rail at the people for giving better quarters to their live stock than to their children. It is not so unnatural that they should do so as it seems at first statement. The farmers' gains are largely due to it. Well-sheltered stock can be more cheaply and better prepared for the market. It is not so easy to see what poor school-houses and untidy surroundings have to do with the child's education, health and morals. The untimely death of the boy may be due to a crack in the wall or a cold floor or to foul air, but the parents are quite as likely to charge it to a mysterious Providence. Bad manners and morals may be due to vile pictures and filthy apartments on the school premises, but it is more than probable that they will be considered as the outcropping of inbred tendencies.

Better school facilities will come with increasing wealth. Comfortable homes will be followed by comfortable schoolhouses. It may be more fitting that these latter should have precedence of barns and sties, but the rule has usually worked the other way. It may be that an educated boy is a more productive animal than a fatted calf, but the fact has not been so readily perceived. There may even be a higher ideal in education than the production of wealth, but the necessity of gaining a livelihood gives money-getting a natural precedence. The stern facts of daily life take little heed of fine theories. This is why there is so much misdirected effort upon the part of the well-to-do. If anything could be done to improve the condition of the masses in material things, the educational and esthetic would not be long wanting. Mr. Carnegie has said, in substance, that it is better for the people that the government should so shape its policy as to concentrate their earnings in the hands of a few, because the money would thus be more wisely spent. It may be true that great universities and public libraries would be built in centers of wealth and population, but it is not so clear that the children of the peasant and the laborer would be better provided for.

It cannot be too often nor too strongly urged that any scheme for helping the rural population must recognize their pecuniary ability, their way of thinking, and their real needs. Their conception of an education as the ability to read, write, and cipher is not illogical or short-sighted. It more nearly meets their present needs than any other ever proposed. Their ideal does not need change but expansion. They need not only to know how to read, but what to read and to love to read. The world has not gone entirely wrong during all the centuries. The instincts of

the people are right. They want, first, the keys of knowledge, and, second, enlarged and enlightened views.

We do not, therefore, need a new system or new machinery. We ought rather to try to perfect what we have. The first requisite is closer and more intelligent supervision. No one will question this who has seen the revolution made by a capable superintendent even in one brief term. It is often said, "As is the teacher, so is the school." With equal propriety may it be said, "As is the superintendent, so are the teachers, and consequently, the schools." The efficient superintendent does his most effective work not by means of legal enactments, but by tactful leadership. His gentlemanly bearing, his scholarly habits, his prudent counsel, his industry and enthusiasm create conditions and direct effort in ways that laws can never reach. In order that this influence may be at its maximum, the superintendent districts should be limited in extent. Seventy-five schools will afford ample scope for the best available talent. If the usual terms could be lengthened and the salary increased to an equality with that paid to the principals of the city schools, the position would attract and hold capable men.

The wise superintendent will strive to introduce proper courses of study and see that they are intelligently followed. He will explain and exemplify the courses, and enforce suitable methods of instruction in examinations, in associations, in institutes, in summer schools, in training classes, and in personal visitation of schools. He will co-operate with high schools, academies, and normal schools, in the preparation of teachers and in securing employment for them. By personal contact and correspondence with the people, by public addresses, by circulars, and with the help of the local papers, he will create and direct public opinion. These are agencies through which he may labor according to his ability.

I know very well that there is nothing new in these suggestions; they are almost as old as the system of public education, and as commonplace as the air or sunlight. This is a commonplace world with commonplace people upon it, whose commonplace wants are met by commonplace substances in nature. The crying need is for common-sense superintendents, with such a love for our common humanity that they can mingle with it, inspire it, instruct it. A system formulated at the capital and imposed upon the people through the aid of subservient supervisors can never affect them as a wise development of their own plans will. One must know the people and sympathize with them if he is to understand their plans and improve them. He must therefore meet them face to face, or address them through their channels of communication. He must also co-operate with the individual and combined efforts of the teachers. Thus the logical development of the agencies enumerated is indicated. The attempt to solve this problem is in the right line. Improvement must come, if it come at all, by perfecting the instruments and agencies. The schools are

not so desperately bad as superintendents commonly think them to be. From the nature of their position they hear the worst side. Everyone with a grievance makes his complaint to the superintendent, and the welkin seems to ring with the cry of strife. Contented people seem to have no voice. A little computation will show that scarcely more than one district in a hundred is really in serious difficulty. The schools are already in process of peaceful growth. The problem is simply that of stimulating a more rapid and healthy growth.

A powerful factor in this development, though not as yet in general use, is the district library. Not a collection of profound and ponderous tomes, but the presence in every school of a few simple, vivifying books. Fables and folk stories, classic tales, stories of travel and adventure, works upon natural history, simple biographies of noble men and women, all these brighten and sweeten life. They should be read aloud in the homes, and not confined to the schools. Books of the higher class will come in their own good time, some of them, perhaps, as supplementary reading, and thus will the pupils grow up in reading and loving good books, and their awakened intelligence will permit no lack of facilities for good schools.

It will doubtless be conceded without argument, that there are defects in our system of rural schools, and that they are generally so well known that I need not now mention them. All plans for their removal may fairly be classed under two heads, namely, the strong government, or "boss" theory, and the self-governing system. The former is more prompt and certain in its operation, up to the point where the will of the people begins to control. It can only be made perfectly effective by taking all administrative power out of the hands of the people. This will require the chief supervisor or state superintendent to be appointed, rather than elected. The local commissioners or county superintendents must also be similarly selected. With a system which would always secure good and wise men and with only wise laws to administer, there might be a speedy uplift which should have some degree of permanence. In a centralized government the chief danger lies in the possibility of a failure at some time to furnish good men and wise laws. Moreover, the necessity for it increases with its growth. The more people are stayed up by outside force, the more will they need to be, and the system is likely to fall the moment the props are taken from under it.

I am aware that an appointive system has among its representatives such men as Henry Barnard and Horace Mann; yet this is hardly sufficient to justify the growing favor with which this plan is advocated in certain quarters. An aristocracy, which is literally a government by the best, is attractive in statement and seemingly perfect in theory, but there is nothing in human history to justify it in practice. It has always and everywhere failed to do for the people as well as they could have done for themselves. The method of self-government may be slower in devel-

opment, but it is in harmony with our political ideas, and the system will be self-sustaining when developed. Mistakes will be made under it, but they carry their own lessons. Those who suffer have the remedy in their own hands. The people now have the control of these schools, and they will continue to exercise it. We can only help to a wiser application of it.

MR. JOHN MACDONALD, Topeka, Kansas.—I think Supt. Raab has very fairly stated the problem, and has also fairly stated the remedies. I by no means take the rose-colored view of our rural schools, that Supt. Wells takes. There is much more than a gentle stimulation needed; there is needed the voice of inspiration heard in the valley of dry bones, we read about in the Bible.

I am sorry to learn that the rural population is decreasing, because from the rural school comes a large percentage of our distinguished people.

The boy from the rural school coming into the city schools with his obtrusive angularities and ungracefulness, is found to be a serious disturbing factor by city principals trying to fit that angular creature into Procrustean grades. That angular boy is far behind his gracefully curved brother from the city, and short-sighted mortals draw inferences. The time to compare and to contrast results is fifty years later, and then it will probably be found that the ungraceful and angular boy from the rural schools is, because of his angularities, far in advance of the city boy.

While in the main I agree with what has been said in the paper, I differ with Supt. Raab, when he says that the people can pay high wages to teachers if they choose. A school district which has an assessed valuation of $8,000, and which is dependent for its revenue on its own resources, and which can levy a tax of two per cent., will at the maximum rate of taxation have a total school income of $160 per annum. Dividing that amount by nine will give a fraction more than $17 per month. How, I ask Supt. Raab, can competent teaching be secured for such a salary as that? There are in the Western States hundreds of districts which have valuations as low as $8,000.

We do need legislation. The ways of the wicked, we are told in the Bible, are unequal. That is true of our school laws.

Yet the prospect is not discouraging. It is only when we look back over twenty-five or fifty years of work that we can see what a great advancement has been made. In my own State of Kansas a vast deal has been done, by normal schools and institutes, to fit teachers for their work.

In this State of New York a great deal has been done to improve the schools and teachers, but now the blighting hand of the politician comes down and checks progress.

THE EDUCATIONAL EXHIBIT OF THE WORLD'S COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.

BY DR. SELIM H. PEABODY, CHIEF, DEPARTMENT OF LIBERAL ARTS.

The Educational Exhibit will be installed chiefly upon the ground floor of the Main Building, which has been assigned to the Liberal Arts and to Manufactures. It will occupy the entire south end of the building, and will be approached through the lofty entrances opening upon the Grand Avenue that connects the principal marine and railway entrances to Jackson Park. The space given to the Educational Exhibit is about 200,000 square feet, or between four and five acres. Adjacent to this will be arranged the exhibits of music, literature, physical apparatus, hygiene and sanitation, medicine and surgery, etc.

The Educational Exhibit will be organized both by States and by grades. Each State will occupy a definite area, which will be assigned with reference to the elements which the several States will have to represent, as nearly as that can be ascertained. These areas will be side by side, in parallel subdivisions extending north and south. The arrangement of the elements in the several States will be expected to conform to a general plan, presenting the several grades in consecutive arrangement extending east and west. The studious observer may follow the grades, from the most elementary to the most advanced, in any State; or crossing the areas he may trace the similarities or variations in any chosen grade. The parochial schools will have a definite place in the scheme, conformably to the same system.

Each State exhibit will include:

1. A presentation of its public school system.
2. Its academies, normal schools, colleges, and universities.
3. Its special, technical, and professional schools; except in cases where a specialty in education can be better illustrated by a collective exhibit, independent of State lines. Thus there will be a single collective exhibit, showing library organization and management; one of commercial schools; of manual training-schools; of trade schools, etc. This method should probably be adopted, with exhibits of schools for the blind, the deaf, etc. The ruling idea will be to bring into the closest local relationship those elements which have the closest educational affinities, thus to offer the best opportunities for interesting comparison and critical observation. In some cases these benefits may be secured better by observing State lines; in others by obliterating them.

An earnest desire has been expressed, both in private and by resolutions publicly adopted, that all grades of educational work should be shown in active operation, in the actual work of living teachers upon living pupils. The suggestion is an attractive one. It has received careful consideration.

In its discussion, no question has been raised as to space, or expense; but only, Is such a presentation of schools a feasible project?

All worthy teaching aims to aid the growth of the soul, and the discipline of the intellectual powers. The larger part of the work employs only the reactions of intellectual and spiritual forces. Yet certain forms of instruction find abundant uses for material and concrete modes of illustration and such as can be practically applied. The public mind, seldom philosophically accurate, readily groups our work into two divisions, according as they are supposed to present more notably, in practice and in results, the intellectual or practical phase. The latter kind of work may be illustrated to some extent in active exhibits, pupils and teachers working together, as in the kindergarten, the sloyd, manual training, laboratory work, physical culture, etc. Facilites for this work will be provided.

The attempt to present forms of class-room work, other than that just named, will not be made. The conditions of a World's Fair in intensely active progress, the throngs of visitors, the tumult of distracting events, sights, sounds—strange, brilliant, exciting, engrossing—will inevitably remove from the minds and hearts of both pupils and teachers the quiet environment and the inspired attention indispensable to either teaching or learning. The Commissioner of Education, commenting upon this subject, asserts that "the atmosphere of an international exposition is convulsed with a spiritual tornado;" that it "will require supernatural powers either to teach or to study in such a place;" and that "the instruction will speedily drop to the purely mechanical level, and become both an untruthful and an undesirable presentation of American education."

In the presentation of public school systems, the several States and Territories will be the smallest units for which separate provision can be made by the Chief of the Department. Cities, villages, and rural schools will find such recognition and representation as can be allowed within the limits assigned to the States which include them. The educational exhibit from each State will be under the immediate supervision of a duly authorized executive officer or committee, who may have been selected by the State Commission for the World's Columbian Exposition, or may be the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, or a committee representing the State Association of Teachers. It is not presumed that any conflict of authority can arise, but that in each State such amicable arrangement will be made as will harmonize all elements, and thus promote the most complete success. In every case the exhibit will be subject to the ultimate supervision of the Chief of the Department, acting under the Director-General of the Exposition.

So far as is practicable, the higher institutions of learning, colleges, universities, technical and professional schools, will be arranged according to the sequences of their respective States. This plan may be varied when it shall appear more desirable to unite more closely the elements of any specific phase of work, to facilitate comparison and study. The State executive officer will naturally extend to each collegiate institution the largest liberty in arranging its own affairs. Colleges and special schools may apply to the Special State Commissioner, or directly to the Chief of the Department. All distinct applications for space must be entered in the office of the Director-General.

The assignment of space to the several States and Territories will be determined by the information secured as to the character of the respective State exhibits. Evidently, the most suitable division will not give to each an equal allowance, or one proportioned to area, or population, or even to school attendance. The State which has made the most decided educational progress, and has the best harvest to show, should have the best opportunity to show it.

Each State should present a clear and concise epitome illustrative of its public school system. The conditions in the several States vary widely. Exact rules of procedure cannot be formulated. Reliance must be placed upon the good judgment, invention, taste, and skill of the several State executive committees, and the teachers and school officers co-operating with them. The general regulations of the Exposition, as well as the special rules of the Department of Liberal Arts, must be observed.

The several State exhibits will show some or all of the elements to be enumerated, and substantially in the following order of arrangement.

1. Organization and Administration.—A map of the State upon a generous scale, readable at a distance of fifteen or twenty feet, showing by suitable conventions of color, the location of every educational institution, from the common school up, proving in many instances that the school house crowns every hill top, and nestles in every valley. That the colors may be uniform, special directions and scale will be furnished by the Chief of the Department. Diagrams may show, by the graphic methods so well understood, the progress of education, by years or by decades, in the history of the State; as to the kinds and values of school buildings; the numbers of pupils, by ages, sexes, colors, and grades; the numbers of teachers, actual and related to number of pupils, and their ratios by sexes; the cost of schools, actual, and in ratio to other taxes and to the wealth of the State; illiteracy; statistics of public and of school libraries, etc., etc.

The authorized or approved courses of study for rural, city, and village schools. Qualifications for admission to various grades, and for graduation. Qualifications of teachers; length of service; opportunities for improvement by institutes and normal schools.

The school law; division of territory into districts. County, township, or district organization. Manner of election, term of office, and duties of school officers, trustees, boards of education, city and county superintendents, etc.

2. SELECTED SPECIMENS OF THE ACTUAL WORK OF PUPILS.—Concrete results, drawings, maps, essays, examinations, apparatus, shop-products, etc. The evident danger here is that there will be gathered a wilderness of material which will appall the visitor by the magnitude of the exhibit, and the endless repetition of similar things. It is not necessary, when showing the splendid agricultural resources of the State of Illinois, that a sheaf of wheat and a shock of corn should be offered from every farm, or every township, or even from every county. The teacher, as well as the farmer, must content himself by showing in a limited way that which is CHARACTERISTIC, and that which is BEST. For this reason it is evident that complete exhibits from organic units less than the State, as cities, counties, etc., such as might be appropriate in an exposition representing a territory of smaller extent, cannot be provided for in this. It is not possible to assume that every city or county can have a distinct representation. But whatever is shown should be carefully credited to its source.

As before suggested, the method of obtaining pupils' work must be entrusted largely to the discretion of the State executive authorities. Whatever method is adopted, much stress should be laid upon the injunction that every item of work presented as the product of the pupils should be absolutely genuine. The interference of a teacher, even to the correction of an obvious mistake, the retouching of a shade in a drawing, the fitting by a shaving of a joint of woodwork, the dotting of an "i" or the crossing of a "t," should be deemed an inexcusable fault; and any work so "improved" should be rigorously rejected. Each item should be forwarded exactly as the pupil left it. No special instruction, practice, or drill should be given to any pupil, class, or school, preparatory to work which is intended for the Exposition. The actual fruits of the regular school system should be presented without being worked up for this special purpose.

The Educational Executive Committee in each State will collect, select, prepare, forward, and, under the approval of the Chief of the Department, install the material for the State exhibit. The following plan of selection is suggested, but will not be insisted upon, if a better can be devised:

Let the Executive Committee in each State appoint a series of days upon which papers may be prepared upon assigned subjects by the pupils of all schools which wish to offer work for exhibition; one day for history, another for grammar, another for essays, etc. Questions prepared under the supervision of the State executive are distributed under proper precautions and regulations; an equal number are added in each community, prepared by the local officers, the work to be done on the same day, and

between given hours, the pupils to have a given time for answering the questions, and for making a fair copy of the answers upon paper of a prescribed form and style. Let the teacher select the best portion, say one-fourth, of the papers presented by his class, to be sent to the next higher officer, say the principal of the school. From these papers let the principal select, say, fifteen or twenty, which shall be put together as the work of the representative class of that school upon that subject, and be sent to the superintendent of the town, city, or county. From the classes which come to him, let the superintendent select that class which he will send forward to represent his city or county in the State exhibit. If the number of pupils in the city be large, let a number of classes be thus sent forward, proportioned to the number of pupils to be represented. From the classes thus received let the State executive select a given number, say fifty or sixty, or even a larger number, which may go forward to the Exposition. It will happen that in a given city one school will win the honor of sending forward the representative class in one subject, another in another, and so on. It will be possible that every community which is really excelling in some particular may have the honor of being represented in something in the final selection. Each pupil will feel that the honor of a position in one of the representative classes is worth striving for, and these honors may be distributed among a great number, while the principle of the survival of the fittest will have its application.

After the representative class in any school has been selected, let the members be photographed together in a group, the photograph to be the frontispiece of the papers that the class has written, to be followed by a neatly engrossed statement setting forth names, ages, nationalities, grade in school, length of time in grade, etc., after a form to be presented by the State Committee. To this might be appended a further statement setting forth the facts concerning the numbers represented by the class, the course of study, and the place of this subject in the course; time devoted to it, methods of instruction, etc., etc.

The work of similar classes may be bound together in convenient volumes, plainly lettered on the side to indicate the facts in the case.

Drawings, elementary, from the flat, from objects, designs, maps, etc., may be selected in a manner somewhat similar; but it may not be practicable to order special examinations from a central point. Some drawings may be produced, like examinations, within a limited time. Advanced pupils may be encouraged to offer more elaborate work, designs, sketches, finished drawings, from nature, from life, etc. In such cases each drawing should bear a legend, giving, in addition to the name, age, etc., of the pupil, a statement of the amount of time given to drawing; the time, in hours, spent on the given piece of work; whether it is original or copy, and with or without aid from the teacher, it being understood that aid was limited to advice or suggestion, and that in no case was any

mark or erasure made by any person other than the pupil whose name is attached.

All drawings with pencil, crayon, chalk, etc., should be "fixed" to prevent rubbing. They should be of such size as will permit mounting on cards twenty-two inches wide by twenty-eight inches high. Smaller drawings may be grouped on cards of the same size, when it can be done consistently with harmony of arrangement and economy of space. A limited number of pictures of special merit may be framed and glazed, but the framing should be modest and unobtrusive.

Photographs will be found useful throughout the exhibit. They may illustrate schools in operation, exteriors, interiors, classes, museums, laboratories, special apparatus, etc. The best size will be eight inches high by ten wide, of which six may be mounted on one side of the card described above. They may be placed on both sides of the card, the card to be mounted on a "wing" frame, by which device a large number may be shown in a small space. As a rule, photographs should be sent *unmounted* to the State Committee, which may then arrange them in an orderly and systematic manner. Each view should be accompanied with a full description.

School architecture will form a valuable element of a State exhibit. Sets of drawings of school houses, existing or proposed, may show floor plans, elevations, perspectives, systems of heating and ventilation, lighting, etc. They should be drawn to an uniform scale of one-fourth inch to the foot, and should be bound together in sets in folios. In some cases the perspective may be framed, reference being made to the folio which contains the remaining sheets of the design. An historic series of school houses will be instructive, presenting the oldest as well as the newest examples, and including the very humblest, the log-houses, sod-houses, dug-outs, etc. Bonaventure's tobacco shed would be a welcome addition.

A special department will include architects' plans, designs, etc., and these will not find a place in the State exhibits.

Evidently a part of each State exhibit will illustrate general progress and the status of affairs as a whole. Another part will show material gathered, as previously suggested, or otherwise, from all parts of the State. This is the portion which will present most of similarity and repetition. To relieve this in a measure, to economize space, and at the same time to give wider range to the exhibits from cities and schools, the following plan is suggested :

After the work, which is deemed worthy of presentation, has been carefully selected, let that from the public schools be divided into four parts as nearly equal as possible in quantity and value ; let each element, as primary, secondary, etc., be included in equal portions in each division. At the opening of the Fair one-fourth of the material will be placed on

exhibition, while the remainder will be placed in drawers, where it may be easily accessible if there should be any reason for consulting it. After six weeks the first fourth may be withdrawn, and the second fourth put in its place, for a similar length of time, and so with the other portions. Many advantages will accrue from this method of treatment, which will be apparent without explanation.

It will be more logical to place special schools alongside their corresponding grades of public schools, than to separate out two distinct series, public and private, in the same State exhibits. Kindergartner's work should be placed near primary work, but not confused with it. Along with high-school work, come all forms of secondary instruction intermediate between the grammar school and the college, except such as may be grouped by themselves as specialties. Then follow normal schools, colleges, schools of agriculture, of technology, universities, with their professional schools, and professional schools detached. It will not be possible, and it might be invidious if possible, to attempt any sharp gradation among institutions of higher grades. They will form a group, whose arrangement must be determined by good nature and convenience, bringing kindred institutions as much in line as possible.

An exception has been suggested as to manual training schools, which will apply to some others of a similar character. As before explained, provision will be made for a series of active exhibits of this practical kind. These exhibits will not form a part of the systematic organization which has been described, but will have a place near by, and at the same time withdrawn from the busiest throng of visitors. They will be easily accessible, but not on the thoroughfare. It will probably follow, that the manual training exhibits should be grouped in the immediate vicinity of the active exhibit of that specialty. The same may apply in like cases.

College and university exhibits will vary greatly, both with the character of the institutions themselves, and with the genius and skill of those who prepare them. In this respect technical departments and schools will have a decided advantage, because their work lies so much in the horizon of the material and the concrete. It will not be so easy to present logic or logarithms, as it is to show chemistry, or art, or shop-work.

If one were endeavoring to present a college, he might wish to show, by graphic methods, its history, its development, its progress, its faculty, its courses of study, its requirements for admission and graduation; the number of its students by classes and sexes, and departments; its alumni, and if possible, it would be interesting to follow those alumni into life and to show what they are doing and have accomplished. There may be views of buildings, without and within; illustrations of equipment, and of all beautiful features, natural and artificial. There should be portraits of founders, presidents, notable professors, and of

such alumni as have achieved distinction ; usually those who would be particularly anxious to appear in such a portrait gallery, are they who should be excluded.

That which is shown should present something that stands for an achievement or a product of the institution, not something that it has been rich enough to purchase. If a professor has devised a new method of investigation or of instruction, has invented a new piece of apparatus, or a process, we wish to know it, and it should be presented with such accessories as are needed. Apparatus which will illustrate the growth of any science or art, which will present the history of its development, will be particularly desirable. If that which the venerable Professor Snell had gathered at Amherst, much of it his own handiwork, had not perished it would fill a most important place in the Exposition. But the ordinary equipment for instruction should not be brought forward. A professor of civil engineering need not occupy space with a transit and level, and a sheaf of arrows, unless his own brain has exerted its formative power upon these very instruments, so that they are his in some way more intimate than because he has paid shekels for them. Any other possessor of shekels may do the same. The Exposition has other places for this sort of display.

Some institutions may make a valuable exhibit by showing the achievements of their alumni, in those lines which represent the natural outcome of their college discipline. Besides the portraits already suggested, there may be tablets, or scrolls, on which will be written the names of those who have added to the renown of their *alma mater* by service in their country's defense, on land or sea ; they who have been chosen to places of honor and responsibility, congressmen, governors, foreign ministers ; they who have won distinction as jurists, clergymen, physicians, teachers, inventors, etc. What a glorious diadem would be a collection of all the books which have been written by the alumni of one of our older universities, say Harvard, Yale, or Columbia ! Many of these institutions have precious relics of the olden time, like the crown in the library of Columbia College, sent by the King of England, when the college was called Kings; manuscripts, missals, charters, etc., which, in fact or in fac-simile, they might use to add interest to their exhibits.

The space assigned to this exhibit is by far larger than was ever before offered to this interest. It is in the choicest place in the Exposition. It is environed by the great departments, every one of which is its child, some of them, in former expositions, being included within its fold. If to any the space still seems inadequate, the remedy is to fill that space with only the noblest and the choicest material, leaving behind all which is feeble and commonplace. There is room enough, there is material enough, to make the Educational Exhibit the jeweled crown of the World's Columbian Exhibition.

THE WORLD'S EDUCATIONAL CONGRESS.

W. T. HARRIS, COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, U. S.

It has been well considered by the World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago, that side by side with the exhibit of the material resources of all nations there should be an exhibit of the spiritual achievements. To use the words of the announcement, "To provide for the proper presentation of the intellectual and moral progress of the world," there should be held "A series of World's Congresses with the assistance of the leaders in all the chief departments of human achievement."

Acting on this idea a programme has been mapped out which sets apart each of the six months of the exposition for some one class of these congresses. First the month of May, 1893, is set apart for art, literature, and music. It is very appropriate that the series should begin with a discussion of the spiritual activities which have for their object the artistic display of human nature—the manifestation of spirit in material forms—because the whole exposition rests on this idea. Every international exposition is a revelation of the ideals and achievements of the peoples of the world.

For the second month it is proposed to hold the congresses and conventions that relate to religion and morals, including temperance, social reform, and the suppression of vice in all its shapes.

The third month, July, is set apart for education in its various forms. This is the special month which interests our National Association. But not merely school education is provided for in congresses. Besides this there are all manner of learned societies devoted to science, philosophy, and invention, which are to meet in conference.

For August the congresses of jurists, the students of politics, the framers of laws, and the military; also the secret societies.

September is set apart for labor congresses and kindred movements; while October closes the series with congresses of agriculture, commerce, and finance.

The bare mention of these great spiritual interests impresses us with their vastness. In order to properly provide for such a series of congresses it became evident that a separately organized directory body had to be formed with nearly as much work on its hands as the business of the main exposition. The directory to whom is intrusted this series of congresses is called "The World's Congress Auxiliary," and it consists of local committees resident in Chicago and of advisory councils residing in vari-

ous parts of the world. The committees resident in Chicago are charged with the management of the whole enterprise.

Returning to the educational congresses in which we are especially interested we note that local committees and advisory councils have been formed on the departments of higher education, public instruction, music, teaching, instruction of the unfortunates, and special education. The special committee of ten from the National Educational Association appointed on "The World's Congress of Educators" has been recognized and made an advisory council on public instruction. Inasmuch as the National Educational Association has nine departments and represents that number of educational interests, your committee have been at first somewhat embarrassed by seeming to find their functions limited to the office of making suggestions to the local committee in Chicago on the subject of public schools and excluding the topics of higher education, manual training, music, and the kindergarten. A correspondence with the President of the Auxiliary and a full and free conference with the local committee on public instruction have removed nearly all of our difficulties and the way seems now open for the following course of action.

The committee will act in conjunction with the local committee as a joint committee, and adopting the action already taken by the latter, proceed to complete the organization of the several departments of the Congress by inviting distinguished educational specialists from the several States and from foreign nations in Europe and on this Continent to join in the work of the following named sections:

(*a*) The Kindergarten.
(*b*) Elementary Instruction.
(*c*) Secondary Instruction.
(*d*) Higher Instruction.
(*e*) Normal Instruction.
(*f*) The Superintendence of Schools.
(*g*) Industrial Education.
(*h*) Art Education.
(*i*) Musical Education.
(*k*) Educational Publications and School Journals.

These sections, omitting the last, cover exactly the scope of the National Educational Association, and if it is to move at all in this matter of an international congress it seems to your committee that it should undertake all these departments.

Let us suppose for one moment that the higher education were to be omitted from the programme as provided for in your committee. This would imply that the department of higher education in the National Educational Association is not a representative body of such dignity as to stand for higher education in this nation. It would mean such a slight to this department, that in future there would certainly be a decline of

the interest which has grown up in later years. What would be the effect of abolishing in the National Association the department of higher education ? The educative influence that comes from association with the best educated teachers in the country would be all lost for the teachers and superintendents of the lower schools. We may add, too, that the managers of higher education would give up by the same act of withdrawal that inter-communication with elementary and secondary education which the National Educational Association has for a long time cultivated. This, too, would happen just at a time when important changes are proposed in the course of study of the common schools to effect an earlier preparation for college. There has never been before an epoch when elementary and secondary education seemed to be on the point of being enriched through the studies made upon it by the leaders of higher education. We especially in this department of superintendence have profited repeatedly from the sharp and wholesome criticisms of the President of Harvard University and the President of Clark University.

Just now, too, the management of the National Educational Association is reaching out wisely to add dignity and usefulness to its influence by applying a portion of the proceeds of its large and increasing endowment funds to publish and distribute full reports of its proceedings ; to offer annual medals as a recognition of the most distinguished educational contributions of the year ; to establish conferences for distinguished specialists at its annual gatherings, and by these to attract those rare minds engaged in original investigation to our annual meetings.

Whatever injury would come to the National Educational Association if the department of higher education were to be withdrawn or even slighted, would happen in a less degree if any other one of its nine departments were thus removed. I think that it is clear that we must insist on the representation of all our sections in the National Congress.

But on the other hand we see the necessity of the local executive committees at Chicago, and must not propose to them any abdication of their rights of final adjudication in this matter. Although our committee desires to act, it must act subject to the approval of the local committees of the Auxiliary.

What shall be the scope of the World's Congress ? The programme must be skillfully prepared, and distributed throughout this country and Europe before the coming summer. The questions must be of international interest and not mere local questions.

The following list has been prepared and printed by President Bonney of the Auxiliary, and we can all see that it touches live questions in our education systems :

(*a*) "The rational limits of education for children under five years of age, and the like limits for children of ten, fifteen, and twenty years of age, respectively.

(*b*) The rational limits and practical utility of recitations and examinations.

(*c*) The rational methods of control and discipline.

(*d*) The essential principles and proper place of kindergarten education.

(*e*) The essential principles and proper place of manual training and art education.

(*f*) The proper office and use of music in the public schools.

(*g*) How far agricultural chemistry, economic geometry, economic entomology, and the like branches, should be made a part of the course of instruction in the common schools of agricultural districts.

(*h*) How far the use of tools, and the sciences applicable to the mechanical arts should be made a part of the course of instruction in schools in villages and cities.

(*i*) How far the laws of life and health, and the use of remedies in case of accident or other emergency should be made a part of the course of instruction in the common schools.

(*j*) How far the subjects of civil government, embracing the holding of public meetings, the conduct of public business, and a knowledge of the laws involved in the every-day proceedings of common life, should be taught in the common schools.

(*k*) How far the universal principles of morals and religion should be taught in such schools.

(*l*) The extension of higher education among the masses of the people.

(*m*) The school library as a means of education.

(*n*) What reforms in the architecture of modern school buildings and in school furniture and apparatus should be recommended.

(*o*) Whether the existing educational systems may be best adapted to the recent enormous increase in all departments of knowledge by dividing the educational term into three periods, during the first of which the scholar should be taught the merest rudiments of the largest practicable number of branches of knowledge, but the details of none except his own language and matters necessarily incident thereto; and during the second of which periods he should be taught the exact details of a special course of instruction, selected with reference to his future calling in life; and during the last of which he shall be taught the practical application of technical knowledge to the subjects involved in his proposed life-work.

(*p*) How far uniformity of scholastic attainments should be required, and how far prescribed courses of study should be adapted to the intellectual characteristics of individual students.

(*q*) Whether the manual of arms and the simplest principles of tactics should be taught in the common schools, as involving all the substantial benefits now derived from what is known as calisthenics, and giving the students in addition thereto the benefits of superior discipline and decorum, and providing, for the sake of the State, the rudiments of the knowl-

edge necessary to convert the citizen into a soldier for the defense of his country.

(*r*) The importance of a national civil service academy, in which students selected from each representative district throughout the whole country shall be educated and trained for the civil service as such students are now educated for the military and naval service in the military and naval schools.

(*s*) The importance of a scientific education for common soldiers and marines, to the end that when not engaged in military operations they may be employed in scientific observations and explorations under the direction of qualified officers, and to the further end that such soldiers and marines may be saved from the habits of dissipation and vice engendered in idleness.

(*t*) The history, influence, results, condition, and prospects of education in different countries."

We must compare these questions with the existing live questions in Europe, and strike the common ground so that the debates may interest alike the delegates from all nations.

It has been the custom in international educational congresses to publish in advance the questions, and invite written theses to be sent in to the executive committee. From these theses are selected such as are found most suitable to be read and debated at the several sessions of the congress.

There are three great questions, the pivots as it were of all our educational management, and if we can bring out these in our international conference we shall accomplish the best results. These pivotal questions relate to the course of study, the methods of instruction, and moral training or discipline. These are quite properly placed in the foreground in President Bonney's scheme above. The course of study question, for example, involves these practical issues of shortening and enriching the programmes of our common schools: Can we flank a certain amount of higher arithmetic by placing algebra and geometry in our elementary schools? Can we change the work of the college so as to require the study of general history and the rudiments of natural science such as are given in the so-called "natural philosophy" and "physical geography" text-books used in our high schools? Ought the colleges to lower their standards of admission so as to diminish the dangerous hold which secondary schools are getting to have in our national education?

The old question of religious education in connection with the public school is alive yet in this country, and it is very important just now in Germany, where there is a reactionary school law proposed, and in France, where the State is endeavoring to completely secularize the schools; and finally in England, where the parochial schools are strongly contesting the rising influence of the non-sectarian education.

Finally, the general objects of the international congresses are so well set forth by the World's Congress Auxiliary at Chicago that I read from

their circular of last October, wherein they present these objects as themes of the six great classes of congresses :

I. "The grounds of fraternal union in the language, literature, domestic life, religion, science, art, and civil institutions of different peoples.

II. "The economic, industrial, and financial problems of the age.

III. "Educational systems, their advantages and their defects; and the means by which they may best be adapted to the recent enormous increase in all departments of knowledge.

IV. "The practicability of a common language, for use in the commercial relations of the civilized world.

V. "International copyright, and the laws of intellectual property and commerce.

VI. "Immigration and naturalization laws, and the proper international privileges of alien governments, and their subjects or citizens.

VII. "The most efficient and advisable means of preventing or decreasing pauperism, insanity, and crime; and of increasing productive ability, prosperity, and virtue throughout the world.

VIII. "International law as a bond of union and a means of mutual protection; and how it may best be enlarged, perfected, and authoritatively expressed.

IX. "The establishment of the principles of judicial justice as the supreme law of international relations; and the general substitution of arbitration for war, in the settlement of international controversies.

"It is impossible to estimate the advantages that would result from the mere establishment of personal acquaintance and friendly relations among the leaders of the intellectual and moral world, who now for the most part know each other only through the interchange of publications, and, perhaps, the formalities of correspondence.

"And what is transcendently more important, such congresses, convened under circumstances so auspicious, would doubtless surpass all previous efforts to bring about a real fraternity of nations, and unite enlightened people of the whole earth in a general co-operation for the attainment of the great ends for which human society is organized."

Following Dr. Harris, Mr. Lane, of Chicago, made brief remarks.

He said that demands had come in from various learned societies, for opportunity to deliberate upon their work. He said that the committee of which he was a member would co-operate with the National Educational Association, and endeavor to bring all things into harmony with it. He gave account of the opportunities that would be afforded by the Art Institute building and the Auditorium for all meetings that might be held, and said, in conclusion, that while invitations in general had been extended to foreign nations to participate, all special matters belonging to it would be referred to the National Educational Association.

In Memoriam.

Dr. John Wickersham, of Pennsylvania,

Born March 5, 1825,
Died March 25, 1891.

Dr. John Hancock, of Ohio,

Born February 18, 1825,
Died June 1, 1891.

Dr. Thomas W. Harvey, of Ohio,

Born Dec. 18, 1821,
Died January 20, 1892.

IN MEMORIAM—DR. JOHN WICKERSHAM.

BY DR. EDWARD BROOKS, OF PHILADELPHIA.

It is very gratifying to me that, though through an inadvertence the name of Dr. Wickersham does not appear on our program, he is not forgotten by the members of this Association. It is also gratifying to me to be called upon to speak a few words in his memory, though I should have been better prepared to do justice to the occasion had I known beforehand that this duty would be assigned me.

Dr. Wickersham was Pennsylvania's most distinguished educator. I am sure I do not overstate the matter when I say that he did more for the progress of education in our State than any other man in Pennsylvania. Moreover, I believe that Dr. Wickersham ranks among the greatest educators that this country has produced. His work was deep, broad, and lasting, and his name deserves to be enrolled among America's most eminent educators. His career was one of uninterrupted advancement and success. Every position he occupied was filled with conspicuous ability, and became the stepping-stone of a higher position. He began his educational work as a teacher of a country school, then became the principal of an academy, was then elected county superintendent, then became principal of the first State Normal School of Pennsylvania, and finally crowned his work by being placed at the head of the Department of Public Instruction in the Keystone State. As teacher of the country school he aroused the enthusiasm of his pupils and patrons; as principal of the academy he became known throughout his country as a wise and progressive educator; and as a county superintendent he was one of the most intelligent and distinguished in the State. As principal of the Normal School at Millersville he laid the foundation for normal instruction in Pennsylvania. The Normal School law of the State was largely shaped by the work of this school, and it became a model after which the other schools of the State were patterned.

Dr. Wickersham's views on education were broad, progressive and philosophical. He was one of the earliest to base pedagogical instruction on philosophical principles, and to claim that teaching could be developed into a science and an art. His lectures to teachers at the beginning of the Millersville Normal School, nearly forty years ago, presented many of the principles which have since been called the "New Education." The basis of this course of instruction was a careful study of the nature of the mind, and this was before any works on educational psychology were

published. So high was his appreciation of the value and responsibility of this work, that these lectures were prepared with the greatest care. No amount of labor seemed too great in order to make them worthy of the attention of his classes of student-teachers. These lectures were subsequently published, forming his two works "School Economy" and "Methods of Instruction," works which were not only extensively read in this country but have been translated into several foreign languages.

In 1866, he resigned his position as principal of the Normal School and was appointed State Superintendent of Public Instruction. In this position Dr. Wickersham showed pre-eminent abilities, and accomplished a great work. He put a life and enthusiasm and dignity into the department that it had never before known. This influence permeated every part of the State and gave a wonderful uplift to the cause of public education. While as State Superintendent his name is not identified with any striking act of legislation, it can be truly affirmed that no one who ever occupied the position did so much for the advancement of the cause of education in Pennsylvania as Dr. Wickersham. Necessary legislation had already been made; what was needed was a strong executive to put the machinery into motion, and Mr. Wickersham was such an executive. The educational atmosphere of the State was filled with the spirit of life and progress. School buildings were improved and multiplied, new normal schools were established, teachers' qualifications were raised, county superintendents were stimulated and strengthened in their work, and there was a grand movement forward all along the line. Upon his resignation from the office of State Superintendent he was appointed Minister to Denmark, a position which was not congenial to his taste and which he resigned after a few months' residence abroad.

Mr. Wickersham was more widely known abroad at one time than any other educator in this country. Many here present will remember the position he occupied at the Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia in 1876, and will corroborate the statement that no American educator attracted wider attention among foreign educators than did Mr. Wickersham. It was my pleasure to renew my acquaintance this summer with M. Buisson, Director of Primary Instruction in Paris, who was at the head of the French Commissioners of Education in this country in 1876, and the first question he asked me, after a few words of personal greeting, was in respect to his old friend, Dr. Wickersham of Pennsylvania. He seemed deeply touched to learn of his death, and spoke in high terms of his writings and his work.

Mr. Wickersham was a distinguished member of the National Educational Association. He was present at its organization in Philadelphia in 1857, was elected President in 1865, and was also President of this department of superintendents. He took great interest in its meetings, was one of its wisest counselors, and his contributions to its literature showed

a clear, vigorous and practical thinker on educational subjects. At the meeting of this Association, one year ago, Mr. Wickersham was present, and the distinguished presiding officer, Judge Draper, seeing him enter the hall and remembering his conspicuous and honorable services as an educator, invited him to a seat upon the president's platform. A few months later and, unexpectedly to himself and his friends, he was suddenly called away. His strong and impulsive heart ceased to beat, and he passed over into the land of silence. But though he is not with us to-day, his memory remains as a rich heritage of lofty purposes and noble achievements, and we honor ourselves as we pause a moment in our exercises to do honor to his deeds and his memory. And it is with great personal gratification that I twine this wreath of grateful memories and lay it on his honored grave.

IN MEMORIAM—THOMAS W. HARVEY.

BY SUPT. L. W. DAY, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

Ohio was one of the first States in the Union to adopt State supervision of public instruction. As early as the year 1837, in obedience to a most earnest appeal made by a semi-state organization of teachers, the legislature passed a law creating the office of State Superintendent of Schools, to which position, on request of the same body of educators, Mr. Samuel Lewis was soon after appointed. It may be worthy of note that within a few weeks after the appointment of Mr. Lewis, Horace Mann, whose memory is venerated by all Ohio teachers, was placed at the head of the Massachusetts schools as Secretary of the State Board of Education.

In Ohio there was some instability, the duties and responsibilities of the office being assumed by the Secretary of State during a portion of the time down to the year 1853. In that year the commissionership of the common schools was made an independent office, and clothed with such authority and power as to give it, at least, a degree of dignity.

Among the men who, under circumstances at once disheartening and discouraging, labored unflinchingly for the elevation of the schools and the cause of education generally in these early days, as well as in the prosperous years that succeeded those dark hours, may be named Samuel Lewis, Lorin Andrews, A. D. Lord, M. F. Cowdery, M. D. Leggett, Horace Mann, Andrew J. Rickoff, I. W. Andrews, W. D. Henkle, Thomas W. Harvey, John Hancock, E. E. White, Anson Smythe, Andrew Freese, John Eaton and many others, each of whom was a hero in the protracted struggle against the powers of ignorance and indifference in our good State. The enthusiasm of these men knew no permanent discouragement.

Strong in the right, powerful in will, determined and united in effort, they conquered a glorious measure of success.

Into the State Teachers' Association, organized in 1848, all the leading educational workers of the State came, bringing with them experience, ability and reputation. The teachers of the State were roused, conventions and institutes were held, the standard of teachers' qualifications was raised, local supervision of schools was urged, public school libraries were established in both town and country, normal schools were urged, methods were discussed, better school buildings were secured, especially in villages, towns and cities—in short, every school interest received its due share of attention with more or less of success. Under the inspiration of this organization and the influence of the army of earnest men and women enrolled as educational workers, the schools steadily forged ahead.

It was to an inheritance thus founded that Mr. Thomas Harvey came, as State Commissioner of Common Schools, in the year 1871. He labored most assiduously to extend, broaden and deepen the work of his predecessors in office and his co-laborers in educational work. He placed great reliance in the efficiency of the Institute, and sought steadily to strengthen and establish firmly the feature of educational effort. Laying aside his official robes at the expiration of his term, he continued his interest in the common schools without abatement of zeal, laboring shoulder to shoulder with his associates in all parts of the State. In step with the wise and determined leaders of thought and effort throughout the nation, he was always found in the storming column in the assaults upon the citadel of ignorance, a stalwart in the fray armed *cap-a-pie* for the fight.

Born among the hills of New Hampshire, he was early imbued with a spirit of self-reliance and independence, which were leading characteristics of his life. An earnest, conscientious boy, he developed into a noble man, broad of view, pure in thought and word, a safe leader, an inspiration to all. His early educational privileges were limited. He availed himself of every opportunity which his vicinity afforded, and at the age of fifteen began the printer's trade in Painesville, Ohio. Later he became a student in the Western Reserve Teachers' Seminary, at Kirtland, Ohio, where he laid the foundation of a broad and liberal education. He was a close student all his life, and although not a graduate of any college he was a thoroughly educated man. Eminently practical, genial and persevering, his work prospered in his hands. He came to the office of School Commissioner fully equipped, and through his writings, his books and his addresses, thoroughly intrenched in the confidence of the teachers and friends of education throughout the State. Upon all appropriate occasions, as a private citizen, a teacher, and a State officer, he spoke earnestly for the normal school, the teachers' institute, for local supervision, for a more comprehensive course of study, and for a higher grade of excellence on the part of teachers. He accomplished much. In the Association of

his own State, on the floor of this department, and in the councils of the National Association his voice was often heard pleading for measures calculated to better the condition of the common schools. His interests were not divided; he pursued no uncertain course. He was not a politician in the offensive use of that term, but he was an educator with decidedly optimistic tendencies. Keenly sensible of the shortcomings of the public system, he nevertheless looked bravely forward to the time when the handicapping of the schools should be, in large measure at least, removed, when the mission of the public school should be more fully appreciated, and when illiteracy, ignorance, superstition and bigotry should be dissolved in the light of moral and intellectual excellence.

To the accomplishment of this desirable end he devoted his life. To us he has left the legacy of a noble character, the example of an unselfish career, the inspiration of a broad, generous, pure Christian gentleman.

IN MEMORIAM—JOHN HANCOCK.

BY W. E. SHELDON, OF BOSTON.

The contemplation and study of the individual characteristics of representative men who have achieved success in educational work furnish material for comparison, contrast and imitation. The character and life of a good man open a field for the student's investigation that will yield him pure and permanent pleasure, and will reveal the elements of true success in life.

John Hancock has left behind him a record of a noble manhood, of an eminent educator, of a highly-cultured gentleman, of a patriotic citizen, and of a sincere Christian. From the dawn of his life to the end of it he illustrated the value of habits of diligent application, of temperate living and of high thinking. In such elements of character lies the secret of his useful life.

Count Hamilton once said of Richelieu that "this man commanded little armies, and little armies did great things." So we would say of Mr. Hancock, that from his early experience in the log school-house, as student and teacher, as superintendent of schools, as a writer and lecturer, and as Commissioner of Education of the great Commonwealth of Ohio, he never neglected the little things that presented themselves in the discharge of his daily duties. He never worked for the mere rewards of well-doing, nor did he despise or refuse the well-earned advancements that came to him from such a course of action.

In reviewing Mr. Hancock's life and work, in every position he held, one cannot fail to be deeply impressed with his methodical habits in all

the details of his life. Every step he took was a logical one. Everything he did was systematized, and this marked characteristic, which was practised and developed from his early youth through his entire career, unquestionably furnishes the key to his remarkable success. We cannot too strongly emphasize the practical benefit that it would be to young men entering upon a life of educational work to read the memoir of Mr. Hancock so well prepared by his life-long friend, W. H. Venable, LL.D., of Cincinnati, Ohio, to which are appended selections from his writings. It will serve to encourage, to stimulate, and to guide them.

The study of his boyhood will quicken our youth to a truer sense of the value of this period as a time for preparation, and open the paths to a realization of their highest and best aspirations. His life confirms the truth of the words of a great writer, who said, "It is no man's business whether he has genius or not; *work he must*, whatever he is, quietly and steadily, and the natural and unforced results of such *work* will be always the things that God meant him to do, and will be his best. . . . If he be a great man he will accomplish great things; if he be a small man he will perform small things."

Mr. Hancock, although a bright young man, could not be regarded as a genius, but his life illustrates the truth that men of good talents, wisely directed, will often advance securely in the way of success, when what is called "*genius*" vainly attempts to scale the rugged heights of the hill of difficulty. Goethe once said, "We are not all born to solve the problem of the universe, but to find out what we have to do, and confine ourselves within the limits of our powers of comprehension," and we may add, of action, also.

Mr. Hancock evidently relished grappling with large questions, for we find that when he was only twenty-three years of age he prepared and read an essay at a teachers' meeting in Clermont County, Ohio, "On the National Association for the Promotion of Education." The mastery of subjects, broad and comprehensive in their scope, made him, unquestionably, the man of influence and power he has ever been in the councils and work of the National Educational Association and its departments.

He joined the Association in 1858 at the meeting held in Cincinnati, where his close friend, Andrew J. Rickoff, was chosen the President. As Director, President, and active member of this body, he had, for a third of a century, held a front rank among the earnest workers of the nation for the promotion of popular education. His prominence was largely due to his earnestness, his attractive methods of speaking, his charming social qualities, and to the purity of his motives. His reports, as Superintendent of Schools in Cincinnati, Dayton and Chillicothe are models, showing a thorough and intelligent knowledge of the varied departments of school administration, and of the best approved methods of instruction. His reports made for the National Council of Education, and his addresses

before County, State, and National associations, all give evidence of a broad and comprehensive study of educational subjects.

The position he took was generally the golden mean between the extreme views held by conservatives in education, who think that the good old methods are always the safest and best, and those advocated by the enthusiastic radicals, who think they have discovered a more royal road to learning, or, to quote the words of Mr. Hancock, "who think they have discovered the true educational philosopher's stone, that will transmute everything it touches into the golden ore of wisdom."

His mind once made up on any question of vital importance, it was not easily changed. His character was of the positive order. Convince him that he was in error, and he knew how to yield gracefully, but no special pleading or sophistry could change his mind when he had studied a subject deliberately and taken a position. To him firmness was an element of power and a means of usefulness.

In his relations with teachers under his supervision, he was a model superintendent.

He recognized the fact that all real instruction must emanate from the *individual teacher*, and always encouraged large freedom in work, looking to results as the test of their efficiency.

His individuality was a distinguishing characteristic, and showed itself in public and private relations. Being largely a self-made man, he had confidence in his opinions. His forceful manner at times might have led the casual observer to think him, to a degree, *intolerant*, but by those who knew him better, no such charge would ever be made. He was often, in the discussions of the National Council of Education, *inquisitive*, and availed himself of his rightful privilege to gain all the light on a question he could, with a view to broaden his knowledge and aid his judgment in arriving at correct conclusions. Even when he was not fully satisfied with the answers he obtained from those differing with him, he respected his opponents' honest opinions.

He won his fame and success by strict integrity and close adherence to right principles of action, and the conscientious discharge of his practical duties. From his purpose to devote his life to educational work he never turned aside. He put great industry into all his work.

His self-reliance and perseverance were shown in every position he held. He loved the right and despised all shades of wrong-doing. I never knew him to become excited and vehement in utterance but once, and that was when he felt called upon to denounce a sham pretense in educational work.

The tenor of his life was earnest, and yet he had ready wit, and his humor gave zest to his conversation. In his educational doctrines he was liberal and progressive, and at the same time he was unwilling to set aside the lessons which experience had taught him. New theories and devices in education were all brought to the test of his deliberate judgment.

Mr. Hancock was a conspicuous member of a remarkable group of good men who have represented the State of Ohio in educational councils and work. Many of them have gone, with him, to their reward. The names of W. D. Henkle, Lorin Andrews, Israel W. Andrews, ex-President Garfield, Anson Smythe, Thomas W. Harvey, Eli T. Tappan, Horace Mann and many others have left behind them the imperishable monuments of good service in the varied walks of educational work.

Of this group remaining in the ranks are Andrew J. Rickoff, E. E. White, John Eaton, B. A. Hinsdale, L. W. Day, and many others. Long may they live to enrich the world by their counsel and work. They all mourn with us the loss of Mr. Hancock as a worker, as a comrade, and as friend and brother. May our reflections upon his life and character strengthen our efforts to maintain the great principles which he so faithfully and courageously defended, and so well illustrated in his life.

REMARKS OF Z. RICHARDS, OF WASHINGTON.

Mr. President:

I rise to express my full approval of the interesting and appropriate remarks which have been made in memory of three lamented deceased members of the National Educational Association, viz., J. P. Wickersham, John Hancock and T. W. Harvey. But our friend Sheldon, in his very appropriate reference to these departed friends, as among the original founders of this Association, and in referring to the "only two" of the original members now present, has unintentionally I am sure, forgot to mention our worthy friend, Dr. D. B. Hagar, now present with us, who has the honor of preparing the *first Constitution* of the "National Teacher's Association."

We are happy to know that our kind Heavenly Father has prolonged his useful life, to permit him to be here with us to-day, to join with us in paying our tributes of honor to the memory of a Wickersham, who helped to organize this Association, at its first meeting in Philadelphia, *thirty-five* years ago, and of the noble Hancock, who was among the first to welcome and assist the very few original members at our first anniversary in Cincinnati, in 1858.

In all my connection with the work of this N. E. Association, I am happy to say that the lamented Wickersham, Hancock and Harvey, have been among our best co-workers, and our best friends in this Association.

HISTORY AND LITERATURE IN GRAMMAR GRADES.

BY SUPT. J. H. PHILLIPS, BIRMINGHAM, ALA.

It is not without trepidation that I appear before this Department to discuss so vital and comprehensive a subject as that assigned to me by your president. Fully aware of the fact that I am addressing those who are far better equipped than I for this task, I beg at the outset that what I shall say upon this important topic may be considered tentative and suggestive rather than didactic.

The connection between history and literature is so intimate that the treatment of the latter in its broad sense might include the former, without violence to either. Considering each in its more restricted meaning, however, and particularly in its commonly accepted scholastic sense, the reason for the separation of these subjects in the caption becomes apparent.

In presenting the claims of history and literature to a place in the curriculum of the elementary school, I do not feel that I am advocating the introduction of new subjects into our already too crowded course. History has been assigned a place for many years in the majority of our schools, and literature has received at least a passive recognition. The actual instruction in both has been far from satisfactory; in quantity, it has been for the most part, nominal and uncertain; in method, aimless and desultory. That these subjects have not been—are not now—adequately appreciated by the vast majority of the educational guild of this country, will be readily conceded.

During the past decade, the methods of instruction in nearly all of the other branches of elementary school work have undergone radical changes, and have reached a wide range of development. In the subjects of history and literature, however, it must be admitted that but little if any progress has been made in securing systematic instruction either in matter or method.

In language and arithmetic, we find a careful gradation throughout the course; in every stage of the child's progress, we become conscious of an effort to adapt matter and method to the capabilities of the growing mind, to arouse and develop self-activity by creating an interest in the subject-matter. An extended examination of courses of study in different sections of the United States reveals the fact that in few instances only has there been any serious attempt to apply to history and literature the systematic treatment accorded to other subjects.

The explanation of this fact cannot be found in any inherent difficulties in the subjects themselves. The plaintive question of the venerable Walt Whitman regarding our national literature may have been unconsciously applied by many to our national history, though we should be loth to make the admission. Popular indifference may, perhaps, be partially attributed to the absence in our local and institutional history of the element of antiquity, an element quite necessary to enlist the attention and take hold of the imagination. Until within recent years, our people have been more actively interested in the making, than in the recording, of history. As a people, we are even yet standing far too near the seething caldron of our later history to form a calm dispassionate judgment respecting its character and value. Proper perspective will doubtless enhance our interest, both in American history and American literature.

There is still another cause, deeper lying perhaps, but farther reaching in its results.

The curriculum of the common school is not a mere arbitrary or accidental catalogue of subjects; it is a development, a growth, under influences as potent and as complex as those which have given life and form to our social organism. On the one hand we find those fundamental principles, physiological and psychological, which appertain to the nature and development of mind, those laws of mental action which indicate the relative strength and activity of the several powers at different ages and stages of growth, and dictate the order and methods of training. These factors, so far as understood, within certain limits at least, are definite, universal and invariable, and must constitute the subjective basis of a rational course of study. On the other hand, we encounter objective conditions and requirements, among which may be mentioned the sphere of activity and environment designed for the child, the time and extent of his education, the spirit of the age and the demands of public sentiment as dictated by that spirit. These factors, embodying the popular ideal of education, are variable, and are subject to changes and modifications, sometimes radical and revolutionary, always more or less definite and perceptible.

This elasticity of conditions, due so largely to the genius of our American institutions, is in itself an important factor in the progress and development of our national life, as well as of our educational ideals.

Based upon these primary conditions, we find two distinct lines of educational thought, characterizing the two predominating ideals of the century. The one, emphasizing subjective conditions, subordinates the acquisition of mere knowledge or information to the disciplinary value of the studies pursued; the other makes the utility of the subject-matter the measure of its disciplinary value. The predominating tendency of the former has been the concentration of all the agencies of education to

secure the severe training and exact discipline of the intellectual faculties, leaving the culture of the emotional and executive faculties largely to the accidents of life. Such subjects as were deemed unsuited to intellectual gymnastics, were carefully excluded. History, poetry and music, were laid aside as too trivial and effeminating for men who aspired to intellectual strength. With the rise of the utilitarian ideal, we find in recent years a pronounced tendency towards the opposite extreme. The practical arts as elements in individual and national progress, have demonstrated their marvelous power to such an extent that to-day science is idolized and knowledge is declared omnipotent.

It is not difficult to see that under the sway of these two great educational ideals, history and literature have received but little direct encouragement as branches of school work. Considered by the one inadequate as a means of severe mental training and exact scholarship, and by the other as containing too little promise of immediate utility in the business of life, these subjects have been assigned a subordinate and precarious lodgement in the curriculum of the elementary school.

The tendency has been to relegate the study of literature as such to the high school and the college—to place it as far as possible beyond the reach of the masses. The value of literature as a means of culture may be admitted, but it is claimed to be beyond the comprehension of pupils below the high school. In the meantime, these pupils take their reading into their own hands, and drift away unwarned to the dangerous shallows of sensational and ephemeral literature. When we remember that only about fifteen per cent. of the children in our elementary schools ever reach the high school, it becomes evident that those educational agencies designed to advance the masses and to conserve the highest interest of the state, must be concentrated in the grammar schools. In the millions of youths in these schools to-day are centred the hopes and the interests of the future. The boys from these schools, not those from our high schools and colleges, will roll up the future majorities in our great cities. For many years to come the battle-ground of the republic must be the grammar school, and the instruction here imparted will determine the future battle-cry of American civilization.

It was not without fitness that literature and its allied subjects were called by the ancients the *humanities*. These studies appeal directly to the human element in life, and are calculated to inspire the soul and mold the life more effectively than all the other subjects of our elementary course combined; these are the only studies of the course that are likely to be projected into the child's after-life; they serve to cultivate the affections, to ennoble the emotions and the desires—in short, to purify the springs of human action, and to render secure from pollution the streams of social and national life.

Literature in its comprehensive sense has been defined as the expression

of life ; history relates to the visible form, the outward expression, while literature in poetry and fiction deals with the throbbings of that inner life which animates and beautifies the whole. The interest of both centers in man. History and biography, appealing to individual experience, and exercising the imagination by vivid portrayals of past scenes and incidents, constitute perhaps the surest and most direct avenue to the broader fields of literature. This service of history to literature will be admitted, but not so readily recognized as the connection between the other naturally related subjects of the grammar school course and literature, the supplement and complement of all. It is evident that reading, grammar, history and geography are bound together in a most intimate relationship through the bond of literature. Reading is not *reading,* if it stops satisfied with *word-calling* and a mechanical observation of pauses and inflections. That study of United States history which fails to invest the lives of the noble men and heroic women of the past with an interest all absorbing, and to lead the child to appreciate in their proper setting the eloquent and impassioned outbursts of patriotic sentiment, has fallen miserably short of its mission.

If the long and dreary journey through the desert of language and technical grammar fails to vouchsafe now and then an encouraging glimpse of the promised land of literature, even if it be beyond the Jordan, much time has been wasted, much energy vainly exhausted. As "all roads lead to Rome," so should all the studies in the grammar school lead to the cultivation of the literary sense as the end and sum of all education below the high school.

The study of history and geography might be profitably united throughout the course. While studying the physical and political characteristics of different countries, let the child learn something of the prominent men and notable events associated with them in history. Call to his aid a few of the heroes and noted travellers of history ; let Alexander, Hannibal, or Napoleon, Captain Cook, Livingston, or Stanley do service as guides. Let the progressive map of Italy, Greece, or Germany, as it expands before the pupil, become instinct with the living, glowing millions of the past ; let those horrid wriggling lines be translated by the imagination into remarkable rivers, lakes, and mountains, associated with deeds of valor and renown, and invested with something of the ancient glory of romance. Both in general and American history the child will thus associate place and circumstance in such relation that the one may recall the other. History and geography as studied independently are woefully abused ; in the one, the element of time is unduly emphasized, in the other that of place. It is in their union we must seek strength. If need be, let the geography be rewritten, and let the endless list of insignificant places that have failed in all the centuries to prove interesting to the makers of romance and history, rest silent in deserved obscurity. Winnow, if you will, from

the school history much of dry indigestible detail. Let history and geography be co-ordinated, and the two will move on hand in hand, mutually helpful, mutually inspiring.

But, while much may be accomplished by co-ordinating the more obviously related subjects of the course, and by organizing the instruction in these subjects with reference to literary culture, specific and exclusive attention should be given to history and literature in any well-arranged curriculum.

A brief survey of history-teaching in the grammar grades is all that can be attempted within the limits of this paper. The course in United States history usually covers a period of one or two years. In a few instances we find English history or outlines of general history in the highest grade. Rarely do we find any systematic effort to teach history before the sixth or seventh year of the child's school life.

The increased attention given to this study of late in many of our leading colleges and universities, under the direction of eminent specialists, has revealed three important needs of history-teaching in the grammar school: 1. Better preparation on the part of teachers; 2. Improved methods of teaching; 3. Better gradation of the course in history.

Dr. Thorpe, in an article published in 1887, gives the following vivid description of the prevailing method of instruction in history:

"The teacher assigns a fixed number of pages in the text-book to be memorized; pupils repeat the text in recitation; they are examined in the text, and the subject is dropped, usually willingly. This method prevails in large cities and in crowded schools, and is the *sine qua non* of every teacher who is compelled to hear lessons which he does not understand. The result is that thousands pass from these schools with a brief mental incumbrance of names, dates and isolated events. In some public schools no text-book is used. The teacher not being a special student of history talks text-book on a small scale. The notes of pupils are disconnected statements swept together into a table which is memorized. The recitation is the story after the teacher with unique variations by the child; the text-book abridges the larger work, the teacher abbreviates the text-book, and the child abbreviates the teacher." Dr. Thorpe's conclusion is anything but flattering: "In these schools for elementary instruction, the study of American history as at present conducted is, with few exceptions, time wasted, money wasted, energy wasted, history perverted, and intelligent elementary knowledge of elementary history prevented."

This is doubtless true enough to-day, though the past five years have wrought progress in many schools. The grammar school teacher of to-day, be it remembered, is not a specialist; existent conditions preclude such a possibility. In the majority of our schools, the grammar school teacher is required to give instruction in almost the entire circle of the arts, and is expected to include in her mental equipment the elements of all knowl-

edge. The salary received in most instances is barely sufficient to justify respectable subsistance, much less afford the luxury of extended travel and study. Yet, some of the overworked, underpaid grammar school teachers I wot of do excellent work even in history, better, perhaps, than many a university specialist could do—in the grammar school.

But while we cannot emphasize too much the need of better preparation and better methods for the teacher, faulty instruction may be oftentimes attributed to the arrangement of the course of study. Good history-teaching in the grammar grades must have its roots deep in the primary. We must recognize the fact that the study of history, like that of language and arithmetic, is essentially progressive in its character; gradation should be adapted to the several stages in the development of the historical sense. To place in the hands of a grammar school pupil an advanced text-book in history without previous instruction, without securing even a mental attitude favorable to the study, is a blunder second only to the placing of technical grammar in the hands of a primary language tyro.

If the childhood of man repeats in miniature the childhood of the race, and the education of the individual proceeds upon lines parallel with those of humanity, as Herbert Spencer tells us, we may get from history itself a valuable suggestion with regard to the development of the historical sense. With the child, as with the race, a vivid imagination revels amid fairy tales and legends of wonderful beings, superhuman in size and power. To the nursery and the kindergarten belongs this the first stage of history-teaching.

Chronology, geography and biography, time, place and personality, are the primary essentials of history. The child cannot grasp these relations simultaneously. The chronological sequence of past events is too abstract a conception for the beginner; the effort to locate the story weights down the imagination too much; the personal element alone attracts and dominates the fancy during the first two years of school life. In the third and fourth years, we may expect the element of place to combine naturally with that of personality, and geography and biography constitute the vehicles of history-teaching. Any adequate conception of orderly sequence in the great past is as yet too vast for his mental grasp, though the story may expand into an elaborate narrative and the personal sketch into a respectable biography.

During the next two years, the three elements are called into requisition; the fragmentary accumulations of former stages, in which the child now feels something of a proprietary interest, may be reproduced and supplemented, and the whole crystallized into a connected narrative.

In the last stage of the grammar school, the deeper and more philosophical relations of history will be appreciated. The facts of history may be examined in their general relations as conditions and results, causes and effects. The simpler generalizations may be derived and their

more obvious applications utilized, while the philosophy of history in its wider generalizations and applications to social and political science, must be reserved for high school and college.

Time will not permit me to touch upon text-books or specific methods. My effort must be confined to this simple outline of the basis of a course in history as indicated in the development of the historical sense. If the course be thus begun in the primary, the study will prove more fruitful in results, both as a means of mental discipline and as a practical guide in the duties and exigencies of life.

I have dwelt thus at some length upon history, because it is recognized as the doorway to general literature; besides, what has been said with regard to the development of the historical sense, applies with equal force to the development of literary taste, particularly in the primary grades, where the foundation must be securely laid.

DeQuincey classifies literature into two great divisions, the literature of information and the literature of power, or inspiration. The latter now claims our attention. How shall we cultivate in our grammar schools a taste for that class of literature which inspires the soul and ennobles character?

Many plans and devices have been suggested, and tried with varying degrees of success. In many schools the old system of numbered readers has been either supplanted or supplemented by the introduction of continuous selections from our best English and American authors. The celebration of authors' days in many schools has proven an excellent method of impressing upon the mind the character and personality of eminent men of letters, and of familiarizing the children with their works. The spasmodic character, and the celebration feature of this method, however, constitute an artificial stimulus not entirely favorable to the formation of the "reading habit," unless supplemented with more permanent and continuous work.

Another effort, assuming various forms and proportions according to circumstances and local surroundings, may be termed the "library method."

It is not my purpose to examine specifically into the merits of the several methods suggested. Their existence serves to emphasize the conviction that the need of special instruction in literature is most urgent, and is a virtual admission of the fact that the teaching of English in our schools to-day is a failure so far as it concerns the cultivation of literary taste. We give ample time to English in our grammar schools; reading, language, grammar and composition—the related English studies, occupy nearly one-half the child's time in school. Are the results at all commensurate with this vast effort? A very large per centum of our pupils pass through our grammar schools, and even enter our colleges without mastery of the rudiments of language, with no facility of expression in their

own vernacular, and with no appreciation of the wealth and splendor of the literature within their grasp. Is it not possible that our language teaching is too cold, abstract and technical? that our aims are too verbal and our methods too mechanical? In other words, are we not trying to teach all *about* the language and too little *in* and *of* the language itself? We too often content ourselves, it seems to me, with the method of the dissecting-room: the pupil studies the anatomy of a language that to him is practically dead, so far as its soul-breathing literature is concerned.

Such a process may bring dexterity in the mechanical manipulation of words, but it cannot inspire thought. It may develop skill in analysis, but corresponding power of synthesis and the enlargement of the intellectual life do not of necessity follow.

Far from decrying technical grammar, I hold it indispensable as a means of training in the relation of ideas and in the logical analysis of language. As a science it has its place, but as a science it demands that the pupil shall first come face to face with the living facts upon which it is based—the literature of the language.

Could we turn the light of mature experience upon our early school time, and vividly recall our early views of literature, we should feed our pupils less on the dry, unpalatable husks of thought. What wonder some of us were led to conclude that the masterpieces of Jefferson and Webster, Clay and Calhoun, were written expressly for the big boys to declaim on Friday afternoons; that the fragmentary literature with which the pages of the grammar were so generously sprinkled had been generated for the sole purpose of illustrating rules of syntax? Yet, these "*disjecta membra*" of poet, orator and essayist, constituted the sole literary equipment of the millions who left the district school of the long ago to enter upon life's duties.

But many of us cherish tender memories of the old school reader. The fragments read and memorized in school time may have been enigmas then, but how often since have they flowered into consciousness and power. How often since have we been surprised and delighted to recognize our old familiar friends, when met by chance, no longer isolated nomads, but at home, in the pages of Irving, Wirt or Webster; Dickens, Scott or Bulwer; Wordsworth, Bryant or Longfellow.

But the old school reader has been dethroned; it holds to-day but partial sway in our city and village schools. A literary scrap-book, it may yet serve as a hand-book of elocution, a drill manual in the mechanical process of reading, but it creates no lasting interest in literature, cultivates no taste for continuous reading. Let the reform go on; let the grammar school pupil read with the teacher some of the old masterpieces bequeathed by the children of the past; introduce "Robinson Crusoe," the "Swiss Family" and "Gulliver," Whittier, Longfellow or Tennyson; Irving, Scott or Hawthorne. Begin in the lowest primary with the substitution

of suitable child literature for the insipid commonplaces and worthless inanities of the average primary reader. Let the literary taste be developed by natural stages from the primary to the high school, and the pupil will leave school having an intimate acquaintance with a few great masters of thought and style, with more exalted views of life, with judgment strengthened, taste cultivated and desire ablaze for truth and beauty. The reading of a few great masterpieces in their integrity, with sole reference to their enjoyment and appreciation as literature, may both precede and accompany verbal drills and grammatical analysis.

True culture does not consist simply in the development of the reasoning faculty or the power of discrimination in the subtleties and trivial niceties of technical learning. The child has sentiments, feelings and emotions; an innate love of the beautiful, the true and the sublime; a yearning for immortality, an impulse to the ideal and the perfect. Shall we emphasize the grosser faculties of the mind and neglect these, the divine part of his nature?

Frederick von Schlegel in his Philosophy of History has the following admirable passage to the point:

"There can be no comprehensive culture of the human mind, no high and harmonious development of its powers and the various faculties of the soul, unless all those deep feelings of life—that mighty productive energy of human nature—the marvelous imagination, be awakened and excited, and by that excitement and exertion attain an expansive, noble and beautiful form. Were the mental culture of any people founded solely on a dead, cold abstract science, to the exclusion of all poetry in action or thought, such a mere mathematical people, with minds thus sharpened and pointed by mathematical discipline, would never possess a rich and various intellectual existence, nor even probably attain to a living science, or a true science of life."

In illustration of this argument, an eminent authority has suggested a comparison of the philological methods of two representative American universities. The high standard of exact scholarship in the one made possible the most critical analysis and laborious research upon a few lines of Horace or Sophocles, while the beauties of thought, sentiment and style were passed with scant attention. Its graduates have been celebrated as exact scholars, and prodigies of intellectual acumen, but they have contributed little to the enrichment of the world's literature. The other imparted a more generous culture of the imagination and the feelings, and gave to the world a Prescott, a Holmes, a Longfellow and a Lowell.

The two dominating educational ideals exist side by side in the modern school, now diverging into extremes, now converging, and uniting through a series of compromises, but seldom fusing in harmonious coalescence.

If the exclusively disciplinary use of the old school reader constitutes one extreme, the other extreme may be seen in the reactionary and unwise

substitution of strictly information readers, science readers, the newspaper and manuals of current events—all falsely labeled as literature. If the one emphasizes intellectual gymnastics at the risk of mental starvation, the other may simply tickle the palate with modern sweetmeats, in the name of utility, to the fatal exclusion of wholesome nutriment.

If, on the one hand, there is danger of emphasizing the exclusively disciplinary ideal in the grammar school stage by introducing Latin, algebra and geometry, there is danger on the other of enfeebling the curriculum with a dilute mixture of commercial and industrial branches. The simple terms, "commercial" and "industrial," possess a potent charm to the educational as well as the popular ear, and we must make room for Commercial Book-keeping, Commercial Stenography, Commercial Savings Banks, and even "Commercial German," with "Reciprocity Spanish" doubtless to come in later; we must make room for industrial drawing, the industrial science, and the whole round of "industrial-isms," vaguely accredited to Manual Training. This diversity of instruction may produce versatility, but it is incompatible with intensity. No wonder our common schools are so often charged with the overproduction of moral debility and mental mediocrity, when the curriculum is crowded to the verge of feebleness and teaching energy is so effectually dissipated. No wonder the great educational essentials, the mold of humanity and the glory of civilization, must be abandoned, while we open wide our doors to a throng of modern marvels to convince ourselves of progress.

The gravest danger of our educational system to-day, lies in the effort to make the common school subserve too many specific purposes. The wrecks of the schools of antiquity admonish us against this error. The failure of popular elementary education in ages past has been chiefly due to the effort to subserve some selfish aim, some immediate purpose. Compensation for the neglect of certain powers of the human soul was often sought in the over-education of others; the unique product too often consists of an intellectual giant combined with a moral imbecile, or an intellectual and moral dwarf with massive but unorganized and impotent information.

We need to-day in our common schools the counteracting influence of those studies which will exert a direct power upon the moral conduct of life. Far better omit the rigid drill in advanced arithmetic and technical grammar, if need be, than to send out the millions of youth now in our schools, to assume the duties and responsibilities of life, without the aid to character building obtained from the examples of noble lives recorded in history and biography, without inspiration to noble living drawn from the visions of beauty and moral loveliness presented in literature. It is not enough to teach reading; ability to read is a power that grows more dangerous day by day. This power in the hands of the child, without direction, may be perverted to the basest of uses and prove at the last his

one soul-destroying instrumentality. Thomas Arnold did not speak unadvisedly when he said, "I would rather that a son of mine believed that the sun went round the earth, than that he should be entirely deficient in knowledge of beauty, of poetry and of moral truth."

It is not enough that the child's mind be prepared by a scientific process to receive truth; the seed must be sown, and the tender shoot must be nourished by sunshine, rain and dew, if we are to expect abundant fruitage in the life.

As the "heirs of all the ages," the youth of America should be impressed with the value of their inheritance, and the solemn responsibility it entails; they should learn the trite but oft forgotten truth, that the past is our only key to the future; that

> "The unerring voice of Time
> Warns us that what hath been, again shall be,
> And the broad beacon-flame
> Of History casts its light
> Upon Futurity."

When the history of American institutions, and the literature of the English tongue in its most inspiring and enduring forms, become fundamental studies in our common schools, then may we hope for the speedy assimilation of the diverse elements now thronging our shores from every clime, into homogeneous American citizenship; then will the priceless inheritance of the past, cherished in the hearts of a grateful and patriotic people, prove an exhaustless well-spring of individual solace and joy, and the substantial guaranty of social purity and national integrity.

(This paper was not discussed.)

SHORTENING AND ENRICHING THE GRAMMAR SCHOOL COURSE.

BY PRESIDENT CHARLES W. ELIOT, HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

THE subject assigned to me is, shortening and enriching the grammar school course.

I. We may properly use the term shortening in either of two senses. In the first place, the number of grades may be reduced from ten to nine and from nine to eight, so that the combined primary and grammar school periods shall end at fourteen or thirteen; or, secondly, the studies of the present course may be reduced in volume or in variety, or in both, so that there shall be room for the introduction of new subjects. I observe that both kinds of shortening have actually been begun in various towns and cities, and I believe that both are desirable, if not universally, at least, in most localities. The argument for the first kind of shortening is a compact and convincing one; averaging the rates of progress of bright children with those of dull children being the great curse of a graded school, it is safer to make the regular programme for eight grades, and lengthen it for the exceptionally slow pupils, than to make it for ten grades and shorten it for the exceptionally quick. In other words, since holding back the capable children is a much greater educational injustice than hurrying the incapable, the programme should be so constructed as to give all possible chances of avoiding the greater evil. Without altering the nominal length of the programme in years, a great shortening of the course can be effected for part of the children, simply by permitting the capable ones to do two years' work in one. I heard a grammar school master testifying a few days ago, in a teachers' meeting, that nearly one-quarter of the pupils in his school (which numbers about 650 children) were successfully accomplishing this double task. Such a statement opens a cheerful vista for one who desires to see the grammar school course both shortened and enriched.

With no more words about the first kind of shortening, I turn to the second kind, namely, the desirable reductions in the volume and variety of the present studies. The first great reduction should, I believe, be made in arithmetic. I find that it is very common in programmes of the grades to allot to arithmetic from one-eighth to one-sixth of the whole school-time for nine or ten years. In many towns and cities two arithmetics are used during these years; a small one of perhaps one hundred pages, followed by a larger one of two or three hundred pages. Now the

small book ordinarily contains all the arithmetic that anybody needs to know; indeed, much more than most of us ever use. Before a body of experts like this it were superfluous to enlarge on this proposition. On grounds of utility, geometry and physics have stronger claims than any part of arithmetic beyond the elements, and for mental training they are also to be preferred. By the contraction of arithmetic, room is made for algebra and geometry. In a few schools these subjects have already been introduced, with or without mention in the official programmes, and they have proved to be interesting and intelligible to American children of from eleven to thirteen years of age, just as they are to European children. Moreover, the attainments of the pupils in arithmetic are not diminished by the introduction of the new studies, but rather increased. The algebraic way of solving a problem is often more intelligible than the arithmetical, and mensuration is easier when founded on a good knowledge of elementary geometry than it is in the lack of that foundation. The three subjects together are vastly more interesting than arithmetic alone pursued through nine consecutive years. Secondly, language studies, including reading, writing, spelling, grammar and literature, occupy from one-third to two-fifths of most grades' programmes. There is ample room here for the introduction of the optional study of a foreign language, ancient or modern, at the fourth or fifth grade. Here it is to be observed that nothing will be lost to English by the introduction of a foreign language. In many schools the subject of grammar still fills too large a place on the programme, although great improvement has taken place in the treatment of this abstruse subject, which is so unsuitable for children. In the Beginner's Latin Book, by Messrs. Collar & Grant, I noticed, five years ago, an excellent description of the amount of knowledge of English grammar needed by a pupil of ten or twelve years of age about to begin Latin. Of course, the pupil who is not to begin Latin needs no more. All the grammar which the learner needed to know before beginning Latin was "the names and functions of the parts of speech in English, and the meanings of the common grammatical terms, such as subject and predicate, case, tense, voice, declension, conjunction, etc." Manuals have now been prepared in considerable variety for imparting this limited amount of grammatical information by examples and practice rather than by rules and precepts, so that the greater part of the time formerly spent on English grammar can now be saved for more profitable uses. Thirdly, geography is now taught chiefly as a memory study from books and flat atlases, and much time is given to committing to memory masses of facts which cannot be retained, and which are of little value if retained. By grouping physical geography with natural history, and political geography with history, and by providing proper apparatus for teaching geography, time can be saved, and yet a place made for much new and interesting geographical instruction. Fourthly, a small saving of time can be made

for useful subjects by striking out the book-keeping, which, in many towns and cities, is found in the last grade. This subject is doubtless included in the grammar school programme, because it is supposed to be of practical value ; but I believe it to be the most useless subject in the entire programme, for the reason that the book-keeping taught is a kind of book-keeping never found in any real business establishment. Every large business has in these days its own forms of accounting and book-keeping, which are, for the most part, peculiar to itself. Almost every large firm or corporation has its own method, with printed headings, schedules, bill-heads, invoices, and duplicating order-books, adapted to its own business, and intended to simplify its accounts and reduce to lowest terms the amount of writing necessary to keep them. What a boy or girl can learn at school which will be useful in after-life in keeping books or accounts for any real business is a good hand-writing, and accuracy in adding, subtracting, multiplying and dividing small numbers. It is a positive injury to a boy to give him the impression that he knows something about book-keeping, when he has only learned an unreal system which he will never find used in any actual business. At best, book-keeping is not a science, but only an art based on conventions. As trade and industry have been differentiated in the modern world, book-keeping has been differentiated also, and it is, of course, impossible to teach in school the infinite diversities of practice.

II. I have thus indicated in the briefest manner the reductions which may be conveniently made in some of the present subjects in order to effect a shortening of the present grammar school programme. My next topic is diversifying and enriching it. The most complete statement of the new subjects proposed for the grammar school programme is that made by the Association of Colleges in New England at their meeting at Brown University last November. That association then invited the attention of the public to certain changes in the grammar school programme which it recommended for gradual adoption. These changes are five in number :—The first is the introduction of elementary natural history into the earlier years of the programme, to be taught by demonstrations and practical exercises rather than from books. The term natural history was doubtless intended to include botany, zoölogy, geology and physical geography. Some room for these subjects is already made in most grammar school programmes, and the recommendation of the association refers as much to methods of teaching as to time allotted to the subject. The association recommends that the teaching be demonstrative, and that adequate apparatus be provided for teaching these subjects. There is a lamentable lack of the proper apparatus for teaching geography in the public schools. Indeed, in many schools there is no proper apparatus for teaching geography, or any other natural history subject, to young children. Natural science apparatus has been provided in some

exceptional high schools; but as a rule grammar schools are still destitute in this important respect.

The second recommendation is the introduction of elementary physics into the later years of the programme, to be taught by the laboratory method, and to include exact weighing and measuring by the pupils themselves.

The third and fourth recommendations cover the introduction of algebra and geometry at the age of twelve or thirteen.

The fifth is the offering of opportunity to study French or German or Latin, or any two of these languages, from and after the age of ten.

III. Such are in brief the proposals for shortening and enriching the grammar school course. I want to use the rest of the time allotted to me for discussing the objections to these various changes.

The first objection I take up is the objection to a reduction in the time devoted to arithmetic. Many teachers are shocked at the bare idea of reducing the time given to arithmetic, because they believe that arithmetic affords a peculiarly valuable training, first, in reasoning, and secondly, in precision of thought and accuracy of work. They perceive that the greater part of the school programme calls only for memorizing power, and they think that arithmetic develops reasoning power. The fact is, however, that mathematical reasoning is a peculiar form of logic which has very little application to common life, and no application at all in those great fields of human activity where perfect demonstration is not to be obtained. As a rule, neither the biological nor the moral sciences can make use of mathematical reasoning. Moreover, so far as mathematical reasoning is itself concerned, variety of subject is very useful to the pupils. The substitution of algebra and geometry for part of the arithmetic is a clear gain to the pupil so far as acquaintance with the logic of mathematics goes. Again, practice in thinking with accuracy and working with demonstrable precision can be obtained in algebra, geometry and physics just as well as in arithmetic. It is quite unnecessary to adhere to the lowest and least interesting of these exact subjects in order to secure adequate practice in precision of thought and work.

The second objection is that there are children in the grammar schools who are incapable of pursuing these new subjects. Assuming that this allegation is true of some children, I have to remark, first, that we shall not know till we have tried what proportion of children are incapable of pursuing algebra, geometry, physics, and some foreign language by the time they are fourteen years of age. It is a curious fact that we Americans habitually underestimate the capacity of pupils at almost every stage of education from the primary school through the university; the expectation of attainment for the American child, or for the American college student, is much lower than the expectation of attainment for the European. This error has been very grave in its effects on American educa-

tion all along the line from the primary school through the university, and till within twenty years the effects were nowhere worse than at the college grade. It seems to me probable that the proportion of grammar school children incapable of pursuing geometry, algebra and a foreign language would turn out to be much smaller than we now imagine ; but though this proportion should be large, it would not justify the exclusion of all the capable children from opportunities by which they could profit. At the worst this objection can only go to show that it will be necessary to adopt in the grammar schools a flexible instead of a rigid system—some selection or choice of studies instead of a uniform requirement. Those children who are competent to study a foreign language should certainly have the opportunity of doing so at the proper age, that is, not later than ten or eleven years, and those who are competent to begin geometry at twelve and algebra at thirteen should have the chance. If experience shall prove that a considerable proportion of grammar school children are incapable of pursuing the higher studies, that fact will only show that the selection of appropriate studies for children by their teachers should be adopted as a policy by the public grammar school. To discriminate between pupils of different capacity, to select the competent for suitable instruction, and to advance each pupil with appropriate rapidity, will ultimately become, I believe, the most important functions of the public school administrator—those functions in which he or she will be most serviceable to families and to the state.

Another objection to the changes proposed often takes this form—they are said to be aristocratic in tendency. The democratic theory—it is said—implies equality among the children, uniformity of programme, uniform tests for promotion, and no divisions in the same school room according to capacity or merit. I need not say to this audience that these conceptions of true democracy in schools are fallacious and ruinous. Democratic society does not undertake to fly in the face of nature by asserting that all children are equal in capacity, or that all children are alike and should be treated alike. Everybody knows that children are infinitely diverse ; that children in the same family even are apt to be very different in disposition, temperament and mental power. Every child is a unique personality. It follows, of course, that uniform programmes and uniform methods of instruction, applied simultaneously to large numbers of children, must be unwise and injurious—an evil always to be struggled against and reformed, so far as the material resources of democratic society will permit. It is for the interest of society, as well as of the individual, that every individual child's peculiar gifts and powers should be developed and trained to the highest degree. Hence, in the public schools of a democracy the aim should be to give the utmost possible amount of individual instruction, to grade according to capacity just as far as the number of teachers and their strength and skill will permit, and

to promote pupils not by battalions, but in the most irregular and individual way possible. A few days ago I heard an assistant superintendent in an important city declare that many grammar school teachers in his city objected to any division among the fifty or more pupils in each room, any division, that is, according to the attainments and powers of the individual pupils. They wanted all the pupils in a given room to be in one grade, to move together like soldiers on parade, and to arrive at examination-day having all performed precisely the same tasks, and made the same progress in the same subjects. If that were a true portrait of the city graded school, it would be safe to predict that the urban public school would before long become nothing but a charity-school for the children of the dependent classes. Intelligent Americans will not subject their children to such a discipline, when they once understand what it means. The country district school, in which among forty or fifty pupils there are always ten or a dozen distinct classes at different stages and advancing at different rates of progress, would remain as the only promising type of the free school. Not only is it no serious objection to the new proposals that they must diminish uniformity in schools—it is their strongest recommendation.

So far from the changes proposed being of aristocratic tendency, they are really essential to a truly democratic school system, for they must be adopted and carried into effect before the children of the poor can obtain equal access with the children of the rich to the best education they are capable of, whatever the grade of that education may be. Accessibility of appropriate opportunity is the essence of democratic society, not equality of gifts, attainments or powers, for that equality is unnatural and impossible, not abundance of inappropriate opportunities, for such abundance is of no avail, but accessibility of such appropriate opportunities as the individual can utilize for his own benefit and that of society. The American grammar school programme now actually prevents an intelligent child from beginning the study of a foreign tongue at the right age. We all know that that age is very early, long before the high school period. It prevents him from beginning the study of algebra and geometry at the right age. It makes it impossible for him to get a chance at the right kind of study of natural science. If a boy is not to go to the high school, he loses that chance forever under our present system. If he is going to the high school, he does not get the chance till much too late. The poor boy in the United States should have as good a chance as the child of a rich man to obtain the best school training which his character and powers fit him to receive. Is not that a fair statement of what democratic society may reasonably aim at, and seek to effect through its own grammar schools? Yet the existing grammar school programme actually prevents the poor boy from getting that chance. The rich man can obtain for his children a suitably varied course of instruction, with much individual teaching, in a private or endowed school, but the immense majority of American chil-

dren are confined to the limited, uniform machine programme of the graded grammar school. A democratic society was never more misled as to its own interest than in supposing such a programme to be for the interest of the masses. The grades for pupils from six to fifteen years of age are an obstruction to the rise through democratic society of the children who ought to rise. Uniformity is the curse of American schools. That any school or college has a uniform product should be regarded as a demonstration of inferiority—of incapacity to meet the legitimate demands of a social order whose fundamental principle is that every career should be opened to talent. Selection of studies for the individual, instruction addressed to the individual, irregular promotion, grading by natural capacity and rapidity of attainment, and diversity of product as regards age and acquisitions must come to characterize the American public school, if it is to answer the purposes of a democratic society.

It is further alleged that the changes proposed are chiefly for the advantage of the well-to-do children whose education is to be carried beyond the grammar school to the high school, and possibly to the college above the high school. They are indeed for the interest of this class of children; but they are much more for the interest of the children who are not going to the high school and for whom, therefore, the grammar school is to provide all the systematic education they will ever receive. The Association of Colleges in New England distinctly says that it makes its recommendations in the interest of the public school system as a whole; "but most of them are offered more particularly in the interest of those children whose education is not to be continued beyond the grammar school." Take, for example, the subject of geometry. It has many and very important applications in the arts and trades. Every mechanic needs some knowledge of it. Its applications are as important as those of arithmetic, if we except the very simplest and commonest arithmetical operations. That the great mass of American children should leave school without ever having touched this subject, except perhaps in arithmetic under the head of mensuration, is a grave public misfortune. To introduce variety into the grammar school programme is in itself likely to profit the children who are never to go to school after they are fourteen years of age, even more than the children who are. A child who is dull in one subject may be bright in a different subject. Thus, a child who has no gift in language may be keen and quick in natural history studies. A child who has no taste for arithmetic may prove unusually strong in geometry. One whose mind is not easily moved through purely mental exercises may be intellectually developed through drawing and manual training. In college we are extremely familiar with these diversities, and the elective system is now giving in most American colleges free play for the profitable exhibition and cultivation of these diverse gifts. In a similar manner the grammar school will be better for even the dull and

slow children, if its studies are made more various and its whole system more flexible.

A fifth objection to the introduction of new subjects is that children are already overworked in school. In an address I gave rather more than a year ago, I pointed out that there are two effective mechanical precautions against the ill-effects attributed to overwork at school—precautions which it is delightful to see are more and more adopted. They are good ventilation, and the systematic use of light gymnastics at regular intervals during school hours. School time ought to be the best managed of all the day from a sanitary point of view, excepting those hours which the children pass out of doors. If the school-room were invariably healthier in every respect than the average home, we should hear less about overwork at school. There is, however, a third precaution against overwork which is quite as important as either of those already mentioned—it is making the school-work interesting to the children. Four years ago I asked the attention of this department of the National Educational Association to the depressing effect which lack of interest and conscious progress in school-work has upon children. To introduce new and higher subjects into the school programme is not necessarily to increase the strain upon the child. If this measure increases the interest and attractiveness of the work and the sense of achievement, it will diminish weariness and the risk of hurtful strain.

Lastly, there is an apprehension lest the introduction of the new subjects recommended should increase existing difficulties with regard to promotion. Parents are sensitive about the promotion of their children. They want the dull ones and the bright to be promoted at the same rate. Their sympathies are quite as apt to be with the slow children as with the quick. I believe that this practical difficulty should be met in part by the abandonment of uniform attainment, or of a standard of required knowledge, as ground of promotion. In Harvard College, where there is no such thing as a uniform programme of study for all students, and where, indeed, there is small chance that any two students out of fourteen hundred and fifty will pursue the same course of studies during their four years of residence, we have long since abandoned uniform attainment as ground of promotion from one class to another. The sole ground of promotion is reasonable fidelity. I venture to believe that this is the true ground of promotion in grammar schools as well, and that by the sole use of this principle in promoting, the difficulty now under consideration would be much alleviated, if not done away with. The right time for advancing a child to the study of a new subject, is the first moment he is capable of comprehending it. All our divisions of the total school period into years, and into primary, grammar, and high schools, are artificial, and in most cases hurtful or hindering to the individual. The whole school life should be one unbroken flow from one fresh interest and one

new delight to another, and the rate of that flow ought to be different for each different child. Economical school administration inevitably interferes somewhat with the desirable continuity and variety of motion; but the most skillful and wisest administration is that which interferes the least.

On reviewing the progress of this reform since I had the honor of discussing the question "Can school programmes be shortened and enriched?" before this Department of Superintendents four years ago, I see many evidences that a great and beneficent change in public school programmes is rapidly advancing. The best evidence is to be found in the keen interest the superintendents and teachers take in the discussion of the subject. Through them the proposed improvements will be wrought out in detail, their influence will be successfully exerted on parents, committees and the public press, and their reward will be, first the daily sight of happier and better trained children, and secondly the elevation of their own profession.

WHAT SHALL THE STATE DO TOWARD THE EDUCATION OF CHILDREN BELOW THE SCHOOL AGE, BETWEEN THE AGES OF THREE AND SIX?

BY SUPERINTENDENT FRANK A. FITZPATRICK, OMAHA, NEB.

THE topic assigned me for discussion will be treated as follows:

First, What can the State do under existing conditions?

Second, What may the State do at present?

Third, What would be the effect of this extension of the school age downward?

Fourth, What are the limits of State interference within the domain of the family?

Fifth, What are the physical impediments in the way?

Sixth, What is the proper method of procedure?

Until comparatively recently the province of government was thought to be merely the protection of the weak; but the exigencies of modern life have impelled the State to reach down into the details of private life, and thus to shape more or less the environments of its citizens. Thus, fire limits are established in cities, inside of which no frame building can be erected; awnings and sheds over the pavements are also prohibited; a citizen may not even build a bay window projecting over the walk in front of his house, and in many cities cannot even make use of the well upon his lot, but must use the water furnished by the city water-works. He may not even build windows overlooking his neighbor's yard; he may not make such a fire in his furnace or heating plant as will throw out unconsumed fuel in the shape of smoke; he may no longer whip his wife, and, in some places, his children; he may not even keep his children at home away from school; he may not carry weapons to protect himself from real or affected dangers; he may not, in Nebraska, make a contract with his laborer to work longer than eight hours in any one day. Instances might be multiplied to illustrate that the modern State has taken under its charge many duties which years ago would have been thought violent usurpation of the rights of citizens.

In the modern world the tendency has been to continually enlarge this power of the State, and correspondingly to encroach upon the sphere of the family on one side, and to trench upon the domain of private enterprise on the other. In the older States compulsory enactments require that what is commonly known as primary, grammar, and high school education shall be provided. In the newer States addition to this is made by giving

permission to citizens to obtain college and university, and, in many instances, even professional education at the expense of the public purse. In Washington, one of the newest States, a proposition appears in the constitution which reads as follows: "The State shall establish common schools, high schools, and a university; but the entire revenue derived from the common school fund and the State tax shall be exclusively applied to the support of the common schools." But that this marks the beginning of a change in public sentiment relative to the extension of a system of public education upward may well be doubted in the prevalence of a well-nigh universal demand that the province of the schools be extended downward, until it includes children of three years of age. Nearly every commonwealth has provided, either in its constitution or by legal enactments, for a system of common schools for the proper education of the children of the State. In all of these States some limitation has been put upon the power of boards of education and municipalities in the direction of restricting the expenditure of public money to the education of a certain class of children; *i. e.*, to that class of children in the community whose ages are directly specified either in the constitution or in some legislative enactment. Thus:

Eleven States limit the expenditure of money to children between the ages of five and twenty-one (5 and 21).

Two States limit the expenditure to children between the ages of six and twenty (6 and 20).

Fourteen States, between ages of 6 and 21.
Five " " " " 6 " 18.
Two " " " " 4 " 21.
One State " " " 5 " 18.
One " " " " 8 " 16.
One " " " " 7 " 21.
One " " " " 7 " 20.
One " " " " 6 " 17.
Two States " " " 5 " 20.
One State " " " 5 " upward.

To be more specific, public money is expended and explicitly authorized to be used in the States of Oregon and Wisconsin for the education of all children between the ages of 4 and 20; in Maine and Montana, between 4 and 21; in New Hampshire, New York, Virginia, Mississippi, Minnesota, Iowa, Nebraska, Kansas, Idaho, New Mexico, and Washington, between the ages of 5 and 21; in Vermont and Michigan, between 5 and 20; in New Jersey, from 5 to 18; in Rhode Island, from the age of 5 upwards; in Georgia, South Carolina, Arizona, Louisiana, and Nevada, between the ages of 6 and 18; in Kentucky and Missouri, between 6 and 20; in Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, North Carolina, Flor-

ida, Tennessee, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wyoming, Colorado, Arkansas, and California, between the ages of 6 and 21; in Dakota, from 7 to 20; in Alabama, from 7 to 21; in the District of Columbia, from 6 to 17; in Texas, from 8 to 16; while in Massachusetts there is no direct constitutional or legislative prohibition of the use of public money for the education of children of any class, public sentiment seems to have somewhat crystallized in the compulsory school law of that State, which requires the compulsory attendance at school of children between the ages of 6 and 14. In the following named States; Colorado, Wyoming, Montana, Nebraska, Kansas, Iowa, and Missouri, this limitation as to the school age is constitutional. In the remaining States this limitation is simply an enactment of the legislature. I have used the expression "limitation to certain ages" advisedly; for in the only decision of the courts upon this question that has been brought to my notice—that of Roach *vs.* the City of St. Louis—the Supreme Court of Missouri held that within that State, where the school age is fixed by the constitution at from 6 to 20 years, public money could not be used to maintain kindergartens for children who are under six years of age. In consequence of that decision the city of St. Louis was compelled to limit the attendance in the common schools and kindergartens to those children who were between the ages of 6 and 20, instead of admitting them to the kindergarten at the ages of 4 and 5 as was the custom from the time of the starting of the kindergartens in that city in 1875, up to the time when the decision of the Supreme Court was rendered. In the absence of special powers conferred by the constitution or legislature in any particular State, it seems to be the opinion of attorneys that boards of education can be successfully enjoined by any tax-payer from the expenditure of public money for the education of any child below or any child above the limits fixed by the constitution or the legislature of such State; such opinions being in the line of the Missouri decision, as well as decision of courts in other States, denying to boards of education the right to prevent by local regulations the attendance of children upon the school who fall within the limits as to school age defined by the State. Thus, for instance, it has been held by the Supreme Court in a Western State that where a child five years of age in the community, by reason of a statutory enactment, was entitled to be enumerated, and thus to draw public money from the State, any action of the local board limiting the age at which children might be taken into the school to the age of seven was invalid and inoperative. It would seem, therefore, on the basis already formulated, that there is no valid legal objection visible at this distance to prevent the successful establishment of kindergartens in the States of Maine, Montana, Oregon, Wisconsin, New Hampshire, New York, Virginia, Mississippi, Minnesota, Iowa, Nebraska, Kansas, New Mexico, Idaho, Washington, Vermont, Michigan, New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts. While in Kentucky, Missouri, Penn-

sylvania, Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, North Carolina, Florida, Tennessee, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wyoming, Colorado, Arkansas, California, Dakota, Alabama, and Texas, kindergartens, if established, would need to limit the attendance to those pupils who are six years old and upward, at which time children are usually not fitted to profit in the highest degree by kindergarten training.

In spite of the experience of John Stuart Mill, as given in his autobiography, there has been a pretty unanimous consensus of opinion among educators, that the school education of children could not profitably begin before they had attained the age of six ; and, while there have been some minor differences of opinion relative to the exact age, there have been as many careful observers who held that seven years was even a better age for the average child to begin his school life, as there have been those who rather timidly expressed the opinion that the child should begin his career at school as early as five years of age. It may well be doubted, had it not been for the work of Froebel, and the consequent developments of the kindergarten as a phase of primary instruction, whether this question of the early attendance of children at school would have, even in this age, any substantial support. It should never be forgotten, however, that the State in its schools always does more than to merely provide for the intellectual training of its children. Every year of school influence should add to the child's power of self-control, because a wise restraint of children always leads to a wise self-control. "And the habits of neatness, regularity, and order that are begun in the tender years of childhood are strengthened by a prolonged effort through the additional time gained by early admission to school."

It is therefore in the interest of the general community that children, especially in the crowded districts of cities whose population is mainly of the poorer people, be admitted to school at the age of five years.

It would not be profitable to enter at this time into any discussion as to the relative value of the differing and diverging opinions held by followers of Froebel as to the best means of adaptation and application of kindergarten principles. While many enthusiastic followers of Froebel at times claim that kindergarten methods are applicable all through the school life of the child, and seek in reality to have the rest of the world change its modes of life and modes of thought, that they may be in harmony with what they hold to be the doctrines of Froebel, the more thoughtful representatives of the new education merely seek to graft the principles of kindergarten instruction upon the school life of the child, that these principles may indirectly modify the present system of instruction. In consequence of this belief, the latter class of kindergartners hold tenaciously to the opinion that there are limits beyond which kindergarten instruction cannot be pushed without damage to the child. Indeed, the results obtained in a Western city after an experience of nearly

twenty years with kindergartens, where children were not admitted at an early age, would seem to leave grave doubts as to the net value of kindergartens, under such limitation, as an element of intellectual growth. Some of the most prominent kindergarten teachers in this country do not hesitate to ascribe the apparent negative results obtained in that city to the fact that children are not admitted to the kindergartens until they have reached the age of six years, after the most modifiable period of a child's life has to a great extent been outgrown, and have, therefore, concluded that the time from the age of six to seven in the life of a child was not suitable to the best and highest kindergarten training. If there be a limit upward beyond which kindergarten training may not be safely pushed, it would seem possible, also, that there is a limit below which kindergarten instruction may not be profitably placed.

The kindergarten philanthropists and amateur kindergartners, whose tender hearts are filled with love for little children, but who have never studied in detail the physiological grounds upon which the kindergarten rests, nor the aims to be reached by the new education, doubtless see no limits below which kindergarten training may not be pushed. To them it seems as if the principles of Froebel, properly applied, would mean a complete regeneration and upbuilding of the race; because it makes it possible, in their view, to substitute for debased and vicious and unwise and careless and shiftless maternal care, the wisest and best and most careful training. In other words, in their eyes it affords the opportunity, possibility, and certainty for giving those children who have not the advantages of educated, cultivated, and refined mothers, a foster-motherhood in the shape of carefully trained teachers in the kindergarten, who are to eradicate the ills that this uncultivated childhood is heir to, and thus, in fact, give every child the same opportunity for development that the more carefully nurtured child of cultivated parents possesses. Like all amateur physicians, they seek to prescribe a remedy for the ills and evils of society without diagnosing the causes which have led to the growth and development of these ills. But to the more thoughtful, their chances of success are not greater than the chances of cure for diseases held out by any of the venders of patent cure-alls.

Indeed, the proposed plan reminds one of that adopted by the Turkish Government in the Middle Ages to develop that famous branch of their military service known as the Janizaries. One child in every five of the Christian population living in the Sultan's dominions was taken away by force from the parents and sent off into a different part of the empire, carefully drilled and trained in all of the elements which seemed to look toward the upbuilding of a perfect physical manhood, and when they reached the age of eighteen they were gathered together in this branch of the military service as soldiers of the Sultan. Their characteristics are known to the world: they were obedient to the state, cold and callous

to the sufferings of others, and as pure children of the state were always ready to do the bidding of their master in the most expeditious and mechanical manner. It would be both interesting and profitable, at this stage of our discussion, to have before us some statement as to the comparative effects upon child-life and child nature, of the substitution of even such an agency as that of a well-regulated and efficient orphan asylum for the training of a less than average home. But no investigator has yet given to the world the results of his investigations into this comparatively unknown region.

History has presented us with some parallels, which, however, are not sufficiently near us to be studied in the proper spirit, nor with much hope of being able to arrive at any satisfactory conclusion. Of course the well-known kindergarten axiom, of return after separation, makes a compensation here for some of these ills, if the child be not too young. Nature has fixed many periods in the early child-life when divorce from the mother means an increased difficulty in raising the child to maturity. Up to an age more or less certain, the child does not feel the need of any companion or playmate, and he is as much the companion of his mother as he was before he acquired the power of self-locomotion.

Any observer of the development of child-life must have noticed the ease with which young children amuse themselves, and the simple devices which chain their attention during this era, when they are growing away from the side of physical union with the mother. At this period, the child not only does not care for other playmates or for the outside world, but resents in an unmistakable manner any attempt to divorce him from his mother, or to take him out of her sight or out of her immediate vicinity. After a time, however, the period arrives when a child longs for other children, and desires more or less definitely to separate himself from his mother, and to go out upon the world which his growing vision sees spread out before him. This epoch marks a more thoughtful period, and the beginning of the era at which kindergarten training should begin. While varying in different children, it is very rare to find this epoch of separation developed before the child reaches the age of four and a half years, and oftener it is at some point between the ages of four and a half and five years of age. Before this age the child has not developed sufficiently on the mental side to make it profitable to begin kindergarten instruction. Therefore, if children are to be gathered into a State school at the early age of three, and until they are four and a half or five years of age, the pattern of school must be after the type of the French maternal or the English infant schools ; which schools are radically different from, and indeed subversive of the ideas which lie at the basis of, kindergarten training. For, primarily, the end sought in the maternal and infant schools is the early development in the pupils of these schools of the power to take care of themselves—the teaching of language, let-

ters, and numbers, that the children may be able to acquire knowledge the more rapidly and certainly, during the short interval of time before they must go out upon the world to become bread-winners, than would otherwise fall to their lot if they were kept out of school and on the streets until they reached the age of six; while the kindergarten, on the other hand, seeks to keep the child in the realm of developing ideas, and, therefore, postpones the teaching of the alphabet, and the practical side of school life, until a later time. In fact, the kindergarten, in its development, seeks to provide for the period of infancy by lengthening the time from infancy to maturity, while the infant and maternal schools seek to shorten that time. This will mean, briefly stated, that if the State undertakes the care of children between the ages of three and six, two distinct types of schools will be necessary in order to properly provide for and educate these children.

These infant and maternal schools also presuppose a division of the population into classes, and the existence of a duty on the part of the so-called upper classes to take care of and provide for the children of the lower classes. This tendency makes these schools pauper schools, the support of which, in a free State, must be left to the fostering care of philanthropic private enterprise. As such, therefore, the State should not be called upon to attend to the education of children below the school age, who are between the ages of three and four and a half years.

On the contrary, as the kindergartners propose to enlarge and widen the scope of training for all children of the State, by lengthening the period of infancy, and thus extending the period of growth and usefulness, the State should provide facilities and means for the education of children below the school age, who are between the ages of four and one half and six years.

There are, however, grave difficulties in the way of providing proper facilities for kindergarten training, even after all legislative and constitutional objections have been swept away.

I believe it is a generally conceded fact, by authorities on the kindergarten, that the greatest good derived from kindergarten instruction comes to the children who belong to the poorer and the wealthier classes. In nearly all the addresses and reviews upon this subject, great stress is laid upon this phase of the results of kindergarten training, but usually the authorities are silent as to the benefits to be derived by the children of the great middle class, who more than ever are called upon to bear the increased burdens of taxation.

The development of urban life in this generation seems to have brought forward conditions which point to our large cities as the localities which are especially favorable for kindergarten training. These same large cities, where people live faster and mature quicker, are exactly the places where the training of the kindergarten would have its greatest scope and most favorable results.

By a singular irony, however, these large cities—I mean those cities having a population of 100,000 and upwards—which would be so greatly benefited by the establishment of kindergartens for the education of children below school age, have their resources taxed to the utmost to provide accommodations for the education of children who are, under present regulations, entitled to attend school.

In the large majority of these cities in the West, it is only possible to provide suitable schoolhouses for the shelter of the children of age, by the issue of bonds, and the consequent laying of burdens upon the population that is growing up to care for the necessities of the present. And in one typical Western city, which I have in mind, it is estimated that it will take seven years' time before the school authorities can, with the large means at their command, provide suitable accommodations for the children who are clamoring for admission to school. And if rumor is to be credited, none of the larger Eastern cities are yet able to say that they are ready and able to take care of all the children who are now entitled under the law to demand the benefits of the common schools.

On this side of preparation for the physical necessities of the kindergarten, it may be said that a proper room for kindergarten purposes should be nearly twice as large as the ordinary schoolroom, and that the furniture needed in such a room will cost about as much as that required to equip an ordinary primary schoolroom. From the experience of other cities, it may be assumed that a suitable building for kindergarten purposes may be erected for about $3,000, and that such a building will accommodate sixty pupils—one-half of whom may attend in the morning, and one-half in the afternoon—and that the cost of proper kindergarten instruction is about double that of the instruction now given in primary schools.

This item of expense may be largely reduced if the children are turned over to the tender mercies of inexperienced assistants, who are to get their practical training at the expense of the children placed in their charge. But the experience of localities where this plan has been tried has not been encouraging. The figures given out by the census authorities show, approximately, that to extend the school age down to four and one half years would add about twenty per cent. to the school enrollment, and probably fifteen per cent. to the average daily attendance, and increase running expenses twenty-five per cent.

In almost any one of these cities mentioned, such an increase of expenditure would produce very great complications, and perhaps cause a recurrence to the device which saved the kindergartens in a Western city ; viz., the voting of a reduction of ten per cent. in salaries of teachers who were employed in the primary, grammar, and high schools.

Again, in the effort to establish kindergartens, we always encounter the same old prejudices with which conservatism combats every reform. For

instance, there is probably no one branch in the common-school curriculum, the mastery of which to a greater or less degree offers such increased remuneration to the laborer or artisan, as drawing ; and yet in most school systems it requires constant pressure to prevent the children who would be the most benefited by drawing from dropping the study on account of prejudice against the new departure from both parents and pupils.

It is so with the kindergarten. If entrance to the kindergarten and the primary school is equally free to pupils, fully fifty per cent. will elect to pass by the superior prospective advantages of the kindergarten training, for the more alluring immediate practical information and power given by the primary school.

It is possible that this conservatism on the part of the people arises from the new presentation of an old conflict. The State desires to educate its children in order that they may ultimately be worth more to themselves and indirectly to the State. The parent desires to educate his child in such a way and to such an extent as may the sooner relieve him from the burdens of the child's support, and thus indirectly assist himself in his battle with the world.

The one side reiterates the old statement of the indebtedness of children to parents. The other preaches the new dispensation of the indebtedness of parents and the State to children, who have no voice relative to their entrance into the world, and thus are entitled to the utmost consideration from both parents and the State.

This conflict comes up in many forms in the efforts to enforce the compulsory school law, where at times great suffering results from the forced attendance of young children at school, who are really the only support of a bereaved family. And it came to the surface quite often in England, early in the present century, when, in the laudable efforts of the government to collect the taxes assessed as poor rates, reputable and industrious people were reduced to the condition of paupers by having their belongings seized and sold to support the idle and shiftless who were already in the almshouse.

Fortunately in this age the exemptions from seizure of the implements with which a man gains a livelihood, and the exemption from taxation of a minimum amount of household furniture, have prevented the recurrence of many of these distressing scenes.

And, as it is, this conservatism is really of service to us in our efforts to establish a system of kindergarten instruction, because it largely reduces the prospective immediate demands upon our resources, enabling us to make a beginning with a comparatively small amount of money. This conservatism also materially assists us upon another side. It may be doubted whether a greater calamity could befall the kindergarten than to have each one of twenty large cities begin to equip and maintain a system of kindergartens inadequate for the needs of each of them ; for the reason,

that this would necessitate the employment of a large number of teachers, who are unfitted by nature, and wanting on the side of correct practice and theory. It may well be doubted whether the kindergarten has not already suffered much more in the public estimation from the establishment of kindergartens all over the land, under charge of incompetent teachers, who emphasize the side of games and play, to the exclusion of the "occupations" and "gifts," than from unfriendly critics. Therefore, this conservatism of the people reacting will have a tendency to make it easier to establish kindergartens in a given locality, and thus make it possible to secure competent teachers and better results.

There is another phase of this subject, however, which always has made and always will make difficulty in the way of taking advantage of this conservatism of the people relative to the gradual establishment of kindergartens in any given community. I refer to the efforts and agitation of kindergarten enthusiasts, and people who are alive to the advantages of the kindergarten, toward the locating of kindergartens in their immediate community. This discussion always develops the fact that a board of education, acting for all the people, cannot consistently and legally establish kindergartens for the avowed purpose of improving the instruction given in the schools in such a way as to favor any one class of people or any particular locality, and ignore the wishes of other classes of people and other localities. There is still another phase of the question which may be touched upon here ; viz., that as it is, as I conceive it, the duty of the State to hold fast to the organization of the present primary schools, for the functions therein contained, the problem which will always present itself for solution, is how to harmonize and adapt the kindergarten and the primary school to conserve the best interests of the children who pass through these departments. To this end, the State should carefully guard the interests of the children in the kindergarten, and not delegate the control of such an adjunct to the schools to any separate body or organization, and not allow any supervisor of kindergarten instruction to lose sight of this necessity for so arranging the outcome of instruction that it will fit into the primary school.

Although the development of the kindergarten, both at home and abroad, has been provokingly slow, and indeed discouraging to those who have fought its battles in season and out, there is one redeeming element in the fact that public interest is continually growing in the right direction, and it is significant that there are few educators of the present day who do not see the need, while holding fast to the functions of the primary school, to still further broaden the work of primary education by adding to the analytic side of the primary school the sympathetic side of the kindergarten. To this end it is fitting that kindergartens be established in all communities where the law permits the attendance of children at the age of five years, and where the establishment of such kindergartens

will not interfere with the education of children above that age. In such States as limit the age of children attending school to those above the age of six years, it would seem that kindergartens at public expense are not profitable or feasible. In such States the real friends of kindergartens should confine their attention to the necessary agitation that will secure such modification of existing legislation as will reduce the school age to four and a half or five years.

DISCUSSION.

SUPT. CURTIS, of New Haven, Conn., took the chair, and announced that the next thing in order would be the discussion of Mr. Fitzpatrick's paper.

SUPT. GOVE: I should like to say something, if I could, to prevent what I seem to see before me, a great dispersion of this discussion within the next hour and a half in this way—the presentation of the claims and advantages of kindergarten instruction. If I understand the purposes of the committee and the temper of this paper to which I have just listened, they are to teach us or tell us, who have come up here for that purpose, how certain objects may be accomplished, we accepting and conceding, without time being taken to-day to demonstrate it, that the kindergarten has an existence through the efforts of its first promoters; and that this education is exceedingly desirable, more than desirable, and important; and that we, as superintendents and teachers, desire its introduction and use in every city and State of the country. The paper has shown to us some of the obstacles which are to be surmounted; and now, Mr. President, I trust the Chair will hold those who follow in this discussion to that point of the work, instead of allowing the presentation of the claims of an institution which is so popular, and which has already gained that which it deserves—enthusiastic support and assistance in almost all parts of our land. We are confronted to-day with this problem: Here is something so excellent and desirable, it would seem that we must have it; we need it in our school. How shall we get it? Gentlemen and ladies are here who have it already. It is their duty to tell us how they succeeded in getting it, and how they are progressing with the work. First, the paper presented to us the financial problem. I regard the statutory provisions as unworthy of attention. There is no legislature which can be induced to prevent the efficiency of public education. There is no legislature, from the State of California to the State of Massachusetts, that will not enact laws which will advance the cause of education. That does away with statutory obstacles. According to the statement which the

paper gives in regard to the increase of the enrollment in the schools, if I remember aright, fourteen per cent. of the enrollment in the schools are children five years old, fifteen per cent. are four years old, and eighteen per cent. are three years old. Accepting the proposition that those three years old need not be counted, and that those three and a half years old need not be counted, that makes a material increase, does it not, in the expenditure of the schools? Therefore I conclude that to be the first problem for discussion here. Can we persuade the people to increase, or are they willing to increase, the present school expenditure from fifteen to twenty-five per cent. in order that we may, as we believe, return to them its value by lowering the school age and educating the young people? Can that be done? Now, we read in the press that several cities already have public kindergartens. It is true that what we read most about are the private kindergartens. I have a sort of notion that the only real, good, beautiful, and efficient kindergartens to-day are those private kindergartens which are managed by intelligent administrators backed by the purses of powerful financial friends.

The difficulty of expense being overcome, it would seem that if we should at once proceed with the introduction of the kindergarten, another obstacle would appear in the proposition to furnish to a portion of the people of the city kindergarten schools, while another portion of the people of the same city, and under the same administration, is suffering from lack of adequate school accommodation. If Philadelphia, that we saw a year ago, has founded public kindergarten schools—Mr. McAllister said it had—it is a question with some of us in the far West what defense can be made for providing kindergartens in some wards, and saying to the children in the other ward (there are two hundred and fifty children in it) We will have to give you quite inferior accommodation and inferior teaching. What defense can we make? How did the superintendent and the boards of education take care of themselves on that problem? A third thought has occurred to me, which seems to be, and I believe it is, a greater one than either of the others. To revert, however, for one moment to the last thought. It may have been said, and could have been said two or three years ago, that all enterprises can be begun in a small way; try an experiment with the kindergarten, and show the people how desirable a thing it is. Now the experimental age is past. Every one is satisfied with the desirable things in the kindergarten. Some in our profession are spending their time on this question. It is nonsense, in my mind, to give that part of the discussion a moment's thought. The people are all ready for the kindergarten. But the third great trouble that I refer to is the material to place upon the teachers' platform. Now, in reply to that, the average superintendent of the city is informed that the material for kindergarten instruction is as plentiful as was the material for unskilled instruction fifty years ago. Therefore, as there must be a

beginning to all things, these obstacles that have presented themselves may be, if they have not already been, overcome. The administration of our schools, we were told yesterday, depended largely upon the teachers. We have been told so a great many thousand times, until we really believe it. The best school that any one of us has seen has had the best teachers. With kindergarten instruction, the number of teachers necessary in order to make the establishment a success must be more largely in proportion to the pupils than the ratio is in the primary and grammar grades. I present to this gathering these thoughts, and trust that the limitation I suggest will be heeded. The most important problem to us now is not the merits of the kindergarten, not the desirability even of giving earlier instruction in the public schools at the public expense, in charge of well-administered public school systems, but how shall the obstacles, as presented in the paper before us, be overcome, that the public kindergarten may be established as a part of our public school system? [Applause.]

THE CHAIR: Accepting the suggestions of the speaker, you will continue the discussion as to ways and means for the removal of the obstacles.

SUPT. SEAVER, of Boston: I am not on the programme, Mr. President, but I want to say a word. I feel very much as if I wanted to write a paper, and that paper would give to you the history of the introduction of the kindergarten in the city of Boston. We have in that city now 33 of them, containing about 2,000 pupils. In other words, one-third of the children are between three and a half and four and a half years of age. Our limit of age, however, is from three and a half years to five. Now, accepting the limitations which have just been laid down by the last speaker, for I must speak but a moment, I will say there is just one way in which the financial difficulties can be removed, and that is by means of an object lesson long enough continued to convince the people that every dollar that goes into the payment for kindergarten instruction is a dollar better expended than any other dollar in the whole school expense. [Applause.] That practical demonstration by means of an object lesson was given in my city, as is well known, by Mrs. Quincy A. Shaw, whose labors in behalf of the kindergarten are well known, and whose generous purse enabled her to carry out her plans. About fifteen years ago an experimental kindergarten was started in Boston, and it flourished a little, and it dwindled a little, and then it died. But it did not die without a resurrection. [Applause.] Mrs. Shaw took that kindergarten, told the teachers to go on and she would pay them. Then she added another and another, until in the course of ten years she had established in the city sixteen kindergartens, well provided with able teachers whom she had taken pains to have instructed by kindergartners the best the country could produce. These kindergartens were established in the

primary school rooms. Whenever the school board decided to increase the number of school buildings, Mrs. Shaw got a room if she could and established a kindergarten. Then it came to be a serious question whether the school committee should adopt those kindergartens from the date of their establishment in the city and pay the salaries and other expenses. The impression still prevails in parts of the city, where those kindergartens have been established, that they were part of the public school system. I well remember the surprise of some of the members of the Common Council with whom I had interviews, when they were informed that those kindergartens had been supported wholly by private charity and not at all by public money, except so far as the rental of the school-rooms was concerned. They didn't know it. They thought they had been supported by the public school committee for a number of years. When I told them that it was not so, they said there should not be any more difficulty in getting the money for them. I said : "You convince a few more members of the Common Council, and there will be none."

A Voice : Is that in Boston ?

Supt. Seaver : Yes, that is in Boston. I grant that it sounds a little like New York. [Applause and laughter.] We want you to come down there and see what they are like. Well, to finish my story, we wanted $20,000 added to our regular school appropriation in order to adopt the kindergarten and pay the expense of the rooms and the material for the children ; and although the Common Council thought it was in a narrow financial condition, that $20,000 came as easily as a five dollar bill would come out of Judge Draper's pocket if I were short of money and wanted to get home. There has been no trouble in getting the money since—no difficulty at all.

The kindergarten now is the most popular part of our educational system. The number of kindergartens has increased from 17 to 33. They contain a large number of children, and they are under the instruction of skilled kindergartners—not green girls who are learning the art at the expense of the children, but skilled hands—those who have received instruction for a year and a half in the normal school, and a half year's tuition in the special instruction necessary for the art of kindergartning. Now, an object lesson, if it can be established and maintained long enough, will, I believe, convince the people in any city that the money necessary for the kindergartens should be voted it, whether any other money is voted for school instruction or not. One other point and I am done. Reference was made to the condition of legislation in Massachusetts. We are very fortunate, for we never have had a lower limit for the school age. The statute of Massachusetts provides that every child has the right to attend school in the town or city where he resides. A few years ago a question arose, involving the payment of a large sum of money, upon the meaning of the

word "child" in the statutes. It was concluded that the school age in Massachusetts was from five to fifteen years, and that that should constitute the definition of the word child. It turned out that that is not a limitation—that the school age does not define a child. Then it was contended that the compulsory education age, 8 years to 14, should define a child. It was proved then that that is not the school age. The court finally held that the word child meant any human being from the age of one hour to the age of 21 years, and practically this is the position now, and always has been. Any child, however young, may be admitted into school by the rules established by the school committee of the town. Boston at one time established four years as the proper time for admission into the primary schools. Later it provided that five years should be the limit. Still more lately it has admitted to the kindergarten children as young as three and a half years. There is no legal obstacle in the way, if the school committee should decide to-morrow to admit into school children of the age of one year or one month, to prevent such a thing. There is absolutely no limitation. That construction has been established by a recent decision of the Supreme Court, in a case I could cite if I had access to the books. The first step is to get rid of the constitutional limitation, or rather get rid of the statutory limitation, and admit children of all ages to the schools, which must have the kindergarten in time.

SUPT. SABIN, of Iowa: I see that Miss Harrison, who is the superintendent of the kindergarten college of Chicago, is here. I think it would be well to have her tell us something about the kindergarten.

MISS ELIZABETH HARRISON: I thank you, gentlemen, for the privilege of standing before you to-day. I wanted to make a reply to, or some comments upon, Mr. Fitzpatrick's paper, and although I have not a manuscript, I have brought headings from which I wish to speak. In the first place Mr. Fitzpatrick spoke of the difficulties which might arise in connection with the training of children under three years of age —the early difficulties. It seems to me that we, as educators of the nation, should take more into consideration the education of the mothers of the children. And I know that the influence of the teachers in this direction particularly may have and can have much to do toward making the average mother feel that there is much yet for her to learn. In our own city of Chicago, we have about 2,000 mothers of the educated class studying kindergarten principles as applied to home work. We have this last year started a number of classes in the poorer districts of the city for the mothers of the children that are in the free kindergartens of Chicago. And we find it an enormous help to us. We find it also a great revelation of the earnestness and the interest and the loyal intelligence of the class of women ordinarily known as the char-women of the city. It seems to me

that when this great subject of kindergartens is properly understood, it means the study of human nature and how to develop it so that the mother classes will grow spontaneously; that is, that the kindergarten will have its own class of mothers. The next point which Mr. Fitzpatrick makes, which I heartily indorse, is that the kindergarten class should have but sixty children—thirty at a time—thirty in the morning and thirty in the afternoon. My one fear is that there would be a tendency to crowd too many children into the room. If the children are subdivided into morning and afternoon classes, that will do away with the necessity for two rooms. The rooms you have here in New York and Brooklyn would be sufficiently large for all practical purposes for a kindergarten of thirty children. The third point is that generally there is too high an estimate given, too large an idea of the expense connected with the kindergarten. I have just been informed by Felix Adler of New York, who is thoroughly familiar with the workings of the kindergarten, and who has watched its progress with great interest, that there are 100 children in a private kindergarten and the material used by them during the year costs only $0.50 a year per pupil.

SUPT. POWELL, of Washington: Will the lady permit a question right here? Does the one teacher attend the forenoon and afternoon classes?

MISS HARRISON: That would depend upon that individual teacher's physique. If she was as strong as she ought to be, she should; otherwise she should not. I thank you for your question. I have come here to-day with a very earnest heart and a very burning desire to help one kindergarten, and I beg aid of your State Superintendents in this matter, because our fate rests in your hands largely—not altogether. [Applause.] We are going to have the thing, whether you can help us or not.

The next point Mr. Fitzpatrick touched upon was that concerning the influence of teachers. I would indorse and emphasize that, but I would say, in continuing the matter, that the mother element so strong in the heart of every true woman—that mother element which brings the woman into sympathetic touch with the little child—will do much to obviate difficulties and make atonement for many other defects. In Chicago we require three years' training before we send our young ladies out as fitted for kindergarten instruction.

The next point which I would like to speak upon is that of having special studies for the kindergarten. Any true kindergartner, beginning with the cradle and going to old age, would do what she could to coöperate with the after-life of the school. If there is allowed in the public schools a special superintendent of drawing and music and physical culture, and other things—which I believe is allowed in our schools—why should there not be a special supervisor or superintendent of this very important branch of the educational system known as the kindergarten?

Now my last point is this: I got an impression from Mr. Fitzpatrick's paper, contrary to the impression which I had previously of his belief on the subject. I may be mistaken in my impression; that is, as to the importance of the games and the plays. I understood the paper contended that a great many people could go in and see the children at their games and plays, but when they came to ask the children as to the needs of the occupation and of the materials used they could not answer them. The play circle is the center. The child begins with the passive period—the period of infancy; the receptive period—the period when environment is all-important. I could tell you many, many things which have been called to my attention in connection with the little tots who come into the kindergarten, if I had time. Then comes the creative period, which calls for a spontaneous expression of what is within the child. Then later on comes the school period of the child. The true kindergartner takes the child out of himself. I use that in the broad sense of preparing him for life. If education means anything at all worthy of the life-work at which it aims, it means that process of training by which a human being leads, hereafter, a nobler and a more rational and better life, and which helps him to meet the problem of life better than he could without this education. I think it is proper to speak of this preparatory play. Ralph Waldo Emerson said that in music there were certain things no man hesitated to buy. I think of the kindergarten the same can be said, and I shall quote here in support of that statement the willingness of the Boston school board to spend $20,000 for it. In the play circle the child is trained by his gifts—trained intellectually by the powers of observation, trained by the powers of judging and contrasting the things he sees; his memory and imagination and creative powers are trained, he learns occupation; his love of the beautiful is trained. And then, I say, in the play circle of the kindergarten comes the prominent and all-important element of understanding his or her relationship in life. He is taught to bear and forbear. He is taught his own place among others in life, his significance and insignificance in the world. We not only develop the child's muscles by the plays, and train him concerning the materials he has, but by the actual handling of the materials and his use of them. We begin his training in preparation of what is to follow later, his understanding of them to the relationship to life. We begin with birds and bird life, and the father and mother and the little baby birds, and in a thousand and one ways, by means of songs and stones, and particularly games, in which he imitates these little things, usually captives in a cage, he is gradually led into an understanding of the family relationship. We have a little game called the "birds' nests," in which four or five little bird children may represent the baby birds. Here they are flying off into the air while the mamma bird is training them how to fly. On one occasion I stopped the game. I said: "Alfred, what kind of

a papa bird have you here, I would like to know ? Why are you not helping mamma to teach the babies ?" He turned his head to one side and said : "Why, I got the worms for them." [Laughter.] I do not know whether you think Alfred was in the right.

Yes, I said to him, "But, Alfred, don't you think you ought to help teach the little baby birds to fly ?" The little fellow looked up to me and was not quite sure of my views. So I turned to the class for public opinion and said : "What do you think about this ?" Instantly the whole class decided yes, that he ought to help teach them to fly. Then we had very little trouble with the fathers after that.

I will give you another illustration. Our system believes in coöperation and coeducation, and equality of men and women, but in different spheres and in different ways. Another time we were playing the blacksmith's game. Two little girls were chosen to do their part of the game, and two little boys were to be the blacksmiths. The little boys were pounding on their anvils, and blowing the fire, and attending to the vari ous duties in connection with a blacksmith's shop. One little girl entered heartily into the spirit of the game. The other little girl, dressed in velvet and plush, seated herself off a little way and seemed indifferent. "Why," I said, "Beatrice, I am afraid you won't have any dinner ready when Charles comes home for it." She gave a haughty toss of her head and replied : "My mamma does not cook dinners." The dinner hour came ; the blacksmiths washed their hands and started for their homes. Then I said : "Beatrice has no dinner for the tired and hungry blacksmiths." With that, Charles walked over to the house of the other little girl, where he found a nice dinner awaiting him. The next time Beatrice played she did her part of the household work. [Applause.] Little by little they gain the knowledge of what is to be required of them in the future. The little girl learns what her duty is in the home ; the boy, what is expected in that sort of trade. Later on in the year, we begin to lead these children into the knowledge that the blacksmith's children must have shoes to wear, and the carpenter's children must have bread to eat, and the blacksmith's wife must have clothes to wear, and the blacksmith must have his tools, and so on through all the avenues of trade and necessities for them which have grown up into the world of civilization.

We take the children at different times to the carpenter's shop, the shoe shop, and the tailor shop, so that they can see the men at their work, and come back to the class-rooms and imitate them the better. I shall never forget the lesson a dear little five-year-old girl gave me on one occasion. We brought a scissors-grinder into the room in order that the children might see how he patted his foot, and how he made his wheel go, and what he did in sharpening the knives or scissors. When he had finished sharpening the scissors I paid him his charge, and he was going out of the room, when the little girl looked up into my eyes and said : "Why, you for-

got to thank him, too." [Laughter and applause.] The little girl had been playing scissors-grinder at one time. She had had it indelibly impressed upon her that courtesy, as well as wages, was due. A lesson in the question of capital and labor, which can well be taught the citizens of Brooklyn and New York, is that the laborer is worthy of a courteous word as well as wages earned. [Applause.] I want to say, here is one of the necessities which we cannot afford to do without. Later on in the year these trade activities are connected with advanced life. We have to be served by policemen who will protect the carpenter's home, the blacksmith's shop, the shoe store, and the corner grocery. Then we show what firemen are for, how they put out fires in the homes of the people, and then we get up to where the children learn of the heroes of all nations who have sacrificed home and family and prosperity for the sake and honor of their country; and if you could see, as I have seen, twenty-five, thirty, and forty little ones, calling themselves Swedes and Germans, and nihilists and anarchists, marching in our kindergarten with their swords drawn and their banners flying, and understanding what it all meant, you would think of the importance of State relationship to this matter, and the necessity for this kindergarten education for the little ones three, four, and five years of age. [Applause.] It was this point particularly that I wanted to emphasize.

Later on we come to the universal relationship, or the church relationship. That means the common brotherhood of all mankind, for without that relationship it is not worthy the name. We cannot say with truth "Our Father who art in Heaven" until we can say our brother who is on earth. [Applause.] I have taken more time than I should, but it was with the feeling that if we were to amalgamate this great nation for all that is good and dear to us, for the elevation of the human race in general, I know of no way in which this solid foundation can be cemented together for a higher national life, which begins with the child in its infancy, better than this agency which trains him to realize the different pledges of life, that teaches him that which makes all the difference between the savage and the civilized world. It is for this great realization that we take so long a time to prepare our students for the work of teaching. It seems to me that we should have a supervisor of this department, for not only are the skilled hand and brain and earnest heart required in this work, but philosophic views of life; and I earnestly appeal to you, gentlemen, not to put off the day of considering the subject of the kindergarten as the foundation of the great public school system of America, which is the bulwark of our nation. [Applause.]

WHAT CAN BE DONE TO BRING PUPILS FURTHER ON IN THEIR STUDIES BEFORE THEY LEAVE SCHOOL TO GO TO WORK?

BY CHARLES W. HILL, PRESIDENT MASSACHUSETTS SCHOOLMASTERS' CLUB, BOSTON.

THE topic assumes the existence of a class of pupils whose school life is made undesirably short, with school acquirements correspondingly meager, by some real or supposed necessity for exchanging the work of the school for those forms of activity in which the pupil becomes a wage-earner. The assumption is all too well founded. I have not thought it necessary or desirable to inflict statistical tables bearing upon this matter upon a body of men who, of necessity, spend so large a part of their lives at such tables, and whose requests for material therefor, addressed to the busy workers in the schoolrooms, sometimes sound the knell of cherished plans for rest or recreation.

Boston is not below the average of her sister cities in holding her pupils through the grammar course. By the report of Supt. Seaver on this matter it appears that less than three-eighths of those who enter our grammar schools finish the course and graduate, the other five-eighths falling out before reaching the end.

Assuming that these proportions are fairly representative, and assuming that a child should at least finish the grammar course before leaving school for work, we realize something of the great importance of the subject before us. It is not a matter affecting a few of our pupils only, but is of great importance to large numbers of those who for a longer or shorter time may be connected with our schools. A discussion of this topic is especially timely, in view of the attention which is being turned toward the work of the elementary schools by the criticisms and propositions of the New England Association of Colleges, which you heard so ably and skillfully presented last evening. Some of these propositions are wise and have been for some time in practice in our best schools. All are put forth in good faith and with an evident desire to benefit the schools.

It is unfortunate that their authors lack experimental knowledge of what is now being done in our elementary schools, and of the average ability of the pupils instructed in them.

Beautiful theories, which seem unassailable, sometimes need consider-

able adjustment to facts and possibilities when the light of a personal experience is thrown upon them.

These changes are proposed from the standpoint of the college; I do not say in the avowed interest of the college, for that would not be true. Still, there seems to be an easily traced and perfectly natural and proper anxiety, on the part of these distinguished educators, that our school courses should face the bright boys and girls toward the doors of the college. Almost of necessity, we look at the world from our own standpoint, and in weighing opinions this fact should be kept in mind.

The naturalist sees in a tree an opportunity to explore the mysteries of secretion and growth, the poet and the painter see a thing of beauty and a perpetual joy, and a woodman sees so many cords of wood. In judging what you are to do with the tree, and in taking advice, you need to know whether it is the poet or the woodman who gives it.

We all agree with the college presidents that as many of the bright boys and girls should take the college course as can spare the time, but only a very small minority do or can take it—one in fifty it is said. They agree with us that the supposed or real interest of the one must not be permitted to eclipse that of the many, especially as the one is usually, by endowment and surroundings, the one best able to care for himself.

It is particularly gratifying that this large and influential body of educators turn their thought, for a time, away from the fortunate and gifted to the less fortunate, less interesting, struggling majority; to those who, by force of circumstances or their own inertia, are deprived, or deprive themselves, of the benefits of a full course in our grammar schools.

In order to discuss intelligently the topic before us, we need to recall to mind some of the causes which take such pupils out of the schools, and also some of the reasons why the grammar course, or its equivalent, should be completed before school-days close. Among the causes which operate to shorten school-life the cupidity of the parents of some children has a prominent place. Owing, partly, to the suicidal laxity of our immigration laws, there is a large and increasing number of parents among us; not all of them of foreign birth, but sordid and alien in spirit, who are perfectly willing their children should grow up in ignorance, and even in vice, if only they may lazily stretch themselves in the sun while they continue their worthless and corrupting lives by means of the money earned, begged, or stolen by the poor unfortunates who are forced to call them parents. Such children in our large cities are often so employed as to evade the laws restricting the employment of child-labor, the cupidity of the parent being aided and abetted by the equally culpable cupidity of the employer, whom the sharp competitions of business have made blind and deaf to all considerations except the ratio of profit to cost.

Very far removed, in the intellectual and moral scale, from such parents as we have described, is another class whose children do not as a rule

complete the grammar course. They are the parents who have fallen behind in the race of life, a race so sharply contested that Carlyle says: "Woe to him who stops to tie his shoe-string." Having thus fallen behind, the tide of remunerative business goes by their doors, before which the wolf of an unrelenting poverty stands, till in desperation the child's schooling is sacrificed to help keep the family together and off the public charge.

There is still another class of parents who neither from cupidity nor poverty are dependent, but whose children early terminate their connection with the schools. They are the easy-going parents, who, having had few school advantages themselves, and having been able to make their own way fairly well without them, fail to appreciate the advantage to their children of at least as much as the grammar school can offer. Such parents, shut up in their little world like passengers in a railroad sleeper, fail to realize that the train of modern life is passing on with lightning speed into new and more intricate conditions, and that what answered for them in their day a very good purpose will leave their children as far behind in the ever sharpening competition of society, as that city would be which should now depend upon stage-coach connections with the outside world.

The children of such parents often hear so much about self-made men, who, while never having attended school more than a few weeks or months, have yet risen to the highest places, that the impression is sometimes left upon their minds that school preparation is no advantage, if it be not a real disadvantage, to the smart, enterprising fellow who "has it in him."

Such parents, or any others, would do well to teach their children that real force of character will enable them often to rise superior to circumstances, but a great harm is done when such lessons are so taught as to lead the child to despise those early school advantages which give such a tremendous start in the race of life. Often it is against the wishes and best judgment of the parent that school connection is broken. The lazy fellow drags himself out of school because it is too much of an effort to keep in sight of his mates who are willing to work. Then there are those at the other extreme, who scent the world's battle from afar, and long to be in it; who, intensely active, find the restraints of school and school work irksome; who look forward with an intense longing to the time when they shall be in business and go down-town with the men to do something manly. Then begin the pleadings to be allowed to leave school and go to work, until the too yielding parent succumbs, school connection ceases, and work begins. A short experience often dispels the illusion and turns the poetry of anticipation into the hard and grinding prose of realization. Then come bitter regrets, but school ties are broken, time has been lost, pride prevents a return to take one's place among younger associates in

school work ; and so the poorly equipped fellow, now conscious of his mistake, goes handicapped into the hard struggle, almost sure to fail of the highest success.

The long time required to work up in almost any good business, if destitute of influential help, very naturally leads many a boy, who would otherwise be glad to continue in school, to question whether he can afford the time.

But, while parents and pupils are justly to be held to responsibility in this matter, the teacher and the school authorities are not always without blame. Children, hungry for intellectual food, have held out their hands for bread, and we have sometimes given them stones ; they have asked for fish, and we have tried to persuade them that serpents were better. Happily the stones and the serpents are being removed from our bills of fare, and this reason for cutting short the school course no longer exists to the former extent.

The causes, then, which we find for the failure to hold some pupils in school as long as would be desirable exist in the cupidity, poverty, or easy indulgence of parents, the laziness or impatience of pupils, and the failure of the school, sometimes, to meet the needs of those who have no extra time to spare upon school work.

Let us now consider some of the reasons why it is important that ou pupils should be further along in their studies before they leave school to go to work ; why, if possible, they should complete the grammar course.

A reason, not of the greatest importance, is the moral power acquired by carrying to success what one begins. One of the most distinguished educators in Boston was asked if he did not intend to withdraw his sons from the grammar school and place them in the Latin school, where they could earlier begin their special preparation for college. His reply was : "No ! whatever course of study they begin, I intend they shall complete, and not acquire the habit of leaving one thing undone to begin another." Perhaps he was an extremist, but the habit he sought to form will be of very great value to his boys in the restless age in which they are to live. If it be unwise to leave a course of study unfinished in order to begin another, it certainly cannot be wise, except from absolute necessity, to leave it unfinished with no purpose of beginning another. It should be noted that a pupil, dropping out of a course of study before completing it, loses the most valuable part. If the course is one of six years, the loss of the last two years is the loss of more than a third, perhaps more than a half. It is in the beginning that the cost is most disproportionate to the result, whether it be in moving a railroad train, acquiring wealth, or mastering a course of study.

A very important reason for bringing pupils further along in their studies before they go to work appears in the growing necessity for

higher and higher degrees of intelligence to do successfully the ordinary work of life.

If it was ever necessary that there should be an ignorant, menial class to do contentedly the coarser and more disagreeable services necessary in a complex civilization, there is no such present necessity. The place of the unskilled laborer is being filled by machinery to a greater extent each year. Intelligence is needed to guide and manipulate these machines, themselves almost endowed with intelligence. Skilled labor is in demand, and will be more and more so as our country grows older, and the rougher work which newness involves disappears. There is danger in adding to the army of unskilled and unintelligent labor, either by native or foreign recruits. The danger approaching imminence is that those capable of performing only the rudest kinds of labor, and finding the demand for such labor disappearing, will not only be driven into crime and pauperism themselves, but, as tools in the hands of unscrupulous leaders, become a menace and peril to the body politic.

And this leads us, naturally, to notice the increasing necessity for intelligence, in order to perform aright the duties of citizenship. The tariff: shall it be protective or for revenue only? The coinage of silver: what will be the effect of its being unrestricted? The relation of capital and labor: how can each be made the most helpful to the other?—These and questions like these, now demanding serious thought and careful adjustment, are as far beyond the reach of one who has never been taught how to look for cause and effect, or to reason with any degree of correctness, as are the mountain tops to the child who lifts up his hands to them. The only part he can take is to follow his leader, and the leader he chooses is very apt to be a demagogue. The duties to the discharge of which the state has a right to call the citizen, from casting a ballot under the Australian system, and serving on a jury, to holding offices of trust and responsibility, cannot rightly be fulfilled by him who has had but little or no mental training. As the principles of a true civil service reform are carried out, he who lacks mental training will be more and more shut out from the public service, and rightly, too, though by natural endowment he might have been made ready to serve the state well in some line of effort for which he may have special aptitude.

There is one other reason, among many still unnamed, for advancing the pupil further in his studies before going to work, which is too important to be passed by unnoticed. It is the acquiring of power and inclination to use wisely the increasing hours of leisure resulting from the shortening work day. For the man who reads and thinks, who can keep company with the good and great of all ages, it is a priceless blessing to have some hours after the day's labor in which, with his family about him, he can commune with the past, study the problems of the present, explore the works of God, and grow into his likeness. But it is a ques-

tion whether it is a real advantage to that man who has no resources in himself or in his family, to have his work day shortened. Thoughtful observers are coming to look upon the lengthening time after work hours as a positive source of danger to the ignorant and thoughtless. They, finding the time drag, are easily tempted to turn to the saloon as a convenient meeting-place with kindred spirits, and to vicious sources for the excitement craved. We find, then, that we should carry our pupils further on in their studies—because of the moral power which comes from carrying to success that which is begun; because, for the times in which they are to live, a considerable degree of intelligence will be necessary for even the most ordinary work of life; because, otherwise, the duties of citizenship cannot rightly be performed; and because in no other way can they be prepared to make the best use of leisure time.

In considering what can be done to retain all the pupils of our elementary school till each shall have gotten as much out of the school as for him may be possible, it is evident help must come from without and from within. The state and the home must become allies of the school to accomplish the best results. One very helpful agency in accomplishing the work we are considering is the *kindergarten*, the duty of the state toward which you consider at this gathering. By means of this agency the school work and discipline may be extended downward into the unproductive years of the child's life. The kindergarten is proving itself capable of shortening ordinary school life a year; that is, before the age of five, that may be accomplished which will bring the child of eight as far along in his school work as an ordinary child of nine would be without these advantages. And this can be done not only at no risk to the child's physical well-being, but to his great advantage in that respect. Its work and play are so wisely planned, and so in accord with nature's ways, that the child is much better developed, physically, than he possibly could be if left to his own devices. He is happier to be occupied a part of the day with his teacher-playfellow, than when the whole day passes without regular occupation. It becomes a great joy to him to be able to see and do for himself, and he forms habits of observation, patient endeavor, and of being in right relations to those about him, which not only easily save him a year in the primary schools, but which also come to his aid all the way through his school life. Educators, interested in any department of school or college work, should rejoice that this helpful agency is so rapidly growing in usefulness and power just now when it is so much needed, not only in meeting the difficulty now under consideration, but also when its natural methods and true aims are so much needed in leavening the spirit of the work to be done all along the educational line. This association, and all educational organizations, should unite forces in helping to make the kindergarten an integral part of our school systems. It would be an agency for the accomplishment of

great good in any community, at any time; but with us, with our hurry and high pressure felt all through our school life and work, it becomes of especial importance to save that year of unproductive child life, especially as his physical and moral natures are both greatly benefited thereby.

As it is comparatively easy to hold pupils in school up to eleven or twelve, the lower part of the course of study, which very nearly all our pupils take with more or less thoroughness, should be made as rich as possible with those studies which will so interest as to help hold for future work. This is being done to a much greater extent than is realized in the higher educational circles. Nature studies can be made still more useful. Nothing elaborate should be attempted. The "R" studies should not be crowded out. But if the boy who does not memorize readily, or reason accurately, finds that what he knows about birds and stones, and what he has noticed about physical and chemical changes, are considered useful knowledge and give him a standing in the class, it will not be as easy as it otherwise would be to get that pupil out of school.

Something more than we have had of *manual training* is to play an important part in holding these short-time pupils in school. Attention has already been called to the fact that many children are withdrawn from school at an early age, because of the long time it takes to work up to a good position in almost any occupation; but if he is to work with his hands, here is a line of school work which must tend to shorten that long period. He sees that it must give him the lead in the race, and so he and his parents often come to regard it a great privilege for him to be able to remain where such preparation is possible. He may, and probably does, exaggerate the relative value of this part of the course of study; but, nevertheless, it holds him in the school, and so gives him time to get interested, also, in other lines of school work, as he finds that the more he knows along any line the more he is helped along every other. This is not mere theory. Manual training, where intelligently introduced, has already been found to have a decided influence in retaining these pupils who are so inclined to cut school life undesirably short. It doesn't make angels of them, nor does it always lead to brilliant scholarship; but it does help, in very many cases, in giving them an intelligent and hearty interest in school work.

Something more of flexibility in our courses of study is desirable. There are classes in some of our city schools in which, on entering, not a pupil can talk or understand English. We are sometimes asked, in a triumphant sort of way, "Can't American schools do for their pupils what German or French schools do for theirs?" Now the German teacher sits down before his pupils, all German, with German type of mind and German traditions, and makes his pupils good Germans. We do more than he does: out of divergent and antagonistic races we are making *a new race*, and it ill becomes one to minimize the value of the work. Such

classes are clearly outside of any ordinary course of study. But, in less extreme cases, there are topics of study which are desirable for pupils who are to continue some years in school, which are less desirable for those who, presumably, are to enter early upon the weary struggle for bread. Such topics can be dropped out for these pupils, thus gaining time for the work of highest importance to them as individuals and future citizens. A pupil thus situated will be able to keep well abreast of his class in the work he does undertake, his self-respect will be raised, and he will the more easily be retained in the membership of the school.

This differentiation in the course of study should operate not only to retain longer in school those who are in danger of leaving to go to work, but also in retaining in the elementary schools, while they properly belong there, the pupils who are now drawn out to prepare for higher courses of study. There need be but few changes to meet the wants of both extremes. By far the larger part of what the elementary schools can or should offer is equally needed at both ends of the line.

To reach most effectively these children who are in danger of continuing but a short time in school, requires an individualism in teaching and molding which is not possible to the extent necessary, while a teacher has as large a number of pupils as in this grade is now generally required. In Harvard College the ratio of pupils to instructors is seven to one. In Boston the average number of pupils to a teacher in the grammar grades is fifty-two. By rule it is fifty-six. Give the grammar schools the same proportionate teaching force that Harvard College has, and I am not sure that the teachers would not only take all the new studies recommended, but stuff the poor children with Greek and Hebrew to keep *themselves out of mischief*. In the story of rescue from the grammar school, and of refuge in the Latin school, with the great personal gain resulting, which we heard last evening, the speaker forgot to inform you that in the grammar school the number of pupils to a teacher is from fifty to fifty-six, while in the Latin it is from thirty to thirty-five—less than two-thirds. Also, that in the Latin school each teacher, after a probationary period, attains the rank and pay of the principal of the grammar school, making the cost in the Latin school somewhere about twice as much per pupil as in the grammar school. So that the rescued party didn't pay for his bringing up in the Latin school unless he came to know at least twice as much as his mates whom he left behind. It may have been true then that one did know twice as much, but it isn't true now.

If our college presidents really wish to help the grammar schools in the most effective way, let them join hands with us in seeking to reduce the great inequality as to number of pupils to a teacher, which now exists in comparing this grade of schools with those above it.

No teacher with fifty-six pupils can bestow upon each that individual study and interest which are necessary to search out in the depths of the

child's nature—depths, perhaps, never explored before—those hidden springs of interest and action, which, being touched by a friendly hand, cause the child to feel the throbbing of a life hitherto unknown to him. Thus new interest is excited, dormant faculties are aroused to action, bonds of mutual sympathy come to bind together teacher and taught, and the pupil becomes so happy in his work and so fixed in his place that nothing short of an imperative necessity will be able to take him out of the school.

A good teacher will do something of this work in spite of excessive numbers, or of anything else, but she longs for strength and opportunity to do more of it. Such teachers often become morbidly self-condemnatory as they see pupils hardening under the influences surrounding them, sturdily refusing to be moved by any ordinary incentives, but whom the teacher feels sure could be saved to the school and to themselves, could she but find the right way.

The harm arising from giving a teacher such numbers as make it impossible for her to do her work most successfully is admitted by all; but, when it comes to a remedy, the greatly increased cost of suitably increasing the teaching force in our elementary schools seems to many to be an unanswerable argument. But is it so?

In this matter the Scripture maxim applies with peculiar force: "There is that scattereth and yet increaseth; there is that withholdeth more than is meet, but it tendeth to poverty."

While, to secure a proper individualism and the highest success in teaching in the lower grades, a larger proportionate teaching force is imperative, the need of improvement in the quality of the work is quite as urgent. No class in the community know so well as the superintendents, whom I have the honor to address, that during the last few years very great improvements have been made in the work of the elementary schools—improvements which many of those whose work is mainly in the higher grades fail to realize or appreciate. There has been a decided elevation of the plane on which schoolroom work in these grades is being done. There is still need, however, on the part of teachers, of more skill, better preparation, a more enthusiastic love of the work, and an unselfish devotion to it. There are still too many cases of appointments made, and teachers retained, in which the supposed interest of the teacher is the ground of action rather than the best good of the school. No matter what may be the circumstances of the candidate, or the past services of the teacher, neither should have any weight against the real interests of the school. The Teachers' Benefit Societies, now coming into being in our large cities, are to do much toward making it possible for teachers whose strength declines to leave their work in more vigorous hands, releasing themselves from the exacting duties of the schoolroom, which they are now no longer able to perform, while at the same time they can retain

their own self-respect and not become altogether dependent upon friends or charity.

Teachers who enter upon the work, or continue in it, with no love for children, and no solemn sense of responsibility regarding the work to be done, must be mercilessly weeded out. A teacher who cannot see in each child under her charge something to call out either her love or her pity, and show her warm, heartfelt interest and unselfish effort, is not the one to hold pupils in the school. A teacher who will crowd out of school pupils she deems undesirable, that she may have a prettier class or an easier time, is unworthy of her calling and recreant to her most solemn obligations. Such a teacher is in honor bound to withdraw from her place and let some one take it who has the heart qualifications therefor. Some teachers rarely have pupils leave their classes to go to work. In some way obstacles are overcome, the pupil holds on while the class remains in that particular room, and forever after holds the teacher in grateful remembrance.

To aid teachers in this work of holding pupils in the schools, our schoolrooms should be furnished with all the appliances necessary for awakening interest, stimulating thought, developing the powers of observation, and making a felt connection between the work of the schoolroom and the activities of the greater world outside. In too many American schoolrooms the progressive teacher is left to make her bricks without straw, or gather it when she ought to be resting, or draw upon her scantily filled purse to purchase that which, to her, is indispensable if she would develop and hold the interest of those who are in danger of dropping out. Too large a share of school funds has been spent in showy buildings, and too small a share in furnishing those appliances which are to the teacher what his tools are to the mechanic. A better day is dawning, and this poverty of means for interesting pupils needing encouragement is not always to stand in the way of teachers doing their best work.

When the kindergarten shall have taken its proper place in our school system, when such changes shall have been made in our courses of study as are necessary to meet the needs of all classes of pupils, when in all communities suitable school buildings and appliances shall be provided, when teachers unfitted by nature and acquirements for the delicate work of teaching shall have been dismissed, and only teachers of sterling worth, skill, ability, and enthusiasm are to be found in our schoolrooms—then the question we are considering will be answered for large numbers of these short-time pupils. They will complete the grammar course, at least, and go forth in some degree fitted for their place and work in life.

But for other large numbers the question is not answered. Were all possible perfections of school conditions at our command, what are we as superintendents and principals to say to that mother who interrupts her "song of the shirt" long enough to come over to the schoolhouse to talk

with us about taking her daughter, now twelve years of age, out of school? Shall we show her our splendid equipment and tell her how much we can do for her daughter? Shall we tell her that we cannot spare the child, that she is the ornament of her class, and if allowed to remain is sure to come up, by and by, not only to an honorable self-support, but to be also a source of pride and joy and help to her mother? We may then learn, for the first time, that that mother has just as clear an apprehension of the value of an education as we have, that she sees with a clearer and fonder eye than we possibly can the signs of promise in her darling child. Our kindness may win her confidence enough for her to lift the veil from the family life, and we shall see with surprise how much it has cost that mother to send the child to school so long, keeping her neat and tidy all the time. We may learn that the father, now dead, had set his heart upon giving the daughter a good education, and so fitting her to support herself in the higher walks of life. We shall find that the mother has burned the midnight oil, not as an exception but as a rule, that such plans might be carried out, and that now she has come to the parting of ways. Her unaided strength can carry the burden no longer; she has too much refined, womanly spirit to beg; she has no friends who can help; and the little that the daughter can earn is her only known resource. What shall we say to such a mother? As things are in most communities, there is but one thing to say. A present necessity for food knows no considerations of future equivalents in mental power or social standing. The food must be had at whatever loss to the child. The child must become an earner in that family, even if her whole future is thereby narrowed and darkened. It will be said that the picture is overdrawn, that there are really but very few such families. We all rejoice that there are no more, but the number of parents who are thus compelled to weigh the school advantages of their children against daily bread is larger than is generally supposed. Such parents, be they few or many, deserve sympathy and help. How helped? It is not an easy question to answer. Two things should be taken for granted. In this land of plenty every child should have, does have, a right to its childhood for school purposes. The State should lay its hand upon so much of the great wealth of the community as will enable her to guarantee this privilege, this right, to every child. But the mother who came to see us would rather die than become a pauper. The feeling marks the nobleness of her nature. Christian statesmanship is surely adequate to the working out of the problem how necessary aid shall be rendered in the support of the children of such parents during the time necessary to be spent in school, so that the family shall not be pauperized nor the State's bounty be misapplied. Possibly this aid may best be given by means of some organization not directly under State or municipal control. However done, there should be in it no suggestion of charity or pauper-support, but it should

be placed upon the high ground of the *right* of the child to the opportunity to fit himself for the responsibilities of adult life—responsibilities growing more and more difficult to meet.

There remains to be considered the question, what shall be done with and for such children as, at the best, get only snatches of schooling between long intervals of absence, some of whom do not darken the doors of the schoolroom from January to December. Among these truants and absentees are some children, stubborn and perverse in nature, from comparatively good homes, whose parents would be glad to have them attend regularly had they the moral power to enforce their wishes; but most of them are children of parents, who, as has been already noted, with cunning cupidity or sheer indifference, evade or trample upon all laws for the schooling of their children, in whose tenement-house homes the child works unchallenged; homes often in which the common decencies of life are unknown, and in which a child without strong counteracting influences has about as much prospect of growing up to an intelligent, honest, virtuous manhood or womanhood as a thorn-tree has of bearing grapes.

These are the children who need our wisest planning. No one can visit the crowded tenement-house districts of our large cities, or walk through the streets of such sections on a pleasant Sunday afternoon, when the children swarm out to play, notice the marks of early and inherited vice, listen to the profane and obscene talk which is the current medium of communication—no one can make these observations and not be profoundly impressed with the gravity of the situation, and the peril involved in it. Now, what *can* be done for these children? When brought into our schools, as where there is an efficient truant force many of them are, it is most difficult to hold them, and if held there is great risk of a contaminating influence in which the loss to otherwise good children overbalances the good done them. Shall we let them go, and try to forget their existence? Then good-by to our form of government. We cannot go on forever with an ignorant and debased class multiplying about us. A free government commits suicide when it allows an ignorant and vicious class to increase in the community. Such a government must depend upon the intelligence and virtue of its citizens or it becomes the worst of all despotisms, that of the ignorant and vicious *mob*. No: these children cannot be left to come and go in our schools or absent themselves altogether, as the whim may lead them, or as their parents may fail or succeed in finding something for them to do. In many communities more rigid laws regarding truancy and absenteeism, especially absenteeism, are imperative. It should be no more possible for a parent to deprive his child of the opportunity of going to school by employing him at home than if he be employed in a store or factory. It should be made the duty of some officer to make frequent visits of inspection, especially in tenement-house neighborhoods, to see that children are not being

deprived of their school rights and privileges. What shall we do with such as cannot be safely admitted to ordinary school privileges, or such as will not attend regularly when admitted? For such children a school like the school in Detroit, known as *The Ungraded School,* would be an important auxiliary to any school system. (For facts regarding this school I am indebted to a recent report of Supt. Seaver, of Boston.) This is a school which the Board of Education of the city is empowered by law to establish, and into which truant officers are *required* to gather all habitual truants and absentees, as well as those pupils from other schools who are incorrigibly turbulent, vicious, or immoral. Such pupils are not entirely removed from parental control, but they are obliged to carry their dinner, and are under the care of the teachers during the time between sessions as well as in school hours. Truant officers are empowered to compel attendance upon this school, and any absence is immediately made known to them. The term for which a child is sent to the ungraded school is indefinite in length. By good behavior, punctuality, and earnest work he may make it short, or by the opposite course he may make it long. No outside power is allowed to interfere and grant an undeserved release. Upon the child alone depends the length of his detention. In Detroit *one term* at the ungraded school works reformation in three-quarters of the cases—*a grand success.* But when such a school as this Detroit school shall have done all it can do, there will remain children, in quite considerable numbers, whom it will be impossible to save while the home and street life exert their baleful influence for so considerable part of the day. For such children the *parental school* is a necessity. They must be taken out of the mire and filth of their surroundings and placed in charge of such foster-parents as shall give them what they have never before known, a real home. A parental school is not a prison, but a school-home, a school in which the child is taught what he most needs to know, especially along the lines of manual training; a home in which he shall learn what the word "home" means, and in which he shall be placed under those healthful, elevating influences of which a real home is the center and inspiration. Membership in such a school-home should be continual, until if possible a relish shall have been acquired for the new ways, which shall restrain from a return to the old haunts and habits. Such a work will be often discouraging to those who engage in it. It will be too much to expect that heredity and early surroundings will in every case be overcome, but the child will at least have had a chance, and many will be encouraged and helped to a worthy and successful struggle against the odds of the lives to which they seem born. It will be expensive—expensive as it is efficient. In all our large cities there are children, in very considerable numbers, who ought to be gathered into such school-homes. Some cities have already started in this direction. Delays are dangerous; children who may be

rescued to-day, to-morrow will be beyond our reach. When we shrink from the expense of such reformatory work we should bear in mind the fact that such children, if let alone, will almost inevitably grow up to be a public charge, either in our penal or our charitable institutions. Which will involve the greater cost—this or that?

It may be said that this assisting during school attendance in the pecuniary support of the children of the worthy poor, and the colonizing of the children of the depraved and vicious, savors too strongly of socialism, that it carries the work of the government too far, that the school supported at the public expense is as far as the government can properly go. It was far enough once, but do not the times in which we live and the conditions surrounding us demand more than that now? The absolute right of the child to so much of its childhood as is necessary for school purposes should, in our country at least, be regarded as an *axiom*, and whatever custom, law, or precedent stands in the way of giving this right practical force must give way.

Realizing, as we do, the importance of carrying these pupils further along in their school studies before they go to work, we shall use the power and influence of our positions in aiding to bring about such changes, both within and without the schoolroom, as will accomplish so desirable a result. We will not fail to bear in mind the fact that, much as these children need instruction and mental discipline, they need still more the strengthening and development of the moral nature and purpose. We shall teach, that knowledge put to bad uses is worse than ignorance, that learning is not chiefly valuable as a means for making money or gaining power, that it is infinitely better to be useful than to be rich, and that the more one knows the more useful he may make himself. Whatever we do or fail to do for the happy children of prosperous homes, we must not fail to realize the vast importance of doing all we may for these children born under a cloud, for whom often the only door of escape from the wretchedness and degradation of their home surroundings is the schoolroom door. Let us send into their lives as much of sympathy and help as may be possible, realizing that with them as with happier children we are working upon imperishable material, and if enough on the alert and sympathetic enough, we so may make our mark for good that no untoward influences shall ever blot it out. Let us hear as addressed to us the admonition of the great Teacher: "Take heed that ye despise not one of these little ones."

DISCUSSION.

[Discussion reported by Hon. O. E. Wells, of Wisconsin.]

Hon. J. H. Shinn, Little Rock, Ark.: It has been said, that of the entire number of pupils attending the schools sixty per cent. are in the

primary grades, from six to ten; thirty-five per cent. in the grammar grades, from ten to fourteen; and five per cent. in the high school, from fourteen to eighteen.

It has also been said, that of every hundred entering the primary less than half of them are found pursuing it to its end; less than thirty per cent. finish the fifth year; less than twenty per cent. the sixth year; less than ten per cent. the seventh year, and less than six per cent. the eighth year.

Taking these figures as bases, let us look at the problem: 12,325,411 children enter the primary department; they divide as follows:

7,395,246, primary; 6 to 10 years of age.
4,313,893, grammar; 10 to 14 years of age.
616,270, high school; 14 to 18 years of age.

This showing would not be so bad if all children entering each of the three great divisions pursued it regularly to the end.

But of the whole number entering the primary department less than half pursue it regularly to the end; that is, less than 6,162,705 children go beyond the primary; that is to say, fully 6,162,705 children receive their whole school education in the primary department before the beginning of their tenth year; that is to say, one-half the children of school age in the United States graduate from the schools in the beginning of their tenth year.

The question is, "What can be done to bring children on further in their studies before they leave school to go to work?"

1. What studies have they to be brought on in? We begin to bring them further on by setting up limitations at the beginning which may not be passed.

We say at the start: No child shall know more at the end of four years' teaching than this:

Reading: Finish the third reader. Thirty-six months or 720 days on the first, second, and third readers.

Arithmetic: Through addition and subtraction of common fractions, with selected tables of weights and measures. 720 days on 100 pages of elementary arithmetic.

Geography: The western hemisphere in outline, without a book.

Penmanship: Words, phrases, and short sentences.

Language: Develop the idea of an action word with an object after it to complete the sense; develop the idea of when, how, and where an act may be performed. Four years gone, graduation at hand for over 6,000,000 children, and the transitive verb and objective case just reached, together with the use of adverbs. The whole of the last four months to be diligently devoted to the development of the transitive verb and the adverbs.

In orthography they are limited to about 750 words.

In looking over this course, the one almost universal in our schools, one is prompted to ask, "Could there have been a better scheme devised for keeping the children back?"

Wise men sometimes make great mistakes, and it is certainly a grave mistake to prepare a course of study for a set of children who are expected to continue regularly therein for twelve years, and apply it rigorously to the full one-half of our children who quit at the beginning of their fifth school year. The National Educational Association advised a system of public education which may be justly termed "the three fours." Primary course, four years; grammar course, four years; high school course, four years. This same body then outlined the work which good schools might safely do in twelve consecutive years.

The schools of America fell into line, and the twelve-year course became the standard for nearly all schools. To string out the common and high school branches through twelve years, it became necessary to dilute the matter in the first four; to compensate for the singular dilution, the country was promised greater accuracy. Accurate in emptiness. Then more than 6,000,000 children were put into this course and required to master it. Then ten months to ten became a mania. Boys became so proficient in their alphabet after four years' teaching that they could say it backwards and read the third reader. They then quit school, and grave men began to discuss how to get children further on in their studies before they quit school to go to work. Is the mental stature of the average nine-year-old only third reader high? Grammar to the transitive verb high? Arithmetic to fractions? If so, then we can do no more than we are doing. If not, then the first step towards an answer is a destruction of the false standards that now limit the progressive development of the great masses of the children.

12,305,411 children are the work we have to fashion.

Only 739,504 enter the high school. 11,585,907 cannot go to the high school. They are as effectually barred out as if restrained by law. The environment of the universe takes more than ninety-four per cent. of the children out of school at the beginning of the fourteenth year. And we, grave teachers, deliberately construct a course of study which deprives 11,325,411 children of any school knowledge of history, civil government, morals and manners as a study, citizenship, science, language, algebra, and geometry. My answer to this question is, to remove the course barriers that now obstruct child progress. Try the three-threes instead of the three-fours. Do from six to nine what is now done from six to ten; from nine to twelve, what is now put from ten to fourteen.

1. The standard for the primary and grammar grades is too low.
2. It is too easy, and therefore requires too little labor.
3. The practice advances teaching at the expense of learning.

A second answer is: Have the children use good, logical books to obtain facts, and by a right use of these facts grow in developed power; that is to say, abolish to an almost total degree the habit of developing facts that need no development, and of hunting everywhere for matter that is already in hand. Act as if the average boy had some sense, require him to work, and the masses of children will get further along in their studies. Oral teaching, unless done by masters, is a fraud of the worst kind, and is daily cheating thousands of children out of their heritage. Good books are authority and are lasting standards. Until the human mind reaches its last and highest estate, the power to reason rightly and independently, it should lean upon the books which contain the logical expressions of those who have reached that estate. Children should be led to lean upon authoritative statements of the truth, as they would lean upon the Rock of Ages. The teaching of a poor book is infinitely better than the vapidity of an oral instructor who is unfamiliar with his case. And ninety-nine out of every hundred are not so far masters of the subject as to be definite, certain, and logical. To get children further on is to give them great living books full of great living thought, and to require them to rub up against the fatness of the thing. Of all sad things of tongue or pen, the saddest are these, cadaverous orality by licensed men.

A third answer is a change in management. Give the three primary grades into the exclusive control of women. For the high school and grammar grades let the division be as follows; as many male as female teachers; seat the girls from two consecutive grades in one room with a female teacher; seat the males of the same grades in another contiguous room with a male teacher. Let the rooms interchange for recitations. Two influences will act upon each child in each room, in study and recitation, while the government of each sex will be in the hands of its kind.

Last of all: To get children further on requires that adults be pushed further on.

1. Adults must be led to know that public education is something more than public beneficence.

2. Adults must be led to know that public education is something more than public defense.

3. Adults must be led to know that public education is a function of civilized government, without whose exercise it has no right to exist. The common duties of men are common rights which demand a common teaching under a common law. The common hopes of men are common rights which demand a similar common treatment. Duties and hopes are the end of human government. Because these things are common, they should be taught in a common way under a common law. This will only come when each State shall have an educational legislature equal in power and dignity, upon all educational questions, to the ordinary legislature upon the ordinary legislative questions. In the Federal government there

should be a Secretary of Education, equal in the cabinet with any other cabinet officer. In each State all educational questions should be settled by a co-ordinate, independent, educational arm. Great is the Diana of our Executive; greater, perhaps, is the Diana of our legislative department; greater, because quieter, is the Diana of our judiciary; but greater than any one of these, and greater possibly than all, is the Diana of our State public education. We shall never get further on with child education till we advance further with adult education; and the perfection of both will only be reached when the fourth estate, the Educational Department of Government, shall rise like the star in the east to glorify the ages.

THE INFLUENCE OF MANUAL TRAINING ON HABITS OF THOUGHT.

BY SUPT. JOHN E. BRADLEY, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

It is difficult to trace formative influences. The forces which mold a character are manifold and often obscure. Blending with native aptitudes and hereditary tendencies, they yield widely different results under conditions apparently similar. Tastes and interests which seem permanent to-day may prove ephemeral to-morrow. Stimulating and ennobling influences are lost upon one, while a chance word or trifling incident rouses another to grand achievement. Time alone can determine what product the fair promise of youth shall yield.

In attempting, therefore, to estimate the relative value of various parts of our educational work, we have need, in the first place, of caution lest our predilections lead us to unwarrantable inferences; and, in the second place, we need that openness of mind which will enable us to recognize the excellences of any system of training. We unconsciously magnify that which is familiar, and we are slow to accept new truths and new methods of work.

I have therefore relied largely, in the preparation of this paper, upon the observations of those who are engaged in the work of manual training. I wish to report results rather than urge my own opinions. I have had before me the notes of eleven teachers engaged in various branches of manual training. Before I conclude, I shall quote some of their own words. I shall endeavor to reflect their views throughout this paper. Let me first quote from one who is not a teacher.

A recognized leader, who has had large experience in the business world, said a few days ago: "Education in books is only one-third of an education; education in the ways of the world and a knowledge of human nature is another third, and education or training of the will is the other third. To a large extent, it is only the first third which is given in the schools. Book education alone is too deficient and one-sided to accomplish anything in this world. Here is a man whose schooling was neglected or confined to a few months; yet he is very successful in business and a man of great influence. There is a college graduate whose life is a failure; yet he is said to be a man of considerable ability and has no very bad habits.

"You ask why is it that the man of so little education gets along so much better than the man with so much. You are simply mistaken as to which has the most education. The man who is almost illiterate has trained his

energy, perseverance, self-reliance, all the powers of his will, to a high degree, is well posted in the ways of the world, and has a thorough knowledge of human nature ; then he has two-thirds of an education. The other is lacking in these qualities, but he has a very thorough knowledge of books ; then he has a little more than one-third of an education. The education of each is deficient, neither has the education he should have, but certainly the college-bred man has the least."

Now, without stopping to reply to certain minor criticisms which will at once be made upon this utterance, I wish to inquire whether the one-sidedness which is here so graphically depicted must necessarily exist. Grant that the picture is drawn, as most criticisms of the schools are, by one who only knows of their work as it was conducted years ago, still is there not here indicated a great need in mental training which the schools ought to supply ? No previous decade has brought so many changes in educational work as have occurred during the last ten years. Most of them have been strenuously opposed by teachers and other friends of the schools. Progressive movements are often misunderstood. And yet so rapidly have our views changed with reference to the best aims and the best methods, that the teachers' meetings are now full of convicted sinners and new converts. Need, we then, be too apprehensive concerning further modifications in our work ? If an element of training can be added that will develop neglected powers, should we not rather rejoice ? Too much has been claimed for manual training by enthusiastic advocates ; groundless fears and objections have been raised by its opponents. We need a new estimate, based upon experience and familiarity with the details of the subject. As we consider the influence of manual training upon mental growth, we need to look at the subject not with the eyes of the enthusiast and specialist, but from the standpoint of the teacher wishing to maintain due proportion in educational work, and to give due emphasis to that which is most important.

Among the various educational ends which are proposed, there is none upon which all are more fully agreed than the " Formation of Correct Habits." It is true that Dr. Johnson, fixing his attention upon the enslavement of evil habits, represents education as principally concerned that youth should be free from their power ; and Rousseau, in one of his oracular utterances, declares that the only habit a child should be permitted to form is to contract no habits. But though moralists and teachers have thus often portrayed the dangers of evil habits, the world has come to see that man's safety and strength depend upon the establishment of good habits. The law of habit is the same as that of association. It indicates a tendency in the mind to repeat its activities, and with a constantly increasing facility. It is Nature's method of accumulation of energy. Education implies personality—the ability to assert one's self. Intelligence is not abstract and absolute ; it waits upon performance.

Habit gives ease and certainty. It not only lays down the lines of association, but it adds vigor to the will. The mind moves with greater promptness and force when sure of its way.

What, then, are some of the habits which the schools should cultivate in their pupils ?

1. Attention. The child's thoughts flit from one thing to another, like a butterfly from flower to flower. He must acquire the power of concentrating them upon one object. There is a spontaneous attention and there is a voluntary attention. The child should learn in the schoolroom to prolong the act of spontaneous attention and add new energy to it by an effort of the will. This implies careful adaptation of the instruction to the capacity of the child. His powers of purely intellectual activity are feeble ; his mind must be reached through the avenues of the senses. He is capable of observing individual objects, and his power of acquiring certain classes of facts is wonderful; but his interest flags when you attempt to *apply* your story, and he gets nothing out of the *relation*, which to you seems so important. To a certain extent this necessity of the child to think along the line of specific and tangible objects remains for many years. The full significance of abstract ideas is grasped very slowly.

A true philosophy of childhood teaches us, then, to supply, during the early years of school life, both objective teaching and manual occupation. Train the child to habits of attention by giving him employment to which he *can* attend. Horace Mann once said that if teachers would give one-half the school hours to creating a desire to learn, more would be accomplished than by giving all the time to book work. Primary teachers testify to the superior capacity of pupils who come from the kindergartens. The occupations which have trained the fingers and eyes of these little ones have also stimulated mental activity and given them power to think. The habit of attention must have its foundation in the activity of the senses. Vigor of thought depends upon interest. A primary teacher of large experience reports : "No exercises train children to habits of attention like those in which the hands can be employed. The best 'busy work' is that which gives the hands most to do. The kindergarten occupations train the mind even more than the eyes and fingers. The children learn to attend to the exact thing to be done." First of all, then, manual training has a place in the *primary* school.

2. Another habit which the school should cultivate is that of observation. The intellectual fabric must have a solid foundation in sense-knowledge. Crude ideas of what constitute observation are too prevalent. A teacher, for example, carries an object into the schoolroom, and, as she calls attention to its various features, the children look at them and try to remember them. It is called an observation lesson, and is perhaps useful. But something more is needed. True observation goes further. Suppose

now, that under the direction of the teacher, the children place different kinds of seeds on prepared paper or cotton and watch their germination and growth. Careful record is made in their little note-books of what they observe. They are permitted to ask questions; their curiosity and interest are encouraged, but they are not too freely told what they can find out for themselves. Now a valuable habit of thought is fostered. They learn to examine and investigate for themselves. They observe for a purpose. Still more beneficial is the observation required in constructive work, like making and fitting the parts of an article accurately and tastefully together. The acquisition of knowledge at first hand is needed for the best mental growth. The muscular sense should be developed and utilized. Manual training exercises conjointly the nerve-centers of the hand and eye, by which knowledge is primarily acquired. It is in the elementary and high school, what laboratory work is in the college. True observation has an end in view. Understanding alone is not enough. Intelligence is not merely a store; it is also perceiving power. Knowledge must be kept alive by new acquisitions, else it becomes as worthless as unused coin.

The child needs to handle colors, to place them side by side and select his own combinations. He needs to handle counters, weights, and measures. He needs to handle plants, and to make and record his observations concerning them. He needs to handle the various type-forms, to draw them, and make them of clay, paper, and wood. He needs to represent in drawings and in solids the facts which he learns in geography, history, and elementary science, and to relate this work to his language exercises. These are the ways in which observation is trained and thought stimulated. And the exercises which require the closest and most delicate use of the hand and the eye are also the ones which best arouse mental activity. They are especially efficacious in reaching dull and backward pupils. A primary teacher says: "My pupils attend more regularly since we have had industrial work. I have never known a child to be absent, except for sickness, on clay day or sewing day. This work is particularly successful with dull children." Another teacher says: "The work on cardboard is just the thing for backward pupils."

3. The school should train to habits of definite and accurate thinking. Such training must be largely indirect. Generalization and inference, no less than memory and imagination, depend upon clear perception. Sully says: "Thought will be loose and inaccurate when the preliminary stage of perception has been hurried over. The first-hand knowledge of things through personal inspection is worth far more than any second-hand account of them by description." Loose and shallow thinking must prevail where facts and relations are imperfectly understood. Every teacher knows how difficult it is to get pupils to clearly apprehend the exact thing which is to be done. Half of a class will raise their hands to answer, be-

fore they really know what the question is. They are ready to solve a problem or analyze a sentence before the teacher can state it. They feel no chagrin at mistakes, and hopelessly mingle thinking and guessing. What teacher has not been mortified and astonished at the mistakes of his pupils, misled by a sound or careless inference? The author of "English as She is Wrote" gives us many ludicrous examples. She tells us of pupils who believe that "the principal occupation of the people of Austria is gathering Austrich feathers," that "mendacious means that which can be mended," that "the best fossils are found in theological cabinets," and that "a court-martial means a man who goes around late at night." One bewildered child, mistaking the identity of the State of Virginia, declares that Abraham Lincoln was the "Mother of Presidents." These are only extreme examples of the use of words without thought with which teachers are only too familiar. Pupils form the habit of depending implicitly upon the text-book or the teacher's statement, instead of obtaining facts for themselves. Instead of growing intellectually honest and self-reliant, they grow listless. If a word is misapprehended and makes nonsense, it gives them no great uneasiness, because they do not really think about it at all. Manual training compels pupils to be accurate, to depend upon themselves, to consider before they act. A boy corrects an error in his arithmetic or algebra and thinks no more about it. He is used to such mishaps. But when he comes to similar oversights in the workshop, he finds that his labor is lost and his materials spoiled. He cannot afford to make mistakes. He quickly learns to work with his faculties alert. Manual occupations, from paper-folding to metal-work, require *thoughtful* attention. Dexterity of the hand implies a certain dexterity of thought which is acquired along with the manual skill. A primary teacher reports: "This work cultivates exactness and rapidity of thought. Unless a trained mind can be manifested by a trained hand, half its power is lost." A principal who has a great variety of manual work in his building says: "To my mind, the main educational feature in all manual training is the fact that a pupil's work is largely the expression of his practical and definite thought. Before a boy can *do* a thing he must have the idea of that thing clearly fixed in his mind. Careful work is always preceded by careful thought. The finished piece is a perfect picture of the mind behind it. Thus this training leads, I think, more directly to independent and original thought than any other training in our course of study. In much school work, pupils do not have an opportunity to think for themselves. Their originality is crippled by method and process. In this work the pupil has a chance to express himself in spite of precept or teacher."

4. The school should cultivate the æsthetic nature. No words of mine are needed to set forth the importance of this work. There is need of every influence which can be exerted to raise the popular standards of good

taste. Let more sunshine into the lives of the children. The reading lesson, the language lesson, the general atmosphere of the school, should cultivate refinement and love of beauty. Nearly every form of manual training helps in this work. Who can inspect good drawing, or clay work, or the pretty designs in colored paper, and question their value for purposes of æsthetic culture? The grotesque and incongruous disappear where such work is done. No pupil can construct a well-finished article in wood or metal without learning better to appreciate good workmanship. No one can execute ornamental designs in wood-carving or lathe work without gaining along with his skill in manipulation a corresponding delicacy of thought and feeling.

A supervisor of sewing says: "This branch appeals especially to the personal pride of girls, to their ideas of neatness, grace, and beauty. It has a gentle, refining influence, cultivates the habit of observation and practical thought, and trains to taste in the harmony of color, materials, and arrangement. The work in sewing means not merely so many stitches taken in the proper manner, but also training in refinement, self-reliance, and self-respect."

An instructor in wood-carving says: "Wood-carving, one of the most ancient of mechanical arts, has especial value on the artistic side of education. The requisites of success are an appreciation and study of plant forms and ability to adapt them to decorative purposes. Simple typical forms of foliage are taken for the first exercises, and the student soon recognizes the fact that all plant growth, while founded on certain geometrical forms, has an endless diversity in its development. The mere literal copying of natural forms is of little use for decorative carving, and their treatment in a 'conventional' manner must be considered. No rigid rules can be laid down. The skill and genius of the designer will be fully taxed. Every cut of the tool is a development of an original idea. This is education, pure and simple, as distinguished from the more literal reproduction of the work of others."

Can any one doubt the refining culture of such training as this quotation describes?

5. The school should be a place where pupils will acquire the habit of accomplishing something—a place for the training of the executive powers. Of what value are the "cunning hand and cultured brain" unless their owner uses them? A generation ago most boys and girls became practically familiar with some employment at home. The farmer's son and daughter both learned to work out of school. Their quick and accurate eyes were trained to observe every feature of an object. But nothing gives our modern city schoolboy any such opportunity. He does not even know the uses of so marvelous a mechanism as the hand. And this one-sidedness of his educational environment is a serious loss to his teacher as well as himself. Children gain the power of application very

slowly; too many, alas! never gain it at all. The world is full of men who have no power of persistent effort. They are intelligent enough to do good work, but they are restless and unstable. The schools should be places not only to inform the mind, but also to invigorate the character. To store the memory and train the reflective powers without arousing the executive faculties is like loading a steamer without providing engines and rudder. Indeed, the best training of the other powers is impossible if the will is neglected. The universal weakness of human nature, until trained and disciplined, is a tendency to do things imperfectly, partly from ignorance, partly from reluctance to make the requisite effort. The boys and girls in our public schools need to learn, more than any other lesson, the value of earnestness, of a great o'er-mastering purpose. Manual training strengthens the will. It gives specific direction and force to every mental act. The boy acquires in the workshop the habit of overcoming difficulties and persisting in an undertaking till it is crowned with success. He conquers his sluggish tendency to do things carelessly. He learns the lessons of industry, perseverance, and genuineness.

Let me again quote the testimony of a manual training instructor of large experience:

"When a boy has put a question to nature in regard to a matter which can only be answered through the aid of a compound microscope, and by his own application has obtained the information sought, rather than take it second-hand from his teacher or text-book, he has done something to entitle him to respect; and when he has chipped and filed a block of iron so well that no light shines under the try-square as he applies it to the faces and angles of the block, he has done something which requires patience, attention, and care. He can prove his work to be well done, and he has a right to be proud of it, for he is developing those qualities which go to make up the highest human character. It requires mind and will to do such work. Good intentions are of no avail unless the will is strong enough to carry them out. No other exercises of the school train to sustained effort like those of the workshop."

Another instructor in manual training says:

"After several years of careful study of this subject, it is my belief that manual training proves a more complete and thorough all-round education than studies which are purely mental. It broadens the views, teaches exactness, makes students practical and self-reliant, affords vent to nervous restlessness, and stimulates to industry and perseverance. It reaches some students who are not interested in intellectual work. I saw last summer most beautiful and artistic work in the free schools of the People's Palace, London, which was executed by students who had proved to be almost absolute dunces in classical and literary work."

In this connection we also note that the success of each pupil after leaving school depends largely on his will-power—on his ability to work.

While we would not teach trades in the public schools, this incidental benefit of manual training should not be overlooked, that the productive power of a workman is at once visibly increased by giving dexterity to his hands. The future leaders of our industries will receive their first training in the use of tools in the public schools. The highest mechanical and artistic skill is usually the product of early training. Intellectual and manual training are both needed to qualify a man for the position of foreman. When can the foundation of both these requisites be better laid than simultaneously in the public school?

Chauncey M. Depew, whose voice has been so often raised in defense of classical culture, said at the opening of the Drexel Institute: "Steam, electricity, and inventions have hardened the conditions of competition and multiplied indefinitely the number of specialties. In the briefest time, and almost without warning, we are brought face to face with the problem that education and prosperity, education and livelihood, education and morals, education and law, education and liberty are wedded together. Manual training solves the problem of labor and industrial development. It so equips the youth and opens avenues for his energies, that, instead of dynamiting the successful, he will be himself a success."

The demand for manual training is not ephemeral. Such magnificent institutions as the Pratt Institute and Drexel Institute illustrate both the wide-spread need and the clearness with which that need is seen by philanthropic men. It should be the part of the patriotic leaders in educational affairs to guide this great movement to practical results—to make it the means of infusing strength and interest into the work of our schools.

If now the value of this training be admitted, but the lack of time for it be urged; if it be said that our courses of study are already overcrowded, I will venture to quote once more from Dr. Johnson. Boswell relates that one day Mrs. Gastrell set a little girl to repeat to Dr. Johnson Cato's Soliloquy, which she went through very correctly. After a pause he asked the child what was the meaning of "bane and antidote" in the passage. She was unable to tell. Mrs. Gastrell said: "You cannot expect so young a child to know the meaning of such words."

He then said to the little girl: "My dear, how many pence in sixpence?" "I cannot tell, sir," was the half-terrified reply.

On this, addressing himself to Mrs. Gastrell, he said:

"Now, my dear lady, can anything be more ridiculous than to teach a child Cato's Soliloquy who does not know how many pence there are in sixpence?"

Our courses of study have recently been much improved, but there are a few Cato's Soliloquies still left. There are some teachers who still cling with pride to exercises which might better be spared. The good names of drill and thoroughness are made to cover much misdirected work. We

need more of the spirit, less of the letter, of these things. If manual training could crowd out some of the dreary repetitions which still prevail, it would be a great gain. If freedom and originality could take the place of slavery to method, if powers could be evoked which are now repressed, all would rejoice.

Already teachers and pupils feel that pressure is removed as the range of instruction is widened. Interest in the work makes it easier. Adaptation to the age, capacity, and needs of the pupils makes interest possible. Troublesome problems disappear as the schools become truly attractive. If we are now able to accomplish double the work in geography with half the labor formerly required, because our aims are better, let us not hesitate to welcome other changes which will increase the helpfulness of our schools. Let us remember with Lowell that:

> "New occasions teach new duties,
> Time makes ancient good uncouth."

Useless experiments need not be tried; good work need not be given up. But improvement is always possible, and vitality and progress should be steadily gained. The scope and methods of our work should be made more flexible. Provision should be made for the harmonious training of all the pupil's powers, and the people should have new reason for pride in their cherished system of public schools, because of their adaptation to the changing needs of society.

MANUAL TRAINING BETWEEN THE EMPLOYMENTS OF THE KINDERGARTEN AND THOSE OF THE TOOL LABORATORIES OF THE GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

BY SUPT. W. B. POWELL, WASHINGTON, D. C.

FIVE years ago a small beginning in teaching the use of wood-working tools was made in the high school of Washington.

Gradually, from that time to this, new branches of work have been added, each of which, together with the one with which we began, has been extended, so that now manual training is recognized as a regular and permanent branch of education in all the schools. The manual training done in our schools, resulting from changes to which reference has been made, may be stated in a general way, as follows :

All the girls of the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth grades are taught sewing one hour a week. We are gradually introducing shops in which the girls of the sixth grade are taught to cut and fit.

All the girls of the seventh and eighth grades are taught cooking two hours a week.

All the boys of the seventh and eighth grades are taught the use of wood-working tools two hours a week.

All kinds of work thus far mentioned are practically compulsory, or as nearly so as is any other branch of the school curriculum.

The girls of the high school are not taught cooking, as it has been determined that the two years of instruction given below the high school are as much as it is desirable for the schools to give in that branch of education.

Boys of the high schools have one year at lathe work, one year of forging, and one year of machine tool work.

All manual training in the high schools is optional, as is every other branch of education with the exception of English.

The subject that I propose to discuss is not the one stated in the programme exactly, being stated better as follows :

Manual Training between the Employments of the Kindergarten and those of the Tool Laboratories of the Grammar Schools.

The manual training that is now given in our schools is very inadequately set forth in the foregoing remarks relating to the subject. It was

a comparatively easy task to project plans for giving instruction in sewing, cooking, and tool laboratory employments. It was not difficult, the financial means being assured, to provide and arrange appliances, and practically to put the work into the respective grades of the school. It was seen, however, at the start, though much might be done by the introduction of the employments named, to give to some of the children valuable training in the use of the eye and hand, and a profitable acquaintance with practical things, that such a course would be unsymmetrical; that it would postpone the beginning of some kinds of muscular training too late for the most profitable returns for a given expenditure of effort; that it would omit entirely some lines of desirable training because of its narrowness, and that children withdrawing from school during the early years of the school course would get little training of the kind we were seeking to give them.

It was felt that a year or two of kindergarten work at the beginning of school life and a corresponding amount of shop or laboratory work at the close would not develop to a very high degree that accuracy of perception, deftness of hand, and trustworthiness of judgment in application that a child's school training should give to him.

It was believed that the gap between the sense-training of the kindergarten and the use of carpenter's and metal-worker's tools in manual training shops might be filled by a system or course of hand-work in the schoolroom running parallel with the purely mental studies of the curriculum of the same grades; that such a course should, by its many and varied employments, develop the eye, the hand, and the judgment in the direction of expertness, facility, and reliability; that definite, measurable results in skill, in ingenuity, and in continuity of effort for the accomplishment of purpose should be the aim of all teaching in this course of work; that the objects studied and formed might serve as a foundation for or be the beginning of other kinds of work in the school, and for supplementing, broadening, or explaining still other kinds of work; that such a course, if practicable, would be in the interest of economy.

Since the beginning of manual training exercises in our schools, therefore, efforts have been made to arrange some practicable lines of hand-work that should begin in the first primary grade and lead sequentially to the employments of the tool laboratories of the seventh and eighth grades, for the boys, and that should be equally profitable to the girls who would be instructed in cooking when reaching the same grades.

Drawing was at the time mentioned a branch of instruction in the schools. It was determined that the subject could not be taught well from flat copies. Though we had not been able, previous to the time to which reference is made, to direct the work of drawing in the light of our best knowledge, it was known that only by a liberal and intelligent use of objects by which children could be made acquainted with natural and

art forms could drawing be successfully taught. It became more evident every day, as the work of teaching drawing was studied, that representation even—the simplest product sought by the study—could proceed only from an accurate knowledge of the facts of form ; for, however appearances of forms might differ from the facts, the underlying causes of the differences could be understood only by him who had been made acquainted with the facts.

Furthermore, when contemplating the purpose of the study higher than that of simple representation, it was believed that as a healthy, productive imagination could be cultivated only after there had been acquired a store of facts well understood ; so artistic work could be done by him only who would fashion his art out of materials taken from his own conscious store-house of facts whose relations were understood.

It was agreed, therefore, that if the child is to be taught drawing at all, no matter for what purpose, first of all the teacher must see that he has abundant opportunity to learn form-facts, and that, as in the study of spoken or written language, so in his study of drawing or of graphic language, he must be made to know before an attempt is made to teach him expression. An important step forward in the teaching of drawing was made when this almost axiomatic truth was recognized.

It was believed, also, that facts of form could not be learned from dictation or from representation, or from both.

Children learn to know forms only imperfectly by seeing them and handling them ; they get correct, permanent conceptions of form best by analysis and by construction, by making them of different sizes and of different material and under different circumstances and for different purposes.

It requires the action of one set of nerve centers excited by the eye, coöperating with other sets of nerve centers excited by muscular action of fingers and hands directed by the will, for the establishment of correct, permanent concepts of form. Concepts are built.

Form study and drawing are sequential steps for beginners ; form study being the first, drawing being the second. Form study is a prerequisite to drawing. Manual training is one of the two coördinate parts of form study. Manual training, then, and drawing are as inseparable as are ideas and words in the study of verbal expression.

A study of color cannot be separated from that of objects and their appearance. This is true in an especial sense of all objects in plant life.

A most important educative purpose of learning to represent objects as they appear, or seem, is that the learner may acquire power to see objects in flat representations of them as they are, and not as they seem to be, just as learning to represent phenomena of physical geography in sand maps, and afterwards in flat maps, is to train the learner to see contour in flat maps. As he who has thus been trained to make flat maps can read con-

tour in the flat and represent it in sand or some plastic material, so will he who has been taught to draw properly be able to draw objects as well from flats as from life.

Such perfect seeing as is here implied requires a knowledge of color corresponding to that of form given in the foregoing and as a part thereof. The changes in the appearances of color under influence of light and shade, of distance, and of environment may be understood by him only who studies the subject in connection with the study of forms of objects under varying circumstances.

The difference between the forms of objects in a picture, as they are and as they appear to be, is the personal equation of the picture. What is true of pictures is true of all art products.

The ability to see the objects of a picture as they are, and thus separate them from what they seem to be, is the ability to see the artist in the picture, and hence the art.

In this work, so necessary to correct, profitable instruction in drawing, is found an opportunity for the training of the eye, hand, and judgment simultaneously. In these employments, the study and making of geometric forms, of natural forms allied to them, and of art forms developed from them, and of common objects whose forms are based on them, is in part the work for which we have been seeking. What an amount of profitable seeing is here made possible! What employments for the acquirement of deftness and reliability in the use of the hands and fingers! What delightful exercises for the development of judgment and taste!

Drawing was selected as the branch of study along whose lines of work related to them might be found those employments of mind and hand that would afford all the training desired to make the manual course of the school symmetrical and a unified entirety.

To Mrs. S. E. W. Fuller, the directress of drawing in our schools, and her corps of assistants, is due the credit of adjusting the technical work of the different kinds of employments to the grades of the school.

Apart from the strictly practical sense and hand cultivation, much may be done by this work to assist the æsthetic and the moral growth of the child. The study of graceful forms and harmonious coloring will stimulate a love for the beautiful and appropriate which will leave its impress on all the work of the hand.

In his home, in his dress, and in the products of handicraft, good taste will guide his choice of form and color, and thus render the world brighter and pleasanter both for himself and for those about him. The appreciation of the beautiful and of the pure and chaste go hand in hand, and will keep the mind and heart ever with higher and nobler things.

From the kindergarten through the high school, the pupil should be kept in constant association with the object world about him, that he may

acquire knowledge of its structure and the laws governing its appearance. Without this knowledge of his environments, he is but a stranger in the garden of God. By the proper study of geometric solids and planes, and of forms related to these, he will acquire, through the natural avenues of acquisition, sight and touch, a comprehensive and classified knowledge of all forms.

To the little child the form world must ever remain a perplexity until he has been led to a classification of its variations.

The general purposes of the course of exercises developed are as follows :

1. Storing the mind with true conceptions of forms and colors, and developing the ability to acquire new concepts.
2. Developing the ability to select from masses of materials that which is appropriate for specified or desired purposes.
3. Directing the attention to the essential elements of the beautiful in nature and in art, neglecting in such attention the accidental, thus developing the beginning of an artistic standard.
4. Training the hand to use, shape, and arrange materials with neatness, accuracy, and taste, that the learner may express artistically; *i. e.*, with truth and beauty.
5. Teaching the use of tools adapted to the age and strength of the child and to the character of materials employed.

CLAY.

"There is no other material like clay for bringing the mind down to the fingers."

The handling of perfect models of geometric forms may be followed by making them in clay. Natural objects whose forms resemble these are next made. Then objects whose forms are derived from these may be made. The objects to be copied are so easily obtained that every child can have a model on his desk for study.

The amount of work possible here at the very threshold of form study is practically without limit.

The clay soon becomes a ready material in which to fashion forms with which the eye is delighted and the mind interested. As from the making of apples in clay, to distinguish them from oranges, lemons, or pears, the child gives you the likeness of the individual apple on his desk as distinguished from other apples, he begins to notice particulars in everything he looks at. He is beginning to notice appearances of objects, too, more closely.

He gives you the likeness of a half apple, on which you are delighted to see the skin stand above the pulp which has been wasted away by evaporation. He is beginning to see details of form. The amount of work possible here, too, is practically without limit. He studies roots, stems,

leaves, flowers, branches, for science work and as a means of language training. He will get better science training and better language training if he is made to see particulars and to represent them both in clay and in words.

This work is not simple representation of forms. The child is to see the stem dimple of the apple and know its relation to the branch on which it hung; he is to examine the blossom dimple of the apple and understand its relation to the blossom whence it came, that there may be thought in the mind before the building of form begins, else how can clay bring thought down to the fingers? When knowledge and muscle coöperate in making natural forms, there is more in the product than shape.

From the modeling of nature forms the learner, while yet in the fourth grade, may pass to the representation of objects from working-drawings, modeling to dimensions. In this the use of tools may be allowed and encouraged. The child should ascertain for himself the dimensions of the objects to be made. This will train his judgment and give him skill in doing accurate work.

He may incise ornament designs in clay plinths, and on other plinths cut away the clay from the drawn forms, leaving the ornament in relief. This develops careful workmanship with tools. If while working in clay the child passes to the study of historic ornament, he finds a limitless field for the exercise of mind and hand. The more he knows of the origin of the graceful forms and of those who originated them, the more he knows of the uses to which they were put and how they have come down to us, the more form he will see in them. Let him model these from the casts and let him model them also from the flat, for he is strong enough to do it. In this work he may use tools both for measuring and for construct ing while doing the work. There is no limit to the original designing that may be done for production in clay forms.

While the child has been at work with clay during the six or seven years of school life he has been doing other kinds of work correlated with it.

TABLET AND STICK LAYING.

He lays tablets and sticks to get proper concepts of surfaces and of edges. Before this can be done satisfactorily to the child who begins really to see form, the hand must acquire much steadiness. This is manual training.

PAPER FOLDING.

The child continues the study and making of geometric forms and developments from them, and representations of art forms based on them, by folding colored paper and cutting it. After the forms are cut they are

pasted on cardboard or stiff paper for preservation that they may be drawn. The number and variety of forms and the purposes to which they may be put in ornament and in uses is innumerable. The work, proceeding from the simple to the complex and compound, develops deftness of fingers and continuity of purpose. The use of tools appropriate to the work is also taught.

MODEL MAKING.

The child easily goes from making forms by folding paper to the making of objects of stiff manilla paper or cardboard. For these he makes the working-drawings to measurement, after sketching the object and one of each of its different faces.

This is done by the shop method, involving the use of tools and demanding careful, accurate work. The amount of work that may be done in this branch of employment is practically without limit. It is most valuable for teaching the relations of the different dimensions of solids as a foundation for art study, and for supplementing the work in arithmetic as no other kind of work can do in this line. The child passes from the making of these working-drawings to making others for exercises and objects to be made in the shops with wood-working tools.

COLOR.

While pursuing the lines of work indicated but inadequately in this brief paper, the child has been learning color. The paper that he has folded and cut, as well as that he has made into solid forms, has been so selected as to teach him the relations of color to light.

Color having its origin in light, the colors composing the light are deemed a proper basis for the study. From the observation of the spectrum the child is led to notice the colors of the rainbow, of the plant world, the blue of the noonday sky, the red and yellow of evening, the green grass, the violet neutral tints of the roots and soil beneath his feet. The study of the hues of nature awakens his color perception and brings him into sympathy with the whole realm of color.

A complete development of the subjects requires representation by washes in water colors. This has been done in many of the schools. The child has had washing tints of primaries in squares of paper; coloring decorative arrangements around a center, and borders; mixing secondaries, and washing in tints of secondaries. This work correlates with the paper folding, the paper model making, but more especially and delightfully with the study of leaves and flowers.

The color work of the schools is not yet fully developed.

DRAWING.

Parallel with these lines of work, supplementing them and auxiliary to them, the child draws. He represents all he handles and studies in the early grades of the school; and he makes representative specimens in the later years of his course. In the beginning he draws only what he sees; later he draws the forms of what he is to make, as well as the working-drawings for them, and the patterns for them, before he makes them.

He has been learning to see fully and accurately; he has also been learning to represent truthfully.

LANGUAGE.

In all the work the child represents what he sees and what he does, in good English idiom.

This is no small part of the purpose of the work. He has learned the relative value of word representation and of graphic representation, and learns to employ the two when one is inadequate to show what it is desired to express in its exactions.

ART.

The child in all this correlated work has been developing the art sense, the art feeling, and the love of art.

He is learning what art is. Throughout the work he is led to invent by change of form and by composition of form. He is led to study the need of decoration, the purpose of decoration, the character of the thing to be decorated, and the kind of decoration suited to it. He is led to get motives from nature, from art, and by composition. He is taught, by doing, the art principle, selection.

As conceptions of forms and colors increase, more attention is given to the development of the power of selection and arrangement. This is done in the grouping of fruits and vegetables for object drawing; in the adaptation of units to space; in the selection of suitable curves to modify such units; and, lastly, in the use of natural forms by seeking for the type form, deciding which type form is best adapted to the space, and rejecting details that interfere with the conception of this form as adapted.

The child is early led to apply the law of selection to what he does, which is discriminating between the principal, or the essential, and the subordinate, or the non-essential. The artisan, the artist, and the author, alike, must, to succeed, skillfully apply the law of selection. It distinguishes between the necessary and the accidental, between the essential elements and those that are ornamental, auxiliary, or complementary.

The beginning of power to select appropriately marks the birth of the artistic sense. Its correlated applications are the beginnings of judgment in other affairs.

The details of the course of training that is here suggested may be modified to suit circumstances or tastes, or both. Such a course affords all employment in handicraft that the schools of the grade for which it is intended will have time to give. It exercises the eyes and hands for the development of accuracy in seeing, and skill and dexterity in doing, and for the acquirement of definite valuable knowledge ; its steps are sequentially graded and its employments logically grouped ; it furnishes employments suited to the intelligence, size, and strength of pupils, and is practicable in schools where pupils do their own work ; it is done with tools which adults would use for the same purpose, and it is therefore in no sense adapted or play work ; it supplements by the investigation it requires into nature and into historic facts, as well as by its treatment of them, and thereby enriches most or all the other studies of the grades in which it is done ; it provides a means by which the future artisan may lay a faultless foundation for a meritorious, delightful, and profitable handicraft, and at the same time it provides the only means by which it is possible to develop true art.

The schools of those grades in which this work is done give the same scholastic training to pupils who are to be laborers, business men, and professional men. That is the theory of popular education. Upon no other theory can the public free school stand.

In a corresponding way the schools may provide the early sense, hand, and judgment training for the unskilled laborer, the artisan, and the artist, as well as for him who will be neither of these.

One purpose of art teaching in our schools is to make a constituency for better workmanship and for artistic products of the artisan, as well as for art products. For the development of artists we are content to labor and to wait. A general demand for a higher grade of workmanship by the artisan will secure it. This, while it will be the evidence of an advancing civilization, nourished and stimulated by the gratification of its own demands, will develop a national standard of handiwork and later on a national idea of art.

Thus is it possible to develop a system of instruction which will give fullness of life in all its modes—life physical, life intellectual, and life moral.

The following schedules show what is being done in the city of Washington, D. C.

SCHEDULE A.

SUBJECTS.	GRADES.							
	First.	Second.	Third.	Fourth.	Fifth.	Sixth.	Seventh	Eighth.
Drawing:								
Pencil drill	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
From construction by the pupils	×	×	×	×				
From made objects	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
From nature	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
From original designs					×	×	×	×
From ornament from the flat				×	×	×	×	×
Working-drawings					×	×	×	×
Geometric problems							×	×
Modeling in clay:								
From made objects	×	×	×	×				
From nature	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
To measurement and from working-drawings				×	×	×	×	×
From the cast							×	×
From original designs							×	×
Carving in clay:								
Ornament from the flat, incised					×	×	×	×
Ornament from the flat, in relief					×	×	×	×
From original designs					×	×	×	×
Construction with other materials:								
Sticks	×	×						
Paper folding and cutting	×	×	×	×	×			
Development in paper from working-drawings	×	×	×	×				
Designs, applied:								
To clay					×	×	×	×
To paper construction					×	×	×	×
To cloth					×	×	×	×
Language	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Color	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×

SCHEDULE B.

Tools and Materials in the Hands of Children.

GRADES.	Clay.	Sticks.	Tablets.	Pencil and paper.	Colored paper.	Heavy manilla paper and cardboard.	Tools for modeling and cutting.	Mucilage.	Scissors.
First	×	×	×	×	×			×	
Second	×	×	×	×	×			×	
Third	×			×	×			×	×
Fourth	×			×	×			×	×
Fifth	×			×	×	×	×	×	×
Sixth	×			×	×	×	×	×	×
Seventh	×			×		×	×	×	×
Eighth	×			×		×	×	×	×

THE HEALTH OF SCHOOL CHILDREN AS AFFECTED BY SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

BY G. STANLEY HALL, PRESIDENT OF CLARK UNIVERSITY, WORCESTER, MASSACHUSETTS.

[AN ABSTRACT.]

THE development of education in nearly every country of the world in the last few years has been amazing. Not only in civilized, but in lands till lately uncivilized or half-civilized—in New Zealand, Algeria, Finland, as well as in India, South America and Japan—schools and school systems have become methods of colonization and of political influence. They now do the pioneer work once done by missionary preaching; and even the missions of the world are more and more teaching stations. Schools have a control over the bodies and minds of children five or six hours a day, for five or six days a week, which is greater than the control ever exercised by any other institution in history. Schools are uniformizing the knowledge and the sentiments of the world: men of all creeds, races, ranks, those who differ in everything else, unite in believing in the efficacy of schools. This is a *consensus omnium gentium* which the mediæval church long sought, which philosophers have postulated, and is now more practical and comprehensive than either have ever dreamed. The modern school is thus in a sense a church universal, and has all that deep consecration of a belief—a love now well nigh universal.

When a child begins to go to school the change of his environment is very great. Instead of constant activity, he must now sit still and keep still; instead of moving his hands and arms freely, the strain of effort is now focussed upon the very few, tiny, pen-wagging muscles. The eyes, instead of moving freely, are confined in the zig-zag treadmill of the printed line. It is no wonder, therefore, that the child so commonly loses weight on first entering school; that short-sightedness and other eye troubles increase almost regularly through the school period; that headaches, anæmia, scoliosis, defects of development if not signs of disease appear in stomach, heart, and lungs, and especially in the nervous system, the gradual deterioration of which is so hard to recognize (see the well-known works of Hertel, Key, Warner, Cohn, and others). If the school is tending to physical deterioration and toward a sickly age, as certain mediæval institutions are said to have caused the dark ages and the plagues, we ought to know it. The school ought to develop a sound mind in a

sound body; for what shall a man give in exchange for his health, or what shall it profit a man if he gain the whole world of knowledge and lose his own health? I hold that it is not too much to say that everything about the school—building, seats and desks, hours, subjects and methods of study—should be determined primarily with a view to health, on which, especially in children, even morality so largely depends.

In much of what follows I am immediately indebted to the studies of Dr. William H. Burnham, who has devoted the entire year in his course of Pedagogy at Clark University to hygiene, and who has allowed me to examine and condense his far more extended and detailed studies, a part of which are now in press for the "Pedagogical Seminary." Of his studies, much of what follows is simply a digest, and to these the reader is referred.

The body of the growing child is a mazy federation of cells, freighted by heredity with reverberations from a past, the remoteness of which we can hardly conjecture. It is so infinitely plastic that there is nothing in the environment that does not affect it. Every effort of thought modifies the temperature of the brain, and every effort of the muscles increases the products of waste and modifies circulation, while fatigue and all its demoralization is always lurking to prey upon the body and mind. Yet so little does science know of many of these problems that the body might almost be called a laboratory marked "No admittance;" while for the average teacher the ignorance of the psycho-physic organism of the child is profound.

The schoolhouse, which has been called more important for the development of the average child than the home itself, ought to be a palace of health. I proceed to sketch very roughly the salient points culled partly from laws, which are far more detailed in Europe than here, partly from norms recommended by educational bodies, and partly from ideals described in various books.

A. *The Site.*—This should be high, dry, a natural and not artificial soil, with no foreign matter in it; is sometimes tested by boring; marl, lime, or sand ingredients being good, and clay bad. It must be remote, if possible, from liquor saloons, the noise of machinery, offensive or unwholesome odors, marshes, ponds, graveyards, dust, or any form of nuisance or danger, and the street should, if possible, be asphalted near it. One norm prescribes that the distance of the schoolhouse from all other buildings should be twice their height.

B. *Yard.*—This should be enclosed by a hedge rather than a high wall, or by some transparent enclosure, that children may see the life of the street, and that all passers-by may see and be interested in the children, their play, and the school. The yard should be a porous earth rather than brick. Some norms prescribe three square meters per child as the minimum. Sheds for play in rainy days, often with glass roofs, are very

common, especially in France. A few simple, permanent pieces of gymnastic apparatus are perhaps more common in Germany. In more rural districts school gardens containing a few medicinal plants, and even a few poisonous ones to be avoided, flower-beds, a bee-hive, a tiny hot-house, and even individual beds for children to be responsible for, etc., are often found.

C. *Basement and Walls.*—All the building should be undercellared; should never contain water-closets; janitor's quarters, especially pantries, should be separated from the rest of the cellar by tight walls; the floor should be cemented; the basement should be kept scrupulously clean and well ventilated, and more or less heated. Some norms prescribe a water-table all round the building, a meter wide and plastered, to prevent the ascent of ground moisture. The walls should contain plenty of air chambers, and be strong enough for an additional story. Steps up to the building should always be protected above and on the sides, or, better yet, within the walls.

D. *Floors.*—The lower floor, for the youngest children, should be at least a foot or two above the street level, should be of boards neither too hard nor too soft, but splinterless. Hamburg legislates on the cracks in the floor, which have been found to contain almost as many bacteria as the filth under the finger-nails of children. The thickness of the floor boards should bear a fixed ratio, often prescribed, to the distance between the joists. There should be no dry sweeping, and the floor might sometimes be washed with a weak sublimate. Some ideals avoid all corners and angles by means of curved moldings such as are sometimes found in hospitals. All ceilings should not only be double, but should contain sound-deadening layers.

E. *Halls and Stairs.*—The halls should be wide, light, well ventilated, so that not only clothes-racks and umbrella-stands can be placed in them, if necessary, and sometimes bookcases, etc., but that exercises may be held in them. This is, of course, quite ideal. The stairs should be at least a yard and a half wide, with steps broad and not too high, and corners not too sharp. The stairway should always be broken by one or two landings, never circular; should be of brick or iron, or some fireproof material, should have hand-rails on both sides, should be light, warm, and ventilated.

F. *The Schoolrooms and Windows* should contain no posts or pillars, should be from three to four meters high; the walls of the room should be of some mild color—light blue, green, yellow, or gray. If a wood finish can be afforded, pipes for gas and water, and electrical and other connections, should not be covered. Some laws prescribe the proportion of length of room to its breadth as two to three, some as three to five. The ratio of the window surface to the floor has been regulated by many laws, and in point of fact has been found to range from one-third to

one-ninth. There is little uniformity as to exposures, but south and east seem on the whole preferred. There should be no direct or reflected sunlight. Windows in front of the pupil are worst, those behind better, and windows on the left of the pupil are preferred. Windows should be openable,—a horizontal axis preferred,—should go to the ceiling, and be square and not curved at the top. The height of the top of the window should be at least three-fifths the width of the room. The bottom of the window in one norm must be a meter and a quarter above the floor; another law prescribes a minimum distance of one and a fourth meters between windows, but they should be as near together as possible. Dr. Cohn thinks that each child should see the sky from his seat, and has devised an instrument to determine the amount of sky visible to each child. He would have a photometer used in each schoolroom, and suggests, as the norm, what would be equivalent to the reading of good diamond type at a distance of ten inches. The door should be a meter wide, never behind the children, should open outward, and should have a transom. The cross piece bearing the number of the room should be as high as the eye of the average child in that room.

G. *Heating and Ventilation.*—I am inclined to agree with the sentiment of Dr. Burnham, that whoever says that any existing system is superior to all others is either uninformed and crotchety, or else an agent. Architects, as a rule, know almost nothing of heating, and still less of ventilation. It is these matters in which false economies are most often practiced. Living, as we do, at the bottom of a sea of air, where it takes as much force to move 100 lbs. of air as it does 100 lbs. of iron, we forget too that each day has its own problem. Many an excellent system is quite ineffective because not well managed through the ignorance or carelessness of a janitor. To change the air in a schoolroom completely once in every twenty minutes or half-hour, as should be done if each child has on an average only 1½ square meters of surface and five cubic meters of air space, is a very grave problem. The "school smell," and the injury foul air works in the blunting of faculties and the deterioration of tone, is due not so much to the carbonic acid as to the organic matter in the air of which this in the index. One ideal system is heating at frequent intervals all over and through the floor, with gratings and pockets to prevent the ascent of floor dust, by a central system regulated by thermometers in each room, with electrical contact shutting off or letting on heat automatically—a system, however, involving great expense, and therefore not generally practicable. Jacketed stoves, with air coming directly from out-doors, are used in country schools. Open fire-places with their great waste are now sometimes resorted to in despair of a better system. This whole matter is a very complex bundle of problems in physics, as yet but partially understood, and still less often well applied.

H. *Cost and School Architects.*—The German Government prints once in ten years an account of all educational buildings of all grades, each of which is described in tables of fifteen columns. An interesting method of presentation here found is to calculate always the cost of the entire building per cubic meter, per square meter, and per child, and also the cost of heating, ventilating, and plumbing per cubic meter. Educational architecture in Europe, while not exactly a vocation by itself, has an increasing number of experts, and has a vast and rapidly accumulating literature.* Within the last decade and a half the number of buildings erected has been enormous; a single *lycée,* recently finished in Paris, cost nearly two and a half million dollars; a single university building in Vienna, nearly four million dollars; and for all grades of education the present might almost be called an architectural epoch. Even very special institutions, like school baths, school dormitories, eye clinics, school and university gymnasia, have elaborate laws or norms full of details and specifications, while the views of the tax-payer and the doctor, which are perhaps most opposed on the question of expense, are complicated and confused by the traditions of carpenters and the ideas of convenience by teachers.

I. *School Seats and Desks.*—These are most important for the child. Sharp corners and angles must be avoided; the teacher desires convenient visibility of as much of the child's body as possible, ease and quickness of getting in and out; while the doctor insists on adjustability to every part of the body with severely orthopædic exactness. Before Barnard's epoch-making work, which prompted a German writer to say that the school desk was the only contribution of America to pedagogy, seats sometimes ran around three sides of the room, so that the children sat with their backs toward the center and must swing their feet over the seat to get out. In Freiburg, where many thousand children were lately measured, the difference in total height, and the way that the total height was distributed between back, legs, etc., was found to vary. Thus, the method of marching before a scale, in the presence of the janitor, the numbers on which designated the seat proper for each scholar, seemed inadequate, convenient and rapid as it is for approximating a fit for seats. The body should be held upright, in a healthful, symmetrical position, with least muscular effort. Seats which favor bad positions tend to lateral curvature of the spine, and interference with the functions of chest and stomach. The desk should overlap the seat by an inch or two; that is, the so-called "distance" should be minus. When the lower leg is at right angles to the floor, and the foot rests squarely, the lower part of the upper leg should touch the seat with the lightest possible contact. The distance from the seat to the floor is not the same for two persons of the

* See "Pedagogical Seminary," Vol. I. No. 3.

same height, and foot-rests, both horizontal and inclined, are very common in Europe. To get the distance from the top of the seat to the top of the desk, the child should sit erect, and the distance from the seat to the elbow, plus 2 inches, is a common rule. The ideal seat and desk are of course adjustable to fit each child, and children should be re-seated two or three times a year.

J. *Writing.*—This is the most important question of school orthopædics, and concerns especially the spine and eye. The position in writing now much commended in Germany is perfect uprightness of the body, both arms resting symmetrically in front and upon the desk about two inches from the elbow; the copy-book square and in the middle, not slightly to the right, and not obliquely to the edge of the desk. The new vertical script now introduced, either as an experiment or permanently, in a number of places in Germany (Vienna, Bavaria, Würtemburg, Bohemia), brings the pen on the down strokes perpendicular to the line, and the line is a very short one. [Samples of these copy-books were shown.] Paper straight, writing straight, body straight, is the motto of this script of the future, and indeed of a not very remote past. It is easier and more rapid. One observer found that over ninety per cent. of the children, when required to change from the old method of writing to this, straightened up the body, and when changed back to the old script, fell into the "collapsed" position, and twisted the head so as to keep the axis joining the two eyes perpendicular to the direction of the down stroke of the pen. This latter position brings the eyes to unequal distances from the letters, and, some think, is distinctly productive of optical disorders. The new vertical script favors an engrossing pen with no sharp lines; the pen must point toward the elbow, which must be held one hand's breadth from the body; the pen must be grasped at a good distance from the point, the hand supported by the side of the nail of the little finger. The line is only from eight to ten centimeters long, and the paper must be pushed up after each line. One writer says he can always tell by the position of the body what script is used. One of the worst positions ever devised is one which has been introduced in some parts of this country, that requires the child to sit with its right side to the desk, and the left turned away almost at right angles to it.

K. *Reading Hygiene.*—The zig-zag of the eye in reading lines and discriminating letters throws great strain upon the nervous centers involved. Many of our reading books are now printed in very good type, but dictionaries, atlases, and maps are often wretched. Cohn, and especially Javal and Sanford (see *American Journal of Psychology*, Vol. I. No. 3, on the "Relative Legibility of Letters"), have made very careful studies of this subject. The scientific problem is, how to secure the greatest amount of legibility for a given surface, without interfering too much with the traditions of type-makers or of readers. The forms of a few letters, like the small

"e," which has a very low degree of legibility, and is confused with other letters at the least distance from the eye, are very slightly changed, as are the common rules of spacing, and all with great gain to the eye. The latter moves along a line with its focus directed to the upper half of the letters, for in English it is in the upper half that the letters are chiefly distinguished from each other. The little lines in letters should never be less than a quarter of a millimeter in thickness. The lower lengths of the "j" and "y" can be slightly shortened. The line should not exceed ten centimeters in length, and new rules are laid down for spacing and leading.

I have spoken of but few points connected with school hygiene, and of these in the most sketchy and inadequate way. The subject requires a course of lectures, and there is nothing in all the school courses of study that should not be considered from the standpoint of health. Fatigue in school work brings not only distaste, but habits of inaccuracy and carelessness, and thus blunts the "school conscience." Burgerstein has shown by elaborate experiments and careful tabulation of the kinds of error made in simple arithmetical operations, based on the study of a large number of school children, that fatigue begins far sooner than was supposed, while over-effort brings increased speed of work, but greatly increased number and kinds of error. His studies are of great importance. Lakorsky thinks that the fourth hour is degraded in value 33 per cent. less than the first hour, by fatigue.

We know now that school children grow far more rapidly in certain years than they do in others, and that during the stationary years they are most liable to disease. It is possible that we may infer that during the growing years they both catch and originate the most new impressions and ideas, but are most easily injured by strain and fatigue. Again, we know that growth is greatest at certain periods of the year, and yet again that the body does not grow uniformly in all directions at once, but that the energies of growth are focussed now upon hands and arms and their centers, now upon chest and trunk, or face, or sex. Other experiments are showing us what are the most effective hours of the day for work. We are making progress in obtaining a table of normal interests of children. Just as the hand is dwarfed if too great strain is thrown upon it in drawing or otherwise, before its "nascent period," while it would thrive and grow strong under the same strain just after, so, if an interest is forced precociously, its development is arrested.

School life and work may cultivate a habit of haste, rush, nervous impetuosity. It may develop sluggishness, apathy, indifference, and distaste for all the exquisite pleasures of intellectual activity. It may foster a diathesis of care, anxiety, and worry, and I sometimes think that the method-cram is breeding a morbid neurosis of its own (for all form and no substance is straining to the mind; as one of our humorists says, "To kick at nothing is wrenching"). Or, finally, the school may bring new

interests and deepen old ones, and deliberately foster a habit of repose and reserve which is not incompatible with eager curiosity. Nothing is so worthy of love and reverence and devotion as the soul and the body of the growing, healthy child, and no institutions can be so noble as those which have for their object to bring these to most complete maturity.

DISCUSSION.

[Reported by Mr. J. H. Blodgett, of Washington, D. C.]

Supt. Barrington, of Newark, N. J.: What is your view of the mid-session recess?

Dr. Hall: It is of the most vital importance. Every moment over a half hour's attention by the younger children in the primary school is a source of error through a slackness of attention. The no recess plan is an abomination.

Supt. J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.: Would you teach the girls especially as to ascent and descent of stairs?

Dr. Hall: There are elements of the greatest importance in the question, and details are given in the authorities named.

Supt. W. B. Powell, Washington, D. C.: What is the physiological effect or influence of attempting to read that which is not understood by the pupil?

Dr. Hall: All that a child is called upon to do that he abhors is hurtful, except so far as it trains the will.

Supt. Greenwood: What influence has the school had in causing myopia and other eye difficulties?

Dr. Hall: American conditions have developed a most wonderful type of the human eye. It is injured by using it under unfavorable conditions.

Supt. Treudley, of Youngstown, Ohio: In the matter of writing, what is the influence of "lattice" ruling?

Dr. Hall: It is of vastly more importance to have the lines exact in their relation to the axis of the eye than it is to have any ruling that does not produce this condition. Vertical letters and lines are considered better than slanting lines, and such writing is coming into great favor in many sections. Physiologically, it is the correct method.

SUPT. BOUTON, of Bridgeport, Conn.: What is the result of investigations made with reference to the use of blackboard and slate?

DR. HALL: Black lines on a white surface are about one-third better than white lines on a black surface.

SUPT. TARBELL, Providence, R. I.: What is the effect of copying from the blackboard to the slate or paper, thus frequently varying the focus?

DR. HALL: The effect is likely to be beneficial; it acts as a relief by change.

SUPT. TREUDLEY: How long should pupils of primary grades be held to close attention?

DR. HALL: The intensity of child life is greater in America than in other countries. Primary children should never be held to continuous attention more than half an hour without change and respite.

SUPT. GILBERT, of St. Paul, Minn.: What do you consider the best color for blackboards?

DR. HALL: Black and white are best for contrast.

SUPT. GREENWOOD: What especial influence is temperature supposed to have in matters educational? There seem to be radical differences in different countries. Is this due to different climatic conditions?

DR. HALL: This matter has received much attention in several countries, but reliable results are not attainable. Children can work better in summer than in winter, according to some hygienists. The reverse is claimed by others. We must have a surplus energy to use in the work; the child must therefore be comfortable. Various methods of heating and ventilating have been devised at different times and in different countries. One plan was to use a perforated floor, the air to pass through the perforations and out through the ceilings. I mention this as a novelty.

SUPT. A. P. MARBLE, Worcester, Mass., said he was much delighted with the exhaustive *resumé* of the opinions of experts in all these various directions. The paper was an invaluable treatise on the subject; but he desired to point out some of the difficulties in securing the best conditions. The ideal method of introducing warm air into a schoolroom, as set forth by an expert, was itself extremely faulty. To force the warm air through minute perforations in the floor and allow it to escape by means of its own rarity through the ceiling, is open to the very grave objection that in this way all the air to be breathed by the pupils comes up through the dust of the floor and all the inevitable

impurities brought into the room on muddy shoes. Children would breathe in a perpetual cloud of impalpable dust impregnated with bacteria, bacilli, and all sorts of fatal *microcosms* and infinitesimal creatures with magniloquent names—in other words, the dust of a school-room floor is not fit to breathe. Now, if such a difficulty exists in an ideal system, how far from perfect must the real systems be! In contemplating the difficulty in securing perfect sanitary conditions for children, Mr. Marble called attention to the fact that the healthy human animal has the power of adapting himself to varying conditions. Of all creation man alone (with the exception of the house fly, perhaps) can live in all climates. He can winter amidst Arctic ice, and summer in tropical heat. He can work by day in the deadly gases of the sewers and be healthy and strong. While attempting, then, to secure the best possible sanitary conditions for school children, which is a plain duty, at the same time is it not well for us to devote some attention to work from the other end of the line? With the automatic heat-regulator and damper, and along with the adjustable seat, should we not try to develop bodies robust enough to withstand the inevitable climatic changes—to develop the adjustable boy!

Dr. White, of Ohio: Are the educational conditions of to-day less favorable than they were twenty-five or fifty years ago?

Dr. Hall: The demands are more exacting.

In concluding the discussion Dr. Hall said: "After all, I have much sympathy with the notion that the old district school was excellent in its day. But everybody thinks that we can do much better. The demands are far different; the problem of to-day is much more complex. But we shall be able to solve it with much success, and moreover we shall be able to meet in large measure the changing demands of our growing nation. In doing all this we shall be obliged to give much attention to the questions of health and morals. Good bodily health is the most favorable condition for good moral health. A study of the various phases of the health question, as presented in the paper this morning, will be found valuable, as the results of the most patient investigations are there given in reliable detail."

THE RELATIONS OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARY TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

BY W. H. BRETT, LIBRARIAN, PUBLIC LIBRARY, CLEVELAND, O.

In speaking of the relations of the public library to the schools, I use the term public library in its common acceptation, as including only those libraries intended for the use of the entire community, and free as the schools are free. I do not attempt a discussion of the use of books in connection with any theory of education. I assume, however, and the discussions to which we have listened during this meeting strengthen the assumption, that there is a strong desire and earnest effort to broaden and enrich without attenuating the course of study in the grammar schools, and it is with grammar schools that I am particularly concerned. I assume that the varying and to some extent contradictory plans which are urged for this purpose have *this* in common—that they are disposed to free themselves from the exclusive use of text-books—text-books which are too often mere quiz-compends—and to study literature, history, and the natural sciences by a broader and more attractive method. This implies the use of books and suggests the library. The desirable relationship between the school and the library is one of mutual helpfulness, and is eminently a practical one. I have nothing new to offer. If I can collate a few familiar facts in such a way as to illustrate the value and emphasize the necessity of the coöperation of the teacher and the librarian, I shall have accomplished my purpose. The public library is the creation of the last sixty years, and the substantial development of the common-school system is included in the same period. These sixty years of the life of our country have been years of vigorous growth, boundless expansion, marvelous activity, and undreamed of progress. They have witnessed changes in the conditions of business and manufacturing which amount to an economic revolution. The shoe-shop, the hat-shop and the tool-shop of each town and village have been replaced by great manufacturing establishments, employing their hundreds or thousands of operatives, and selling their products in every market. The little shop is being replaced by the great bazar, where one may purchase anything from a pin to a piano. An army of shop-keepers and small manufacturers have felt their business slip from their grasp, and have been thrust over into the crowded ranks of the wage-earners. It is not wonderful that a large and increasing population has not been able without friction to pass through such a revolution,

and cannot without difficulty and distress accommodate itself to such changed conditions.

When we consider that this transformation has been accomplished within two generations, and that while it has been in progress the country has received and begun to assimilate an immense immigration, it is, indeed, wonderful that the hardships are not greater, and the discontent more general. One result of this has been a widespread dissatisfaction with the prevailing educational methods, and a demand for some change which will render education more helpful in the struggle for existence. The answer to this has been sought in different directions. An earnest movement has progressed with increasing volume during the last twenty years for the popularization of education. The Chautauqua Circle, the societies for home study, University Extension, and other similar activities, have for their purpose the sharing of that culture which will sweeten and enrich the life, and bring content, even though it put no money in the pocket. Seeking the answer in the opposite direction, it has been urged that the public school should aim to fit its pupils to earn a living, should give them information which has a money value, should to some extent replace the obsolescent apprentice system.

This demand ignores real education. The aim of the school is character, not livelihood. Given this, and that will follow. It would fit its pupils to live a life, not merely earn a living; it would set their feet in that way where, if they continue to walk therein, they will reach true manhood and womanhood. It does not aim to turn out mechanics and cooks, mere bread winners and loaf dividers, but men and women, feeling sure that the nearer they attain to that full stature, that rounded character, the stronger will they be to meet the difficulties of life, the more able to solve its problems. It has refused to introduce the commercial spirit, the atmosphere of the workshop and the market, into the schoolroom. Remembering the words of Plato, it does not teach arithmetic with the purpose of a shop-keeper, but for its mental discipline. It does not teach geography to make commercial travelers of its pupils, but that they may look out on this world which God has made and crowned with beauty. It would link together physical and political geography and history not as being independent subjects, but parts no one of which can be understood except in its relation to the whole. It would teach history in the spirit of that father, who, presenting his boy a set of books, wrote this: "To my son, this history of the world. May he never find it too large for him." I believe that there is a place for the library in this broader scheme.

The public library system has shared the quickening impulses of the times and has made its greatest growth within the last twenty years. If the passage of the various public school library laws, beginning with that of New York in 1827, may be regarded as its genesis, its exodus may be dated from the centennial year. In that year was published the

special report of the United States Commissioner of Education, which gave an account of the condition of the libraries of the country, with full statistics, a consideration of their various relations and apparatus. It gave to all the benefit of plans and ideas which a few progressive men had elaborated. To many it was a revelation and a release, breaking the cumbering fetters of antiquated methods, and leading them into broader fields of usefulness. In the same year, the American Library Association and the *Library Journal* were founded, which, in bringing librarians together and furnishing a medium for communication and discussion, have materially aided further progress. The School of Library Economy, established in 1887, is teaching the science and art of librarianship, broadly and thoroughly, and its graduates are doing a missionary work throughout the country. The more recent appointment of its founder to the position of State Superintendent of Libraries for New York is a step from which great results may be expected. The educational value of libraries has been substantially recognized in the willingness with which the people tax themselves for their support, and in magnificent gifts for their foundation and enlargement. Within the past ten years, more than as many millions of dollars have been given in a few large sums, and the smaller benefactions have been numerous.

According to the statistics of the Commissioner of Education, there were in 1876, in the public libraries of the country, in round numbers, twelve millions of volumes in twenty-five hundred libraries. In 1885, nine years later, there were twenty millions of volumes in five thousand libraries, an increase of fifty per cent. in libraries, and sixty-six per cent. in books. No later statistics have been published; but the intervening years have been full of growth, and it is fair to assume a large additional increase. These statistics include college and other libraries, but the public libraries form a large part of the totals given.

The important function of the library as an independent educational institution is to supply the means of self-culture. This includes the wide range from books suited to the smallest capacity and slightest attainment, to those which a liberally educated man may need in pursuing his studies in any field of thought or knowledge. Another is to furnish information on the practical arts. This ranges from a cook-book or a work-shop manual to text-books for advanced professional and technical studies. In this it resembles the American university with its college of the liberal arts, and group of professional and technical schools. The best equipped library does not give systematic instruction, nor prescribe a curriculum. It has no means of holding the sluggard to his work. It carries the elective plan to its last possible development. It is the work-shop of the earnest student.

The proper administration of a library includes not only the selection and collection of its books, their arrangement and custody, but also their

distribution, and so far as may be helpful the direction of their reading. To extend the facilities for distribution, branch libraries and delivery stations are established in many of the larger cities. These are helpful, but not entirely adequate, and multitudes in our large cities are practically out of reach of the libraries, and the little help in the choice of books which can be given to any individual is often entirely insufficient. It is in these important functions of the distribution of its books and the direction of their reading, that the coöperation of the school is needed by the library.

Since the organization of the American Library Association in 1876 no subject has been more frequently or earnestly discussed than that of reading for the young. Not merely to supply them with books, but to stimulate reading and guide it to higher levels, to educate a discriminating judgment and to inspire with a love for reading, have been the recognized duties of the librarian. To secure definite information I addressed notes of inquiry as to their work with the schools to the librarians of all public libraries in the country which appeared to have more than 5,000 volumes. The replies were prompt, full, and interesting. As I have them tabulated, twenty-two States extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific are represented. The general tenor of the replies indicates that librarians throughout the country are alive to the importance of the work. A few only of the whole number report that they are doing nothing further than to promote the individual use of the library by teachers and pupils. Many buy books with especial reference to the needs of the school, and give personal direction to the pupils. Some devote particular hours of each week to the school children. In one library the entire time of an assistant librarian is given to this work. It is a position requiring a rare combination of information, tact, and enthusiasm. This personal association is the most potent and valuable means of influencing the reading of the child; but while the teacher has perhaps fifty children whom she meets daily, the librarian has many times that number whom she can only meet occasionally and irregularly. Their relative opportunities for influencing the child may be measured and the need of the teacher's coöperation emphasized by this comparison. Much help has been given to this work by the publication of lists of good books for young people. Some of these are general, others graded to meet the requirements of the successive classes in school. The superintendent of education in West Bay City, Mich., has prepared lists giving the names of from seventeen to twenty-five books suitable for each grade from the fifth to the twelfth inclusive. They begin with the "Rollo" books and embrace a wide and progressive selection, until the list for the highest grade includes Draper's "Intellectual Development of Europe," Thoreau's "Walden" and Emerson's "Conduct of Life." The reading of from two to five of these books is required each year, and a test of the thoroughness

with which they have been read is made a part of the examinations upon which promotions are based.

The first recognition of the special needs of the teacher, and the first systematic attempt to make the library useful to him in his professional capacity, has been the issue of special cards allowing the drawing of additional books for use in the school. This plan has come into general use during the last few years. The number of additional books varies from two to six. In some libraries ten or more additional books are placed in a school for the use of the pupils. For these books the time of retention is usually, but not invariably, extended.

The library is also used as a reference and study room by teacher and pupil. Most libraries have, in addition to those reference books which are fundamental, various illustrated and other books which are of interest in connection with the school work. These are invariably placed at the service of the schools, and are largely used. In a few cases they are sent to the class-room when needed. In many libraries special rooms are provided to which the teacher may bring a class for an illustrated lesson.

The Worcester, Mass., public library has been a pioneer. A record of its work would serve as an epitome of the best that has been done in the public libraries of the country, for the public schools. The present librarian, from the beginning of his twenty years' administration, established and has maintained the most intimate and cordial relations with both teachers and pupils. His office has ever been open, his time and that of his assistants at their disposal, and the whole library theirs to use.

His next step, taken more than twelve years ago, was the issue of cards to teachers permitting them to draw six books for school use. This was followed a little later by a card on which twelve books could be drawn for the use of pupils—thus allowing each teacher eighteen books. In addition to this, small reference libraries were placed in some of the schools, and in 1886 collections of fifty books each were placed in four schools. This plan was successful and has been still further extended. Twenty-five or fifty copies of the same book have in some cases been furnished in order that an entire class might read it simultaneously. During all this time a large individual use of the library by pupils has been encouraged, and the pupils made to realize that in its relations to them the public library was a department of the public school.

Col. Higginson, speaking of the work of Mr. Green, says, "He has succeeded in linking the schools and library so closely that he and the teachers, acting in concurrence, indirectly control the reading of the whole generation that is growing up in that city."

I have thus fully described the work of the Worcester library as being especially noteworthy, both for the length of time during which it has been carried forward, for its thoroughness and efficiency, and as including

most of the plans for placing the library at the service of the schools, which are in use in any part of the country. In only a few places have any part of these plans been amplified or new features introduced.

The Detroit Public Library has had since 1888 a contract with the Board of Education by which it furnishes collections of books of from thirty to fifty volumes each to the high and grammar schools. The Board of Education becomes responsible for the books, and transports them to and from the schools. They are sent out eight times annually. Collections of books were provided especially for this purpose.

The Chicago Public Library is issuing books on a similar plan, and sends out 3,000 to 4,000 volumes per year.

The St. Louis Public Library is working earnestly in the same direction, though seriously hampered by the fact that the library is not a free one. Membership cards have been issued to pupils at half price. In one colored school twenty boys, under the influence of an enthusiastic teacher, bought library cards with money earned by shoveling coal and doing errands.

The Fletcher Free Library, of Burlington, Vt., has been issuing books to the schools since 1882, practically without any limit as to number of volumes or time retention.

The Milwaukee Public Library is systematically issuing collections of books to schools of the fourth to eighth grades, inclusive. These books are issued to the teacher for two months at a time, and she may re-issue them to those pupils who have cards entitling them to draw books from the library. From December, 1890, to July, 1891, there were 4,096 books issued to the schools, which were again issued by the teachers to the pupils, 15,120 times.

"There are now" (I quote from a letter of February 8) "about fifty teachers issuing books to their classes, with an average of forty books to a class. These classes are distributed among nineteen schools.

"Besides proving of inestimable value in the school work, we find the parents reading the books as well; a large proportion of the increased direct circulation being attributable to this method of circulation, through the school into the home. The books most called for are those of science and travel, with a sprinkling of wholesome fiction. Many of the schools have libraries of their own, and draw books from our library to supplant their own collections. For example, a teacher just taking up United States history sends to the library for twenty or thirty books dealing with the early period. The same plan applies to the study of other subjects."

This account is quoted from a letter written by the superintendent of this work in the Milwaukee library, who had formerly, as a teacher, been unusually successful in interesting her pupils in reading by the use of books drawn from the library. Dr. Linderfelt, the librarian, gave a circumstantial account of this work, speaking in the highest terms of its

value, and concluding with the remark that they would sooner think of giving up any other department of the library.

The Cleveland Public Library has for the past seven years issued special cards to all school-teachers, permitting them to draw books, and in some cases to keep them for a longer time. It has also endeavored to give to the pupils of the schools every facility for reference, work, and study. A convenient room has been used by classes, both of the public and private schools, for studies in history, geography, and art.

The library is also issuing books to the teachers for the use of their pupils, on a plan similar to the Milwaukee library. They are, however, issued for the entire year, with the privilege of exchanging any part, or the whole of them, at any time. Our last year's experience, however, was that a well-selected collection of fifty volumes will interest a school of about the same size during the entire year, and comparatively few exchanges were made.

The assistant librarian, who has the school work in charge, aims to visit each school once each month, advising the teacher beforehand of the day and hour of her visit. She checks the books to see that they are all accounted for, examines their condition, and arranges for any exchanges that may be desired. This is as effective in protecting the library from the loss or improper usage of its books as a frequent return of the books to the library, is less expensive, and has a great additional advantage in that it does not interrupt, even for a day or two, the use of the books. The teacher is at liberty to issue these books to her pupils for home use at her own discretion, and without requiring them to be vouched for at the library and receive a card. The teacher is held responsible for their return to the library, and for reasonable care. The teachers have almost invariably issued the books freely for home use, and very few of the pupils drawing them were holders of library cards. This is the third year during which this plan has been in operation. During the last two, of which we have had over three thousand volumes in active use in the schools, we have thus far lost three volumes, and the books have received more careful usage than the average of those issued from the library in the regular way. This work in Cleveland was suggested by a conversation several years ago with one of the supervising principals. She spoke of the marked superiority in general information shown by the pupils of a school situated near the library over those of another farther away—a superiority which could not be attributed to any home advantage, but which she believed was due to the fact that they were within easy reach of the library, and used it largely. As a fruit of this suggestion, the issue of a few books was begun to some more distant schools. The only object thought of at first was to place books within reach of pupils who were too remote from the library to conveniently reach it; but in operation it has developed such additional advantages as to justify the opinion that it

would be a desirable method of placing books in the hands of the pupils, even if the schoolhouse stood next door to the library. At the present time we have books in use in one hundred and one schools, from the third to the eighth grades inclusive, distributed in thirty-one buildings. The collections vary in size from fifteen to fifty volumes, and average a little more than thirty; all the books available for this purpose, a little more than three thousand, being in use. Many more could be used at once, as every teacher who has less than fifty books would be glad to have her collection made up to that number, and we have received additional applications which we are unable to fill. With a selected library of twelve or fifteen thousand volumes it would be possible to carry this plan not only through all the public schools from the third to the eighth grades, but through the parochial schools. The influence upon the community of such a work, carried forward intelligently and thoroughly for a series of years, is incalculable.

The quality as well as the quantity of the books issued gauges the value of this work. Of the books in use at present 41 per cent., or something over twelve hundred volumes, are classed as juvenile stories. Among them are a large number of Miss Alcott's, Susan Coolidge's stories; these, with Mrs. Burnett's "Lord Fauntleroy" and Mrs. Dodge's "Hans Brinker," are much sought after. There is 4 per cent. of fiction, including Cooper, Mrs. Stowe, and Mrs. Whitney; 10 per cent. biography, 11 per cent. travels, 13 per cent. history, mostly of our own country, 9 per cent. literature make up the list.

The opinions of librarians throughout the country, and the opinion of teachers as reflected by them, is almost unanimous as to the value of the books in the schools. I have little direct opinion of teachers, except of those in the Cleveland schools. I recently sent a circular of inquiry to those Cleveland teachers who had been using books long enough to enable them to form an opinion.

I asked, among other things, whether any special means had been adopted to interest the children in the books and induce them to read. To this the reply of many was that no special means were necessary. One teacher says, almost pathetically: "They need no incentives. They prefer their books always to their school books. Their minds and hearts are set upon them." She is still using her books, however, and I imagine is able to keep the too intense interest of her pupils within reasonable bounds. Some read extracts from books, tell stories from them, refer to volumes of travels from the geography lesson, or to an author from an extract in the reader. One strikes the keynote when she says: "I am interested myself." I also asked whether any attempt was made to ascertain how carefully and understandingly the books were read. To this I received a great variety of answers. Some talk with the pupils about the books, or encourage them to give oral or written accounts of

what they have read. Some reply that the pupils frequently make remarks upon subjects under discussion in the classes which show that they are reading intelligently. One teacher of the seventh grade has required from each pupil a written abstract of each book read. By some the books are grasped as a whole, and their salient points noted in a way that seems remarkable for children of that age.

In reply to a question as to the favorite books, while there was a decided preponderance in favor of story books, still there was a surprisingly large number who preferred history, travel, biography, and natural history. American history with its stirring stories and travel, spiced with adventure, is a prime favorite with the boy, and a strong rival of the story book for his affections. There seems to be nothing which exactly takes this place for girls.

To the inquiry as to whether books interfered in any way with the school work, the answer was an almost unanimous "No," and in most cases an emphatic statement of their great helpfulness. Two teachers only out of the fifty thought the reading interfered with the work, and a very few mentioned cases of individual pupils in which it had been a hindrance, though in the main helpful. A number of teachers spoke of some boy, particularly difficult to manage, who had been transformed by becoming interested in books. Some teachers have made the use of particular books as a reward for specially good work; others have taught lessons in neatness by refusing to let them be taken in dirty hands. Several speak of their influence in replacing trashy reading. Among the benefits most frequently mentioned were improvement in the use of language and broader information in history and geography.

Thus far the questions concerned the direct effects of the books in the school. I was also informed that the books issued for home use were largely read by other members of the families, that they were in many cases going into homes where there was very little other reading matter, and that the parents and older brothers and sisters were greatly interested in them. Several instances came to the notice of teachers in which books had been bought as a result of the interest awakened by the library books. This may not seem of any special importance to the school, but it certainly does affect the pupil, as does anything which improves his home conditions.

It has been said that if you wish to really educate a boy you must begin with his grandmother. In this way we can at least work back to the parents.

In the language work of the Cleveland grammar schools for the present month there are not less than seven distinct subjects drawn from history, biography, travel, zoölogy, and manufactures, no one of which could be satisfactorily studied in any text-book used in those grades. This implies the accessibility, and compels the use, of a collection of books.

One of the subjects noted is amphibious animals. What a fund of entertainment and information any fairly stocked library contains on a single one of those animals, the beaver! What a different thing will the page of the geography which gives an account of Chili be to a boy who has read the interesting descriptions of those "Yankees of South America," and their country, given by Knox, or Childs, or Curtis! Coffin's "Old Times in the Colonies," or Irving's "Washington," will illuminate the pages of his United States history for a boy. He will read between the lines a hundred interesting things which the boy beside him knows nothing about. These are only suggestions of the many ways in which the use of books will enlarge and enrich the school course, will transfigure the dull pages of the text-books with the glow of romance, and transform their dry leaves with warm pulses of life. But beyond and even more important than the assistance which reading may give to the other work of the school is the formation of the reading habit. If a boy can leave school acquainted with even a few good books, with a taste so discriminating that he will hold his reading up to even a materially high standard, and above all a love for books, he has a precious possession, something that will be worth more to him than any study in the curriculum, something that will not only help him in his daily work, but will throw a safeguard about his leisure hours.

I have thus indicated some of the advantages to the school work of the free use of books. It is too soon to express a decided opinion as to the best method of supplying books to the schools. The plan of placing collections of books in the charge of each teacher for her own pupils has decided advantages. Such collections can be used effectively in all schools, from those primary grades which have acquired the mechanical art of reading, to the highest grammar schools; that is, from the third to the eighth years, inclusive.

The advantages of issuing them from a central library, whether it be the public library or a special one for the purpose, are great. It assists the teacher in the care of the books, and is a check on any negligence. It affords the advantage of greater variety, and an opportunity to exchange books when desired, and brings expert skill to the work of selecting and cataloguing. Collections of books would of course be progressively graded, and in some of the higher grades instruction might be given in the use of reference books. The pupil entering the high school needs and should be prepared to use a large library. A small collection of books will not meet his requirements. He must look either to the library of the school or the public library. The use of the library by the pupils of the high school is an important and desirable thing, but not difficult to secure. They gladly avail themselves of it, and only require the same measure of courtesy and attention which is due to all its users. The work in the lower grades is of vastly more importance. They contain that great majority who never

reach the high school, and include those whose opportunities are least and whose needs are greatest. In the grammar schools of Cleveland there are now about ten thousand pupils, and in the high schools less than two thousand. The figures read from this platform yesterday show a still greater disproportion in the country at large. This means, carried forward a little, that not one in five of the pupils in the grammar grades to-day will ever enter the high school. Whatever is done for these boys and girls must be done for them now. Let the resources of our libraries be used to the utmost for their benefit. They cannot be used more worthily. Let the teacher and the librarian unite their best efforts to help these boys and girls to read and to enjoy reading. Then, though their school days must end so soon, their education will go on. Then will they never lack that stimulus and strength, that solace and comfort, which are the portion of those who truly love and rightly use good books.

JOHN AMOS COMENIUS.

EXERCISES IN COMMEMORATION OF THE THREE HUNDREDTH ANNIVERSARY OF HIS BIRTH, 1592–1892.

I.

His Private Life and Personal Characteristics.

BY JOHN MAX HARK, D.D., OF LANCASTER, PENNSYLVANIA.

On this occasion, when you are gathered together here, as representatives of the noble cause of popular education, to call to remembrance the services rendered that cause by one of its most heroic pioneers, it is but natural and altogether proper that most stress should be laid on Comenius the schoolman. Yet will it not be deemed improper, I trust, if I briefly speak of him simply as a man—the man whose intense patriotism and fervent piety, whose loyalty to his country and his God, were the very traits out of which grew all his educational work, and an acquaintance with which will help to make the latter more correctly and fully understood.

There are several portraits of John Amos Comenius extant, all of which agree in representing him as a man of stately bearing, dignified and venerable; with a face refined and eminently intellectual, crowned with a high forehead; a heavy beard covers his long chin and partly hides a sensitive mouth, while the soft, gentle eyes are full of a profound sadness, that gives to the whole expression a sorrowful cast as pronounced as that on Dante's face; but, in place of the settled gloom and sternness of the latter, there is markedly present a look of tender yearning, and even of confident hopefulness. Perhaps this latter, however, would not appear so plainly in his outward features did we not know it to have been a leading feature of his soul. At all events, whether visible in the flesh or not, these characteristics were all present in his life. They are clearly revealed in all his works, and shine forth distinctly through all his history, which is preëminently that of one who, with Lowell, could say:

> "'Tis sorrow builds the shining ladder up,
> Whose golden rounds are our calamities,
> Whereon our firm feet planting, nearer God
> The spirit mounts, and hath its eyes unsealed."

A less large-hearted man, one whose sympathies and interests had been narrower and less all-embracing, might perhaps, even in those terrible times in which Comenius lived, have been capable of some comfort, at least contentment, and even enjoyment. But not so he, whom Herder aptly describes as "a noble priest of humanity," and one "whose single end and aim in life was ever the same—the welfare of his brethren, *i.e.*, of all mankind." He was "a man of sorrows and acquainted with grief," in the same sense as He whom the Hebrew prophet describes; for he bore not only his own personal trials, but the burdens of all his people as well, because of the fervor of his patriotism and the depth of his devotion to his brethren in the faith, and his "dear mother" the Church of the Unitas Fratrum.

Well might his personal afflictions alone have crushed and overwhelmed his spirit had he been cast in a less heroic mold. Born at Niwnitz, a market-town in Moravia, on March 28, 1592, the cup of bitterness was offered him early to drink; for when scarce ten years old he lost his father, and two years after his mother. His guardians, he tells us in his "Prodromus," neglected him, though he was sent to the schools of the Church of which his parents had been devout members, thence to the theological seminary in Nassau, and two years after to the University of Heidelberg. If he ever enjoyed a season of comparative freedom from care, it must have been during this period, and when after graduation he traveled in Holland, and probably to England. Scarce was he settled as pastor at Fulneck and rector of its schools, a few years after, when the prolonged horrors of the Thirty Years' War began. Fulneck was sacked by Spanish mercenaries, Comenius's dwelling and school destroyed, and his entire library with all his manuscripts burned, while he himself had to hide, and finally flee for refuge to Brandeis on the Adler. Here, to add to his sorrows for his countrymen and brethren, his young wife and her babe both died that same year, leaving him homeless, childless, wifeless—desolate indeed, and well-nigh in despair. But the Divine Helper was at hand, to prove to him that—

> "Through the clouded glass
> Of our own bitter tears, we learn to look
> Undazzled on the kindness of God's face."

The cellar of the house is still shown, and near it a stone memorial erected in 1865, where, one sleepless night, he sprang from his couch to find in the Word of God the comfort denied him of men. It came to him while prayerfully reading Isaiah's marvelous prophecies, and straightway seizing his pen he wrote for the help of others in like distress his spiritual experiences, his struggles in the slough of despond, and his final triumph through the manifestation in his heart of the Saviour himself, the Suffering One, revealing unto him the mysteries of joy in pain, and victory in defeat.

Scarce was he married again when his refuge at Brandeis had to be abandoned, and he became an exile from his country and a pastor of the congregation of refugees at Lissa, in Poland, fulfilling in his own experience what had been foretold the banished Florentine poet in such touching words :

> " Thou shalt abandon everything beloved
> Most tenderly, and this the arrow is
> Which first the bow of banishment shoots forth.
> Thou shalt have proof how savoreth of salt
> The bread of others, and how hard a row
> The going down and up another's stairs."

There, though he dwelt in outer security for about twenty-eight years, he lost his second wife, Bishop Cyril's daughter, after she had borne him one son and four daughters ; and later, in 1656, at the capture of Lissa from the Swedish invaders, went through the same bitter experience as at Fulneck, again losing his entire very valuable library with all his other property, and once more being forced to flee for safety to another land, finally settling at Amsterdam. Well might the aged man pathetically exclaim at the end of his career : " My whole life was merely the visit of a guest ; I had no fatherland."

Yet he never complains of his own troubles. His lamentations are all for his country and his Church, often coupled with stern reproof for their past sins and shortcomings. We can well believe that to such a man his own tribulations were the least part of his sufferings. His worst trial was to behold his beloved native land bleeding from many wounds, invaded, and trodden ruthlessly under foot by a foreign foe, until not one in three of its inhabitants was left; and to see his dear Church persecuted, pursued, driven from her strongholds, her members killed or scattered, and she, a second Rachel, weeping for her children because they were not. Not his own, but the pain of others, pained him most. For his was a sensitive, profoundly sympathetic nature. He loved his country with a deep and true love, and was attached to his Church with the tender affection of a child for its parent. We have proof of this at the very beginning of his priesthood, when the intrigues, injustice, and cruel oppression of the Jesuits were forcing Bohemia and Moravia into revolt against their faithless sovereign, and at Fulneck he wrote his " Cry of the Oppressed Poor to Heaven," in which he passionately bewailed the lamentable condition of his people. We note it in his " Citadel of Security," composed during his enforced leisure at Brandeis, in which he tried to cheer and encourage them in their afflictions. His letters to Oxenstiern, just before the treaty of Westphalia, when he learned how Sweden was about to break all her promises with regard to restoring the Moravian exiles and protecting them in their political and religious rights, show

how deeply pained he was at heart, at the same time that they are bold protests, and cutting reproofs of the wrong, full of the courage and devotion of a pure-minded patriot; as are also his words on the same subject in his History. If it be true, as has been asserted, that Comenius aided and abetted the Swedes in their invasion of Poland and capture of Lissa, it is but evidence of the same sentiment. He still hoped that Sweden might restore his exiled people and Church to their homes. He hailed the invader because he looked upon him as a liberator of his native land. Nor did his sympathy and love grow cold when afterward, far away at Amsterdam, he used his high position and influence to raise large sums of money for the exiles, to gain positions for hundreds in England and Sweden, and to make Amsterdam itself an asylum and headquarters for banished Moravian and Bohemian Protestants.

Never was pastor more self-sacrificingly loyal to his flock than he, from the day of his ordination in 1616 to the end of his life. Even after the sack of Fulneck he continued visiting and secretly ministering to the members there from his hiding-place in the forest. Before finally leaving Bohemia, he had made a perilous journey in behalf of the Church to find an asylum in Poland or Hungary. Afterward, at Lissa, in Amsterdam, wherever he was and however busily engaged, he ceased not to pray and care for his brethren, remaining their true and faithful bishop to the end; in pastoral letters, preached and printed sermons, and on frequent visitations, admonishing, instructing, cheering, and encouraging them as a friend and spiritual father and guide. Did his duty to his Church call, he was ready at any time to drop his school-work, as he did at Prerau, in order to obey what he deemed his highest call. For first and foremost he was and always remained a pastor, and a minister of the spiritual mysteries of God. An ardent patriot he was; a famous educator, scholar, and author, whom princes loved to honor; but before all else he was a Bishop of the Unitas Fratrum.

Yet we should make a great mistake did we suppose that his restless zeal and untiring labors were prompted only by pity and the desire to afford temporary relief to the oppressed. His motive was a deeper, higher one, and sprang from the very distress and suffering of his own soul and of his dearly loved Church and country. Deeper than all his pain and anxiety, more basal and abiding than any mere emotion or occasional depression of spirit to which he was subject, was the firm, unwavering, ever-present hope, the truly prophetic conviction, that from the present death that was threatening there would be a resurrection into a new and better life, when the scattered members should be gathered together from the four quarters of the earth, and the essential Unitas Fratrum should renew her youth as the eagle's. He mourned indeed and lamented at the evident signs of decadence and decay which his clear vision could not fail to see in the exiled Church, even in the midst of her outer security and seeming prosperity in

Poland. He felt that she was slowly dying. But he knew that the good and true in her could never die. And this made him confident and strong. Sense and reason, looking only at the things which are seen and are corruptible, told him the end was drawing nigh. But faith and hope, with steadfast face beholding, assured him of things not seen and eternal. In the face of apparent defeat, destruction, and ruin for all that he loved best, the heroic man deliberately planned and persistently worked for a future that never seemed more distant, more chimerical, more utterly impossible than it did then; namely, the restoration of his people to their native land, and of his Church to her original purity and strength. From this time forth to the end of his days, though the prospects grew darker and ever darker, he lived and labored *in spem contra spem*. How was this restoration to be accomplished? He did not know. When would it be brought to pass? He did not ask. All in God's own time and way. Sufficient for him that it surely would be done. So that all his energies were bent to fit and prepare his people for the event when it should come.

To this end, he reasoned, two things were essential: First, education, popular, universal; the education of men for manhood, with all its rights and duties; "for all who have been born human beings," to use his own language, "general instruction to fit them for everything human." Secondly, the maintenance of the old spiritual landmarks; keeping in remembrance the original principles and ideals, and in order to this, as far as possible, the pure practices and discipline of the Church, so that among the exiles themselves there should be left a remnant at least, a "hidden seed," from which the new growth might spring up and multiply.

If the renewed Bohemia and Moravia were ever to become a permanent reality, it must be with a people renewed in intelligence and virtue. With the capture of Prague, a systematic crusade had begun against all institutions of higher and popular learning, and the destruction of everything literary that was not distinctively Roman Catholic. Protestant and Catholic historians alike bear testimony to the consequent lamentable decay of all learning and literature. Says one of the latter: "I do not know of a single scholar, subsequent to the expulsion of the Protestants, who distinguished himself by his learning. . . . Throughout the kingdom nearly all the schools were in the hands of the Jesuits or the ecclesiastical orders, and little more than bad Latin was taught." Under such circumstances, Comenius knew there could be no such thing as a permanent rejuvenation of his fatherland; for a people's prosperity is dependent upon its intelligence, and a nation's stability upon the righteousness of its inhabitants. Hence, to prepare the rising generation for the new era that was to dawn, he set to work—in the language of the latest historian of the Unitas—"to lay the foundation of an educational system, simple in its structure, suitable to the minds of children, exercising their faculties, fitting them for

the most important avocations of life, and preparing them for their eternal mission. . . . 'From the school there should proceed a new people; from the family, a new school.'"

It was with this end in view that, soon after his arrival at Lissa, and even before assuming the rectorship of the college there, he began his series of educational works on which his fame in the world at large is chiefly based, and whose value and importance are to be treated later in this evening's exercises by those more competent than I to speak authoritatively on the subject. Nor need I dwell on how these writings at once attracted all the civilized world's attention, and made kings and parliaments solicit his aid in reforming their systems of instruction; how he went to England, Sweden, Holland, Transylvania, was wanted in France, and almost came over here to America, as Cotton Mather tells us, "to Illuminate this Colledge and Country in the Quality of President" of Harvard; how his plans grew, and his purpose broadened, till it embraced all knowledge for all mankind—all this is well known to you.

When we remember that all the time that he was engaged in this educational work he was also, since his consecration in 1632, bearing the responsibilities and faithfully performing the labors pertaining to the holy office of bishop, the general oversight of the scattered church, his immense official and private correspondence, attending synods and conferences, until his resignation in 1641 acting as rector of the college at Lissa, whose entire constitution and system of instruction he radically reformed; and, finally, besides his sermons, also prepared and published, in accordance with his fixed general purpose of fitting his people for their final restoration, his edition of "Lasitius's History of Bohemia," with a lengthy introduction and conclusion of his own; the very next year, 1650, wrote his pathetic and beautiful "Last Testament of the Dying Mother, the Brethren's Unity," instinct with faith and love and hope, and that broadly catholic spirit which so distinguished him; published a new edition of his translation of the "Ratio Disciplinæ," with a new dedication and exhortation, besides a "Biblical Manual," and many other theological and devotional works—when we remember all this, I say, we cannot but be amazed both at the fertility of his mind and the stupendous energy and capacity for work of this wonderful man. Never was a fuller, more laborious life.

His originality probably nowhere shines forth more clearly than in his educational work. Yet such was his humility that he did not undertake the promulgation of his ideas until he had reluctantly been forced to the conclusion that there was no system of education then extant which would fulfil the large purpose and noble end he had in view. He was a stranger to anything like selfish ambition, and could honestly affirm "that these forty years my aim has been simple and unpretending, indifferent whether I teach or be taught, admonish or be admonished, willing to act the part of

a teacher of teachers, if in anything it be permitted me to be so, and a disciple of disciples where progress may be possible."

As characteristic as his humility was that eminently practical turn of mind—sound common sense we now would call it—which distinguishes his educational writings, though not more than his religious works and his official and private course of action everywhere. It was this that made him the thorough realist he was in all pertaining to the practical life of men; and it is all the more marked because along with this trait there was also unmistakably present in his mind a decided vein of mysticism, which at one time led him temporarily astray in his theological views. Is this not often so, that mysticism and the most practical realism go together? Are they not perchance only two phases of one and the same fundamental character, and that, too, of the strongest, grandest, and best characters produced in our humanity? They are the poet's distinction, the true poet, who is not less a "maker" because also a dreamer; and the prophets as well, if indeed poet and prophet be not one and the same, whose

> "Clearer eye should see, in all
> Earth's seeming woe, the seed of Heaven's flowers."

And Comenius had a poet's spirit, as his exquisitely conceived and written "Labyrinth of the World and Palace of the Heart" would alone be sufficient to prove—a prose poem written in his retreat at Brandeis, and still popularly read and prized as one of the gems of Bohemian classic literature—every way worthy to be called the forerunner of Bunyan's somewhat similar allegory.

Certainly in Comenius the practical and the mystic were closely joined, the accompaniments, if not the result, of an unusually refined, gentle, sensitive nature. The latter's fate it always is to be most liable to be tossed between the extremes of hope and fear; even as Comenius not seldom suffered from gloom and despondency, and then again rose to almost ecstatic heights of sanguine hope and expectation. Yet seldom did this really unbalance him. It went no deeper than his feelings. The sound, practical element invariably asserted itself, having the deeper hold on his nature, controlling his judgment and reason. While deeper even than this, enduring, persistent, unshaken by storms of circumstance or ebb and flow of passion, the *primum mobile* of his being was his firm faith in God, and fixed confidence in the justice and truth of him who is the Eternal Love.

It was this, rooted in his strong Czech character, that was the basis of that pertinacity of purpose and persevering hopefulness in the midst of defeat, disaster, and every opposition and contradiction, that gave him the clear gaze of a seer into the future, the firm utterance of a prophet of the Unitas Fratrum. When in midwinter of 1628, at the head of a band of refugees, he crossed the frontier mountains between his home and the

land of exile, looking back for the last time through his tears to behold his dear fatherland once more, he knelt down on the snow-covered mountain top and broke forth in this impassioned cry to his God: "Wherefore dost Thou forget us forever, and forsake us for so long a time? Lead us back to Thee again, so that we may again return home. Renew our days as of old!" And ever after he trusted in the fulfillment of that petition; he looked for it; he relied on it with absolute confidence and faith. All his activity thenceforth was carried on in view of the accomplishment of this prophetic hope. To this end his scholastic work was prosecuted; to this end his History was written; to this end his Church's "Confession of Faith" republished, and the "Biblical Manual," and the Bohemian and German "Hymnals," and the "Catechism for the Scattered Sheep of Christ;" and to this end, finally, and most important and significant of all, his second edition, in 1660, of the "Ratio Disciplinæ," with its strikingly prophetic dedication "To the Anglican Church, heretofore driven about by manifold stormwinds, but now seeing before her a haven of rest." By these publications he meant to keep firm the principles of the scattered brethren, the hidden seed of the future, to stir up their zeal, strengthen them in their patient waiting, and keep pure their original doctrine and discipline; and, on the other hand, he solemnly charged the Anglican Church tenderly to care for "our dear mother" the Unitas Fratrum, in her seemingly dying condition, until her restoration either in the home of her fathers or in some other land. "Whether God will deem her worthy to be revived in her native land," he writes, "or let her die there and resuscitate her elsewhere, in either case do you, in our stead, care for her. . . . You ought to love her, because in her life she has gone on before you, for more than two centuries, with examples of faith and patience. . . . We certainly ought to take care that such gifts may not perish with us, and that amidst disorder and confusion, as these now exist, the foundations of our Unity may not be so entirely ruined as to make it impossible for our posterity to find them." The whole work is aglow with a broad Christian charity and a catholicity far in advance of his times—scarce yet reached, alas! in our own.

He was indeed zealous for his Church, but not with the zeal of a bigot or sectary. In all his life and works he proved the sincerity of his noble words: "Let separate churches pass away, and ours with them, only let nothing that is good be lost, but rather be gathered into the common treasury of the Church universal." By word and example he labored for true Christian union everywhere. "Let all sects," he exclaims, "with their sympathizers and supporters go to nought. I have dedicated myself to Christ alone. . . . He knows no sects, but hates them, and hath given peace and mutual love to his own as their inheritance."

All this is in perfect keeping with those true and precious utterances wherewith he brought his literary labors to a close in his "Unum Neces-

sarium," which, he says, "John Amos Comenius, a Sire, in his seventy-seventh year, exhausted by the Unnecessary Things of Earth, and striving for the One Thing Needful, sets forth for the Consideration of the World." Well has it been said of this: "He has left no richer legacy. It is a solemn farewell spoken to the world by a grand old man; it is an aged saint's anticipation of coming glory." It is indeed the fit expression of a character such as is beautifully summed up by the historian Palacky: "In his intercourse with others Comenius was in an extraordinary degree friendly, conciliatory, and humble; always ready to serve his neighbor and sacrifice himself. His writings as well as his walk and conversation show the depth of his feelings, his goodness, his uprightness, and fear of God. He never cast back upon his opponents what they meted out to him. He never condemned, no matter how great the injustice which he was made to suffer. At all times, with fullest resignation, whether joy or sorrow was his portion, he honored and praised the Lord."

It is a satisfaction to know that the hopes and prophecies of this servant of God were, partially at least, fulfilled not many years after he himself had passed away, and that his own writings had so much to do with bringing that fulfillment about. Refugees from each of the eight congregations to whom his Catechism had been addressed by name helped to organize the Renewed Unitas Fratrum, soon after the beginning of Herrnhut in 1722; while the very aim with which his "Ratio Disciplinæ" had been republished was reached when Count Zinzendorf by reading it was constrained, as he himself tells us, to devote himself to the upbuilding of the Church on its original foundations. Moreover, through Bishop Jablonsky, Comenius's grandson, the last Bishop of the Ancient Church, whom he had helped to consecrate in 1662, the Episcopal succession was handed down to the Renewed Church, when he consecrated David Nitschman its first Bishop in 1735, but sixty-four years after the venerable saint had gone up higher, on November 15, 1670, in the seventy-ninth year of his pilgrimage, at Amsterdam. In the neighboring town of Naarden his dust lies buried, under the floor of the military barracks there, with no memorial of any kind, not even a tombstone to mark the spot—nor need of one—where lies he of whom we may as truly say as did Ben Jonson of Shakespeare,

> "Thou art a monument without a tomb,
> And art alive still, while thy work doth live,
> And we have wits to read, and praise to give."

II.

The Text-books of Comenius.

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"The special aims of pedagogy," says Comparye, "are essentially related to the general aims of science. All progress in science has its corresponding effects on education. When an innovator has modified the laws for the discovery of truth, other innovators appear, who modify, in their turn, the rules for instruction." Comenius was such an innovator. Men had been studying words without meanings, propositions without contents, and abstractions without realities. Francis Bacon had turned their intellectual efforts in another direction, toward the observation of nature, the study of concrete things, the formulation of laws not deduced from barren abstractions, but generalized from, and verified by, experience. Comenius sought to apply the rules of the Baconian philosophy to education. What his system is, what are the principles of his educational philosophy, will be set forth by Dr. Butler. As a prelude to his address, I have the honor to invite your attention for a few minutes to the school text-books Comenius wrote and left behind as a monument to his genius and his industry.

"Latin," says Comenius, "is the one language to be preferred to all others for schools, because it is the vehicle not only of Roman, but of all learning, and because it is the common language of the learned." But in what a deplorable condition was the teaching of Latin when Comenius first addressed himself to its reform? In 1614 Eilhardus Lubinus, an eminent theologian who edited the Greek Testament in three languages, as quoted by Professor Laurie, says of the teaching of Latin in his day: "When considering this matter I have, to speak the truth, been often led to think that some wicked and malign spirit—an enemy of the human race—had, through the agency of some ill-omened monks, originally introduced the method of instruction. And with what result? The production of Germanisms, barbarisms, solecisms, mere abortions of Latin, dishonorings and defilements of the tongue." In his *Novissima Linguarum Methodus* Comenius enumerates the evils of existing methods of teaching Latin. It is taught abstractly without a prior knowledge of the things which the words denote; Latin grammar is taught not only before a Latin vocabulary is acquired, but before the grammar of the vernacular is studied, and that, too, in the unknown Latin tongue; and, lastly, boys are compelled to take impossible leaps, from a grammar whose rules are meaningless to a literature that is beyond their comprehension, instead of

being carried forward step by step from the easy to the more difficult, from the simple to the complex.

To remedy these evils Comenius projected, in 1628, a first Latin book in which, to quote his own words as given by Professor Laurie, "all things, the properties of things, and actions and passions of things, should be presented, and to each should be assigned its own proper word, believing that in one and the same book the whole connected series of things might be surveyed historically, and the whole fabric of things and words reduced to one continuous context."

While meditating on this project, there fell into his hands a book which, he tells us, made him leap for joy. It was the *Janua Linguarum*, written by William Bath, an Irishman, born in Dublin, who was educated at Bauvais and Padua, and who spent the greater part of his mature years as Spiritual Father to the Irish Jesuit College at Salamanca, in Spain. This book was an attempt to arrange in twelve hundred short sentences all the common root-words in the Latin language. No word was repeated, and the Latin was accompanied by a word-for-word Spanish translation. This work, however, upon examination, did not satisfy the Moravian scholar, as it did not even pretend to connect the study of words with the study of things. And so, in 1631, he published his *Janua Linguæ Latinæ Reserata.* The full title is: "The Gate of Languages Unlocked; or, The Seminary of all Languages and Sciences;" that is, a compendious method of learning Latin, or any other tongue, along with the elements of all the sciences and arts, comprehended under a hundred chapter-headings and in a thousand sentences. The thousand sentences comprehended eight thousand different words, the Latin and the German equivalents being in parallel columns.

The sentences are simple at first, but afterward complex and compound. The subjects treated range from herbs and shrubs to dialectic, rhetoric, and geometry. The book was immensely popular, and was soon translated into nearly all the European and some Asiatic tongues. The "Vestibulum," an easier book on the same plan, was published in 1633 as an introduction to the "Janua." To the second edition of the latter work an easy grammar and an etymological lexicon were attached. The next book of the series, the "Atrium," in which the sentences are longer and more involved than in the "Janua" and "Vestibulum," is intended to serve as an introduction to the highest book of the series, the "Palatium; or, Palace of Authors."

Comenius not only wrote text-books, but he laid down strict rules for the method of study. I summarize the account of his method from Professor Laurie's exhaustive treatise on his life and writings. Each book was to be read ten times. At the second reading the whole should be written out, vernacular and Latin, and the teacher should begin to converse with his pupils in the Latin tongue. At the third reading the

teacher is to read the Latin aloud, and the pupil is to translate in the vernacular without seeing the printed page, and at the same time he is to copy out the syntactical grammar. At the fourth reading the remainder of the grammar is to be written out, and the words in the "Janua" are to be parsed. At the fifth reading special attention is to be given to the derivation of words. At the sixth reading synonyms and paronyms are to be explained. At the seventh reading the syntactical rules are to be written out once more, and examples under each rule collected from the text. At the eighth reading the pupils are to learn the text by heart. The ninth reading is to be devoted to a logical analysis of the subject-matter; and the tenth perusal is to be conducted by the boys challenging one another to repeat portions of the text.

All the while Latin compositions are to be written, "the vernacular being constructed by the teacher (apologues, fables, etc.) out of the words in the 'Janua' and its lexicon, and translated into Latin by the pupils. The afternoon is always to be spent in writing out the morning's work."

This method, it will be readily admitted, was sufficiently thorough. Indeed, it may well be questioned whether Comenius's plan of several readings, each with a distinct object in view, is not very much better than the system now in vogue—that of a single reading in which translation, composition, syntax, meaning, and analysis are all attempted at the same time.

In 1657, Comenius, probably finding his series too elaborate, published a simpler and better book than any of those mentioned. It is entitled *Orbis Sensualium Pictus*, "A World of Things Obvious to the Senses, drawn in Pictures." The pictures were made by Michael Endter, of Nuremberg, and are rude and ungainly to the last degree. All the same, however, they made the "Orbis" "the first children's picture-book," and for at least fifty years the most popular school-book in the world. From it mothers taught their children. From it schoolmasters taught not only Latin, but the vernacular of every language in Europe. From it many a boy gained his first general notions of the outside world, an acquaintance with things beyond the sphere of his daily life, strong impulses toward what is right and noble, and withal a mastery of the Latin language.

"The ground of this business," says Comenius, as translated in 1658 by quaint Charles Hoole, a schoolmaster of London, "the ground of this business is that sensual objects may be rightly presented to the senses, for fear they may not be received. I say, and say it again aloud, that this last is the foundation of all the rest: because we can neither act nor speak wisely, unless we first rightly understand all the things which are to be done, and whereof we are to speak. Now, there is nothing in the understanding which was not before in the sense. And therefore to exercise the senses well about the right perceiving the differences of things, will be to lay the ground for all wisdom, and all wise discourse, and all discreet actions in one's course of life."

Comenius's objects in this book may be summarized under three heads: First, to give an outline of all knowledge before anything is taught in detail; second, to connect a knowledge of things with the words which stand for them, both in a vernacular tongue and in Latin; and, third, to give a Latin vocabulary extensive enough for all the requirements of life. To serve these purposes, pictures alone, he is never tired of insisting, are not sufficient. The objects themselves must be closely examined; while the pictures should be not only observed and talked about, but imitated in drawing. He has thus fairly earned the title of first of the sense realists. But I now propose to let the pictures speak for themselves.

In Section I., labeled "Invitation," we are introduced to the boy, a plump but not a pleasing person, and to the master, a man "severe" and "stern to view," who has evidently all the frowns and none of the jokes of Goldsmith's schoolmaster. They are conversing on a barren plain, the only other living thing in sight being a wild animal apparently of some extinct species. In the background are a village church of the regulation pattern, the roofs of houses, and a couple of pyramids which are intended for mountains, but which look suspiciously like hayricks. The master invites the boy to "understand rightly, to do rightly, and to speak out rightly all things that are necessary." The boy answers, "See, here I am; lead me in the name of God."

And now we enter upon what, were we to judge from the pictures alone, might well be regarded as an unknown land. Comenius's artist sticks at nothing. He is ready to give pictorial representation to anything in the heavens above, or in the earth beneath, or in the waters under the earth. So grotesque are the forms depicted that one could almost imagine them pictures of life in another strange land discovered in a fifth voyage by Gulliver.

The gateway of this strange land is what Comenius calls a lively and vocal alphabet. With each letter is given a drawing more or less—generally more—unlike some creature whose sounds are supposed to represent the sound of a letter. "The crow crieth" gives the sound of *a*. "The lamb blaiteth" gives the sound of *b*. "The grasshopper chirpeth" gives the sound of *c*.

The remaining sections of the "Orbis Pictus"—one hundred and fifty in number—are each and all arranged on the same plan. An illustration is placed at the head of the section. The subject matter is given in two parallel columns—in the original, Latin and German; in the edition from which these pictures are taken, that published by Mr. C. W. Bardeen, Latin and English. Each detail in the verbal description has a number, and the same number is attached to the corresponding part of the pictorial representation.

In Section III., a representation of the world, we have a wood-cut showing an exceedingly ugly man and woman. One can fancy either one of

them saying, in the words of Touchstone: "A poor, ill-favored thing, sir, but mine own." The man sits on the edge of a boulder overlooking a sheet of water, on which are depicted a whale and a couple of seals. On the mudbank to the left are a horse, a bear, a lion, and a duck. Behind the mudbank rises a mountain covered with trees of the Noah's ark description; while eleven stars, a bank of clouds, and nine birds, one of portentous size, diversify the heavens. Underneath the picture is the lesson: "The heaven, 1, hath *fire* and *stars*. The clouds, 2, hang in the air. Birds, 3, fly under the clouds. Fishes, 4, swim in the water. The earth hath hills, 5, woods, 6, fields, 7, beasts, 8, and men, 9. Thus the greatest bodies of the world, the four elements, are full of their own inhabitants."

After this bird's-eye view, so to speak, of the world, Comenius passes to heaven, and then treats of fire, air, water, and clouds. In the section on air, however, he allows himself to depart so far from realism as to inform us gravely that "a wind under ground causeth an earthquake." So difficult is it for even the professed realist to be always realistic.

The next half dozen chapters are devoted to the fruits of the earth, which the artist makes anything but "pleasant to the eye." Out of gratitude, doubtless, to the Dutch, among whom he had found an asylum from persecution, he says of the tulip that it is *decus florum sed expers odoris.* "It is the grace of flowers, but affordeth no smell."

We now come to animals. A living creature Comenius defines thus: "A living creature liveth, perceiveth, moveth itself; is born, dieth; is nourished and groweth; standeth, or sitteth, or lieth, or goeth." The words of the definition are determined, you will observe, not more by the connotation of the term defined than by the necessity of introducing certain new words in the Latin tongue. Our author tries to teach a knowledge of all things visible and invisible, and at the same time to impart a Latin vocabulary coextensive with this knowledge.

Several sections are devoted to birds, upon some of which he is quite severe, as when he says: "The owl is the most despicable; the whoopoo is *sordidissimus*, the most nasty." In some cases his zoölogical scholarship is doubtful, as when he tells us that "the bittern putteth his bill in the water and belloweth like an ox;" or that the wild goat hath "very little horns," "by which she hangeth herself on a rock." Realist though he is, it seldom occurs to Comenius to question popular superstitions, for he tells us that "the unicorn hath but one horn, but that a precious one;" and that the dragon is "a winged serpent which killeth with his breath." Nor did he hinder his artist from distorting the actual in order to present a more complete view, as when he represents fish as swimming *on*, never *in*, the water.

Next we come to *man*. After an illustrated version of the story of Adam and Eve and the serpent and the forbidden tree, he gives, in Section

XXXVII., a picture of "the seven ages of man." We see the infant (1), the boy (2), the youth (3), a young man (4), a man (5), an elderly man (6), a decrepit old man (7). So, also, in the other sex, he continues: there are a girl (8), a damosel (9), a maid (10), a woman (11), an elderly woman (12), and a decrepit old woman (13). How faint an illusion on the mind would be produced by even a good picture of the seven ages when compared to that which flows from Jaques's noble speech in "As You Like It." After all, there is no artist like the artist in words.

The outward parts of a man, the head and the hands, the flesh and the bowels, the "chanels" and the bones, are treated in as many lessons, in a manner not materially different from that in which they are presented in modern object lesson-books; that is, in the true dry-as-dust style. But in Section XLII., "The Outward and Inward Senses," we have a picture that shows no small amount of ingenuity. In the center is a human head with a portion of the skull removed so as to show the convolutions of the cerebrum. Surrounding the head are the organs of the special senses. "The eye (1) seeth colors, what is white or black, green or blue, red or yellow." "The ear (2) heareth sounds, both natural, voices and words, and artificial, musical tunes." "The nose (3) scenteth smells and stinks." "The tongue (4) with the roof of the mouth tastes savors, what is sweet or bitter, keen or biting, sour or harsh." "The hand (5), by touching, discerneth the quantity and quality of things, the hot and cold, the moist and dry, the hard and soft, the smooth and rough, the heavy and the light."

The second part of this lesson, on the inward senses, is not farther removed from the comprehension of children than it is from our knowledge of the brain as developed by physiological psychology. "The common sense" (7), he says, "under the forepart of the head, apprehendeth things taken from the outward senses. The phantasie (6), under the crown of the head, judgeth of those things, thinketh and dreameth. The memory (8), under the hinder part of the head, layeth up everything and fetcheth them out; it loseth some, and this is forgetfulness."

The artist who made pictures for the "Orbis Pictus," as I have said, sticks at nothing. He has all the courage of Comenius's convictions. The last picture shows that he would leave nothing to the imagination of the child—that he would not have him learn the Latin for ear or tongue without a picture of the thing. He has his imitators in modern days among those who would not allow a child to learn to read the word "cat" without seeing a picture of that "necessary, harmless" animal. But no modern "fad" has been carried so far as Comenius carries his in Section XLIII., where he attempts the impossible, and presents us with a picture of "The Soul of Man." It is the outline of the human body thrown on a sheet. The first sentence of the text supplies a key to what at first sight seems inexplicable. "The soul," says Comenius, "is the life of the body,

one in the whole." Then he continues: "The soul is only vegetative in plants; withal sensitive in animals; and also rational in man. This consisteth in three things: In the understanding, whereby it judgeth and understandeth a thing good and evil, or true, or apparent. In the will, whereby it chooseth and desireth, or rejecteth, and mistaketh a thing unknown. In the mind, whereby it pursueth the good chosen, or avoideth the evil rejected." Hence is hope and fear, love and joy, anger and grief. "The true judgment of a thing," he adds, "is knowledge; the false is error, opinion, and suspicion."

In Section XLIV. attention is directed to "Deformed and Monstrous People." There is, as you see, a giant, a dwarf, and a two-bodied monster. In addition to these unhappy persons, he enumerates among monstrosities "the jolt-headed, the great-nosed, the blubber-lipped, the blub-cheeked, the goggle-eyed, the wry-necked, the great-throated, the crump-backed, the crump-footed, the steeple-crowned," and, growing rather personal, "the bald-pated." Evidently he was very far from having reached the idea that the human animal, when it attains complete development, will be hairless.

The remainder of the book is occupied chiefly with men's occupations. Like Juvenal, he makes *quidquid agunt homines* the chief theme of his book.

The lesson on hunting, Section LIII., is very amusing. The hunter, *venator*, on horseback, is in the act of piercing a wild boar with a great spear. The boar is closely pursued by a beagle, while *vertagus*, the "tumbler or greyhound," gallops along in front, pursued rather than pursuing. A very melancholy bear, held fast by a dog, is belabored by a man with a huge club. The stag is making straight for the "toyls." A wolf (6) has fallen into a pit, while two nondescript animals, labeled "hare" and "fox," are making off over the hill; and this leads our author to remark, somewhat after the manner of Dogberry, that "if anything get away, it escapeth." The time when mercy to the lower animals should be preached as a part of the moral law binding on all human kind had not yet arrived. Yet in our own day field sports are not a whit less cruel than in the days of Comenius.

Of the lessons on particular trades, Section LXIV., that on the carpenter, will give a good idea. "We have seen man's food and clothing," says Comenius, "now his dwelling followeth. At first they dwelt in caves (1), then in booths or huts (2), and then again in tents (3), at the last in houses. The woodman felleth and heweth down trees (5) with an ax (4), the boughs remaining. He cleareth knotty wood with a wedge, which he forceth in with a beetle (8), and maketh wood-stacks (9). The carpenter squareth timber with a chip-ax, whence chips (11) fall; and saweth it with a saw (12), when the saw-dust falleth down. Afterwards he lifteth the beam upon tressels (14) by the help of a pulley (15), fast-

eneth it with cramp-irons (16), and marketh it out with a line (17). Thus he frameth the walls together, and fasteneth the great pieces with pins."

In Section XCVIII. we have the picture of a school as it was in the first half of the seventeenth century. "A school," the "Orbis Pictus" tells us, "is a shop in which young wits are fashioned to vertue, and it is distinguished into forms. The master sitteth in a chair; the scholars, in forms. He teacheth, they learn. Some things are writ down before them with chalk on a table. Some sit at a table and write; he mendeth their faults. Some stand and rehearse things committed to memory. Some talk together, and behave themselves wantonly and carelessly. These are chastened with a ferrula and a rod."

The next picture might be taken for the original of Shakespeare's

> "lean and slipper'd pantaloon,
> With spectacles on nose, and pouch on side.
> His youthful hose, well sav'd, a world too wide
> For his shrunk shank."

But it is only the student in his study. "He picketh all the best things out of books," says Comenius, "into his own manual, or marketh them in them with a dash, or a little star, in the margent. Being to sit up late, he setteth a candle on a candle-stick, which is snuff'd with snuffers. Before the candle he placeth a screen, which is green, that it may not hurt his eye-sight; richer persons use a taper, for a tallow candle stinketh and smoaketh."

In Section C. there are four female figures; and I venture to say that no one who has not read the book will guess what they are intended to represent. The figure to the extreme left represents Grammar, which is "conversant about letters, of which it maketh words, and teacheth how to utter, write, put together and part them rightly"—an infinitely better definition than Lindley Murray's. The second figure is Rhetoric, which "doth as it were paint a rude form of speech with oratory flourishes." The third is Poetry, which "gathereth these flowers of speech and tieth them as it were into a little garland and so making of prose a poem." The fourth is Music, which "setteth tunes with pricks, to which it setteth words, and so singeth alone, or in consort, or by voice, or musical instruments." The lady is evidently performing a solo, to the great distress of Grammar, Rhetoric, and Poetry.

After a lesson on musical instruments we are somewhat abruptly introduced, in Section CII., to Philosophy. In the in-door scene to the right there is a table with a heap of counters, and a slate on which is written some kind of arithmetical problem; just what it would be difficult to say. Metaphysicus, the supernaturalist, who "searches out the causes and effects of things," is saluting Physicus, the naturalist, who "vieweth all

the works of God in the world." Apparently Comenius desired to impress upon his readers the superiority of Physicus over Metaphysicus.

In Section CIII. we get the first glimpse of geometry. "A geometrician," we are told, "measureth the height of a tower, or the distance of places, either with a quadrant or a Jacob's staff. He maketh out the figures of things with lines, angles, and circles, by a rule, a square, and a pair of compasses. Out of these arise an oval, a triangle, a quadrangle, and other figures." And so endeth the first lesson in geometry.

To geography two sections are devoted, and they are chiefly valuable as showing the deplorable condition of geographical knowledge so late as the middle of the seventeenth century. The first gives us a map of the hemispheres, and in the attached lesson we are gravely informed that "The ocean compasseth the earth about, and five seas wash it, the Mediterranean Sea, the Baltic Sea, the Red Sea, the Persian Sea, and the Caspian Sea. Besides," he adds, "the earth is divided into three continents, this of ours, which is subdivided into Europe, Asia, and Africa; America, whose inhabitants are antipodes to us, and the South Land, yet unknown." To cap the climax, the lesson ends with the truly extraordinary statement, "Infinite islands swim (*natant*) *in* the sea." With the change of a single inflection, he might have applied to his islands the words of Vergil describing Æneas's ship-wrecked sailors, *raræ nantes in gurgite vasto.*

In the second lesson on geography, Section CVIII., we have a map of Europe, on which are depicted twenty-eight chief kingdoms. Unfortunately, the numbers by which these kingdoms are designated are now almost obliterated; but I have read that, in an earlier edition than that from which this picture is taken, Finland was placed between Norway and Sweden, and the word Switzerland was printed in capitals across the Black Sea.

From geography to moral philosophy is an abrupt transition; but it is that which the student is next called upon to take. In Section CIX. he shows us an allegorical picture of life: on the left, the broad path that belongs to vice; on the right, the narrow way that is the way of virtue. "Mind, young man," he exclaims, "imitate Hercules; leave the left hand way, turn from vice, the enterance is fair, but the end is ugly and steep down. Go on the right hand, though it be thorny, no way is impassable to vertue, follow whither vertue leadeth through narrow places to stately palaces, to the tower of honour." But with characteristic caution he adds: "Take heed thou do not go too much on the right hand."

Then follow the virtues, personated by most unprepossessing female figures. Prudence, Section CVIII., like Janus, has two faces. With one she gazes in a looking-glass on things past. With the other, through a "perspective glass," she watches things to come. "She watcheth opportunity (which, having a bushy forehead, and, moreover, having wings, doth quickly slip away) and catcheth it."

Diligence is represented with a Tam-o-Shanter cap, a sickle in one hand and a rake in the other.

Temperance, which "restraineth the desire as with a bridle," is apparently pouring liquor with no unstinted hand from a bottle into a bowl, while in the background are several intemperate persons who seem to be very sick indeed.

Fortitude is a stalwart female, fully accoutered as a warrior, with a sword in one hand and a shield in the other. She leans against a pillar and seems to have just got the better of a lion, which is walking away with most dejected mien.

Patience kneels, with a lamb on one side and an anchor on the other, in the attitude of prayer, while at a little distance one very impatient person tears his hair, and another kills himself by falling on his sword.

Justice sits on a square stone, "for she ought to be immovable, with hoodwinked eyes, that she may not respect persons, stopping the left ear to be reserved for the other party," and holding in her right hand a sword to punish, a bridle to restrain, and a pair of scales to weigh.

The most amusing, however, of these allegorical representations is that of Humanity (Section CXV.). Two stout women, whom the artist makes more than usually repulsive, are embracing. Whichever is the uglier bids the other be "sweet and lovely in her countenance, gentle and civil in her behavior and manners." In the background are seen two pairs of "froward men," one pair wrestling, the other fighting a duel with swords. In the front two turtle-doves are billing and cooing, while in the extreme distance Envy, a miserable looking object, "pineth away herself."

The remainder of the book is occupied with subjects of a miscellaneous character. There is a picture of a marriage ceremony, in which the bride has a face like a hatchet, and the groom is a simpering idiot. The various degrees of relationship are shown in a "tree of consanguinity." The course of a boy's life is shown from the cradle until, with a most mournful countenance, he is seen reading a good book, and laboring with his hands. Masters and servants, the parts of a city, a court of justice, and the tormenting of malefactors—depicted with details too horrible for description—are each treated in a separate section. A ghastly picture of a burial is succeeded somewhat incongruously in Section CXXX. by a stage play. The attention of the audience is divided between the return of the prodigal son and the clown who is performing his antics and cracking his jokes. Then come various sports, such as the fencing-school, tennis, "that is the sport of noblemen to stir their bodies," dice, cards, and chess, foot-racing, and all manner of children's sports, which differ but very slightly from those that may be seen every day on our own streets.

Chapters on Warfare, that are illustrated with cuts fearfully and wonderfully made, are followed by one on Religion, which he divides into Gentileism, Judaism, Christianity, and Mohammedanism.

It is curious to observe, however, how far this good and highly intellectual man was from being able to divest himself of the superstitions of his time. In writing of God's providence, Section CXLIX., he says: "Men's states are not to be attributed to fortune or chance, or the influence of the stars," and naïvely adds, "comets, indeed, are wont to portend no good." In the picture a man is supposed to be giving his right hand to a good angel, while with his left he repels the devil, who is trying to put a noose around his neck. Behind is a witch who is drawing a circle around herself and calling upon the devil with charms. "Wo," exclaims Comenius, "to the mad wizzards and witches who give themselves to the devil; they dally with him and fall from God; for they shall receive their reward with him." Comenius was once invited to become president of Harvard College. He had passed away, however, before the horrors of the witchcraft delusion fell on New England.

After a truly shocking illustration of the Last Judgment we are again, in the last section, brought face to face with the same chubby schoolboy who started out on this strange journey through an unknown world, and the same stern schoolmaster who was his guide. "Thus," says the schoolmaster, "thou hast seen, in short, all things that can be shewed, and hast learned the chief words of the English and Latin tongue. Go on now and read other good books diligently, and thou shalt become learned, wise, and godly—*doctus, sapiens, et pius.*"

It would not be difficult to point out the faults of the "Orbis Pictus." The vocabulary is as far beyond the child's powers of memory as are much of the subject-matter and many of the terms used beyond his comprehension. In his old age Comenius himself admitted that he had attempted too much; that it is better to know a few things well than many things poorly. From his face you may clearly judge that his whole life was an exemplification of Chaucer's noble line regarding the clerk of Oxford:

"Gladly would he learn and gladly teach."

We may smile at the rude pictures, we may deplore the attempt to give an outline of all knowledge and a complete vocabulary at a single dose in one book. But we may well ask how far we have advanced since his day. There are those among us, we must confess, who still believe that the vocabulary of our own language is to be learned through a book that has all of the defects and none of the merits of the "Janua" or the "Orbis Pictus"—the modern spelling-book. We may laugh at the quaintness of many of his sentences, but let us not forget that we ourselves were required to translate into French sentences such as, "The old kitten of the young cat smiled pleasantly from the back fence of the house of the uncle of my mother's cousin." His text-books were a great advance on those he found in use. They were in advance because he followed the lead of the Baconian logic. The evolution of text-books has progressed just in proportion

as their writers have followed the laws of investigation in natural science. That such an evolution has progressed and is still progressing, there can be no doubt. The spelling-book and many other school books are but the reversions to primitive barbarism that accompany every form of evolution, whether physical, intellectual, or social.

III.

The Place of Comenius in the History of Education.

BY DR. NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, COLUMBIA COLLEGE, NEW YORK.

Travelers in distant lands describe rivers which are seemingly absorbed by the sandy desert. They disappear and leave little or no trace behind them. After a time, perhaps many miles away, the stream reappears. It gathers force and volume with going, and lends its fertilizing power to the surrounding country. Even while hidden to view, it has not ceased to exist. Though the arid wastes have concealed its course, its effect has been felt beneath the surface, and here and there is a green oasis to mark its silent path. Human history is rich in analogies to this natural phenomenon, and in Comenius the history of education furnishes its example. In life he was persecuted for his religious convictions, and sought after for his educational ideas. In death he was neglected and forgotten by friends and foes alike. It could be said of him, as the Emperor Julian said of the Epicureans, he was so completely stamped out that even his books were scarce. But the great educational revival of our century, and particularly of our generation, has shed the bright light of scholarly investigation into all the dark places; and to-day, at the three hundredth anniversary of his birth, the fine old Moravian bishop is being honored wherever teachers gather together, and wherever education is the theme. We have found in Comenius the source and the forecasting of much that inspires and directs our new education.

It is difficult to project one's self back into a time when our present environment—social, political, material—was in its infancy, and when modern invention had annihilated neither time nor space. It is still more difficult to give due credit to one who at such a time saw visions and dreamed dreams that we have since realized to the full. What is commonplace to-day was genius three hundred years ago.

America was one hundred years old when Comenius was born, but the wilderness of the New World was unbroken. Neither at Jamestown nor at Plymouth had a permanent settlement been established. The Spanish Armada had just been defeated, and the future of Great Britain made

secure. Shakespeare, Spenser, Johnson, and Hooker were making Elizabethan literature. Francis Bacon was growing in power and reputation, but the climax of his career was yet to come. Copernicus had done his work; but Galileo, Kepler, and Harvey were still young men. Montaigne was dying, and Giordano Bruno was soon to be led to the stake. Luther had finished his fight, and the shock of the contest was felt in every corner of Europe. The universities were growing in numbers and influence; but Descartes and Newton, with the secrets of modern philosophy and modern science locked in their breasts, were yet unborn. It was an age of growth, of development, of rapid progress; but what we know as modern ideas and institutions only existed in their beginnings. The education of the people, true to its conservative traditions, was still shackled. Sturm, the typical schoolmaster of partisan humanism, had endeavored to escape the unsatisfactory present by anchoring the school to the newly found past. Rabelais and Montaigne had scoffed and ridiculed in vain. Something more systematic and constructive than mere literary criticism of the extravagances of humanism was necessary, if education was to be in touch with the time. The impetus to this constructive work, and many far-reaching suggestions concerning it, were given by Comenius.

His own education was belated and deficient. Before it was concluded his reflective spirit was aroused, and Comenius conceived the idea of devoting his life to making the road to learning easier to travel for those who were to come after him. This philanthropic enthusiasm was natural to him, and was fostered by the religious atmosphere in which he was born and brought up. It grew with years, and became the ruling passion of his life. At the close of his work he could say, with deepest feeling: "I can affirm from the bottom of my heart that these forty years my aim has been simple and unpretending, indifferent whether I teach or be taught, admonish or be admonished, willing to act the part of a teacher of teachers, if in anything it may be permitted me to be so, and a disciple of disciples where progress may be possible."

The intellectual development of Comenius bears traces, both in its character and its direction, of the influence of five men. These are the Holstein educational reformer, Ratich or Ratke; the Irish Jesuit, Bateus; the Italian Dominican, Campanella; the Spaniard, Vives, the friend of Erasmus; the Englishman, Francis Bacon. From Ratich he learned something of the way in which language-teaching, the whole curriculum of the time, might be reformed; and from Bateus he derived both the title and the plan of his *Janua.* Campanella suggested to him the necessity for the direct interrogation of nature if knowledge was to progress, and Vives emphasized for him from the same point of view the defects of contemporary school practice. But it was Bacon's *Instauratio Magna* that opened his eyes to the possibilities of our knowledge of nature and its place in the educational scheme. The combined influence of Cam-

panella, Vives, and Bacon caused him to throw off the traditional scientific methods of scholastic Aristotelianism, and to cry out for the observation and induction that have served later generations so richly. "Do we not dwell in the garden of Nature as well as the ancients?" he exclaims. "Why should we not use our eyes, ears, and noses as well as they? And why should we need other teachers than these our senses to learn to know the works of Nature? Why, say I, should we not, instead of these dead books, lay open the living book of Nature, in which there is much more to contemplate than any one can ever relate, and the contemplation of which brings much more of pleasure, as well as of profit?" These are the thoughts that underlie the text-books of Comenius and give them their value.

The early part of the seventeenth century was not a period when an aggressive and enthusiastic reformer like Comenius could work in peace anywhere in Western Europe. On the Continent the Thirty Years' War was raging with all the bitterness and cruelty that a religious motive develops. In England the struggle between the Stuarts and the people was approaching its crisis, and the modern democratic spirit was crouching for a spring. Comenius was himself a follower of John Huss, who had paid for his principles with his life, a century before. He himself and his beloved Church suffered grievously during the turmoil and anarchy of the long struggle. When Fulneck was taken by the Spaniards in 1621, Comenius lost all that was dear to him—his wife and children, his manuscripts and his library. Henceforth he was an exile, wandering over the face of the earth preaching the gospel of education. In Michelet's significant phrase, he lost his country and found the world.

Under the influence of Bacon, Comenius had advanced a stage beyond the mere desire to reform educational method and conceived a plan for a Pansophia, a vast encyclopædia of all the world's learning—Bacon's own *globus intellectualis*. His aim in this ambitious work was rather practical than speculative. To be sure, he wished to show that all departments of knowledge could be organized systematically in accordance with the new principles of method; but he was particularly anxious to husband the labors of scientific investigators all over the world, by placing in their hands an account of all that was known, and so turn their attention and energy to new and unsolved problems. To obtain suggestions for this scheme and assistance in carrying it out, Comenius entered into an extensive correspondence with the leading men of science and patrons of learning in every country of Europe.

He regarded his educational method as part of the Pansophia and an introduction to it. With feverish enthusiasm he pressed his projects upon the attention of prominent men, and became widely celebrated for his zeal, his lofty motives, and his educational propaganda. He corresponded, among others, with that modern Mæcenas, Samuel Hartlib, the friend of Milton. Together they planned for the establishment of an academy or

college to carry out the Pansophic idea and to be the center of the world's scientific advance in the future. In 1641 Comenius journeyed to London, where he found that Hartlib had made him known to Parliament, and was in high hopes of securing from the government an endowment for the work. Hartlib had paved the way so cleverly that Comenius would probably have succeeded in this, but for the political disturbances which were overshadowing everything else and rapidly plunging England into civil war. The Long Parliament had little time to think of education.

Baffled at this point, Comenius grasped at the next straw, which was an invitation to visit Sweden in the interest of his projects. This invitation came from De Geer, a wealthy Dutchman resident in Sweden, who remained a steadfast friend and patron while he lived. In Sweden Comenius was given a courteous and sympathetic hearing by Oxenstiern and the chancellor of the University of Upsala; but as practical men they advised him to subordinate his Pansophia to the more pressing reforms of school instruction. He did this under protest and only after some friction, and a number of publications bearing on methods of teaching were the fruit of his labors for the next seven or eight years. Then in 1650 he transported himself to the recesses of Hungary, in response to a request of Prince Sigismund, and spent four years in writing and organizing schools there. Of the rest of his life the greater part was passed at Amsterdam, in comparative retirement, and he died there in 1671, at the advanced age of eighty.

The Pansophia of Comenius need not be seriously considered. Whatever may have been the arguments in its favor two hundred and fifty years ago, it has no significance now. The printing press, the telegraph, the rapid and frequent communication between nations and peoples have made it unnecessary and impossible. An important scientific discovery is known in Tokio, Sydney, and Valparaiso as soon as it is announced in New York or London. The dream of Bacon and Comenius was a noteworthy one, but it is largely owing to their own influence that its fulfillment in just the form they planned it was forever postponed. The world of learning has become its own Pansophia.

The verdict of the literary historian on Comenius, as voiced by Hallam, is that he was a man of "much industry, some ingenuity, and little judgment." The student of education, however, must take another and much broader view. In tracing contemporary movements and ideas back to their sources, he finds that a surprisingly large number of them were absorbed from the progressive tendencies of the time and formulated for the school by Comenius. The elementary school course must be shortened and enriched, we say; the pupil is consuming his life in preparing for life, says Comenius. Rote-learning and mere memory-training are useless, we hear; my fundamental principle is that the understanding and the tongue should advance in parallel lines always, says Comenius. Not enough time

and care are devoted to the teaching of English, it is said; instruction in the mother-tongue must lie at the basis of all else, says Comenius. The list might be continued indefinitely. The infant school or kindergarten, female education, the incorporation of history and geography in the curriculum, the value of drawing and manual training, the fundamental importance of sense-training, the physical and the ethical elements in education, and, finally, that education is for all, and not for a favored few only, were all articles in the creed of Comenius. Yet many of them are far from being universally adopted to-day. Surely this man was a prophet!

The robust and practical character of the proposals of Comenius is most apparent when they are contrasted with the educational doctrines of those who have come after him, particularly Locke, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Froebel. Frail as the psychology of Comenius was, it was truer than that of Locke. He knew that the human mind was an organism, an activity, a seed with wonderful potency of growth and development, and not a mere sheet of wax, as the Englishman taught, on whose passive surface the environment merely leaves certain impressions or traces. Locke's thought was of the education of the gentleman; Comenius proclaimed that education was for the race. The single point in which Locke corrected Comenius was in exalting character, rather than knowledge, as the chief aim in education.

Of Rousseau one may say, with Mr. Quick: "His writings and the results produced by them are among the strangest things in history; and especially in matters of education it is more than doubtful if the wise man of the world Montaigne, the Christian philanthropist Comenius, or that 'slave of truth and reason' Locke, had half as much influence as this depraved serving-man." Rousseau's enthusiasm took the form of theory run mad, and the practical impossibility of his educational plans was only exceeded by their philosophical unsoundness. Comenius had been himself a teacher and an organizer of schools. He knew the practical limitations under which any theory is put when reduced to practice. He asked of the school and the pupil nothing that was impossible. He accepted society as he found it, and would teach it to reform itself. Rousseau would blow it into a million atoms and deify each.

There is nothing in the history of education so touching as the story of the life of Pestalozzi. His own immortal words, "I lived like a beggar to teach beggars to live like men," only half reveal the story of his unwearied patience, his intense suffering, his self-sacrifice for childhood. His life gave reality to his half-mystical principle that "the essential principle of education is not teaching; it is love." Yet his thought is relatively unimportant. Pestalozzi gave himself to education, but few new principles. His theory of the value of intuition needs to be carefully supplemented, and his insistence on the fact that education is develop-

ment, a drawing out and not a putting in, merely repeats the thought on which all of the work of Comenius was based. Without that principle, which Comenius had made familiar more than a century before, the work of Pestalozzi would have been of little importance in the history of education. Indeed, it would have been philanthropy merely, not education.

Nor does it detract from the estimate to be put upon Froebel's teachings to say that in almost every important particular they were built upon foundations laid by the Moravian bishop. Froebel himself is strangely deficient in masculinity and in practical capacity. His exaggerated and absurd symbolism and his unbalanced religiosity give a certain curious interest and stimulus to his doctrines, but add nothing to their force or their permanent value. His seed-thought is again that of Comenius's—educate by developing the pupil's own activity. Out of it and its corollaries the new education has grown.

The place of Comenius in the history of education, therefore, is one of commanding importance. He introduces and dominates the whole modern movement in the field of elementary and secondary education. His relation to our present teaching is similar to that held by Copernicus and Newton toward modern science, and Bacon and Descartes toward modern philosophy. Yet he was not, in a high sense, an original mind. But his spirit was essentially modern and remarkably receptive. He assimilated the ideas that were inspiring the new civilization and applied them to the school. In an age of general ignorance Comenius had an exaggerated idea of the importance of mere knowledge. This is easily understood and readily excused. Most of his educational tenets, preached with all the fervor of a Peter the Hermit, and fought for with all the determination of a Cœur de Lion, have become commonplaces. But such is their value that we do well to pause to honor the memory of him who made them so.

REPORT ON SCHOOL STATISTICS.

To the Department of Superintendence.

GENTLEMEN: Your committee, consisting of the undersigned and Messrs. James McAlister and George P. Brown, holding over from the last year, conclude their report *

* PRELIMINARY REPORT, MADE IN FEBRUARY, 1891.

GENTLEMEN: Your Committee, appointed at the last annual meeting for the purpose of considering and reporting on the subject of School Statistics, beg leave to offer the following preliminary report, setting forth the results of their studies on the subject, and postponing for another meeting, or for the work of another committee, if it be your pleasure, the completion of the details of a scheme of statistics which will afford the data required for a comparative study of domestic and foreign educational systems.

Your Committee would first call attention to the object and purpose of collection of statistics, which they conceive to be the following:

Statistics reveal the nature and efficiency of the powers and forces involved in a process. Forces and powers are revealed in their results. Their results are of little moment, if dead results, except as they indicate what the living power has been and still is. In matters of education we inquire into the aims and purposes of the educative process, and learn this by a quantitative study of the means employed and the results obtained. It is evident, therefore, at the outset, that the quantities given by our statistical tables can have no significance except in connection with the qualitative elements involved. We pass over at once from the how many to the what kind. We seek, again, new quantitative data that may indicate the quality, but we never reach quantitative data that are significant in and for themselves.

Your Committee would suggest as the four principal heads under which school statistics may be grouped:

First, Attendance of Pupils.
Second, Course of Study.
Third, Teaching Forces and Appliances.
Fourth, Support—Revenue and Expenditures.

Under these four heads they would group the following details:

I.

Statistics of attendance should answer questions like the following—

(*a*) How many?
(*b*) How long?
(*c*) Who?

That is to say: (1) How many pupils in the aggregate? (2) How many relatively to the entire population? (3) How many relatively to the population of the school age, say 5 to 21, 6 to 14, or some other period agreed upon? Then this item should be further defined in five items: (1) How many enrolled during the annual session of school? (2) How many as average belonging? (3) How many in actual average daily attendance? (4) How many were dropped and afterward readmitted? (5) The number of cases of tardiness.

Under the second item of attendance (*How long?*) we wish the number of daily school sessions for the year, and the hours of a school session, the length and hour of recesses and intermissions.

Under the third item of *Who?* we include such items as—

(1) How many of each sex?
(2) How many at each year of age, and the average age?
(3) Race.
(4) How many born in the town or State where the school is situated?
(5) How many born in other parts of the same nation?

on Statistics by offering, first, a list of the items which, in their opinion, should be collected to show the workings of a school system.

They have arranged these items in three classes. The first class includes the essential data which should be taken every year, and from all schools. This first list contains the essential and indispensable items for every annual report.

The second list contains the more important of what we may call occasional statis-

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(6) How many born abroad?
(7) Occupations of parents.

II.

Under the second of our four chief heads we should ask for statistics regarding the course of study, and thus determine by this grade of schools as follows:

(*a*) Kindergarten.
(*b*) Primary and grammar school.
(*c*) Secondary education.
(*d*) Higher education.

We should ask very carefully as to the relations of these items to the first class of items, especially age, sex, and average attendance.

The primary and grammar schools are to be distinguished from the secondary schools by the following tests: The introduction of algebra, or of an ancient or modern language, marks the beginning of the secondary course of study. The higher course of study should be marked by analytic mathematics, or by logical and philosophical studies, or by advanced language studies.

III.

The third general head, "The Teaching Forces and Appliances," includes—

(1) Buildings and accommodations.
(2) Size of schools under one principal teacher (or else number of pupils per teacher).
(3) Number of teachers.
(4) Supervision.
(5) Means of training teachers.
(6) Examinations of teachers.
(7) Methods of discipline and instruction used by teachers.

IV.

The fourth general head, "The Support of Schools," includes—

(1) REVENUE. Items of.
  (*a*) Receipts from State and local taxation.
  (*b*) Receipts from funds or productive property.
  (*c*) Receipts, if any, from tuition.
(2) EXPENDITURES.
  (*a*) For teachers' salaries, including supervision.
  (*b*) Incidentals, including janitor hire, fuel, apparatus, and other current expenses.
  (*c*) Permanent investments, including building and repairs.

Your Committee would call attention to the importance of a detailed discussion of the use to be made of these several items, in studying the effective forces of educational systems, and in comparing one with another. Such discussion is not here attempted, but is suggested as a proper subject of a supplementary report. Moreover, your Committee have observed the prime necessity for such a definition of the several items as to prevent misunderstanding. A description of the best methods of keeping and tabulating the several items would also be a very useful addition to such a report.

In dealing with reports, not merely reports from a foreign country, but with reports from different sections of the United States, your Committee has been impressed with the necessity of a glossary of terms used in tabulating statistics. There should be a careful collation of all terms and designations used here and abroad, and so minute a description given of the processes of ascertaining the data under the several heads, as to leave no doubt in the mind as to the exact meaning of each. Without this accurate information there can be no satisfactory comparative study of school systems.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

W. T. HARRIS.
JAS. MACALISTER.
GEORGE P. BROWN.

tics, and should not be expected every year, perhaps, nor from all schools. A State superintendent may, for example, collect statistics one year regarding the place of nativity of pupils and parents, another year he may take occupations, and another year he may collect items regarding the preparation of the teaching force.

In our third list we have included still less essential items, which may be collected at still rarer intervals.

In the next place, we have given a tabular summary showing in detail the items actually collected in the several States of the Union, and side by side with it an exhibit of the statistical items collected in the several countries of Europe. As these details cannot be read before an audience, your committee submit the same for printing in an appendix, hoping that they will be found useful to State officers in the preparation of their forms and blanks for collecting these returns.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

W. T. HARRIS,
Chairman of Committee.

APPENDIX I.

SCHOOL STATISTICS.

I. FUNDAMENTAL ITEMS.

1. Number of children of legal school age, classified by race and sex (school population).

a, White males.
b, White females.
c, Colored males.
d, Colored females.

NOTE.—These letters, a, b, c, d, are used in these tables always to indicate race or sex as here indicated.

2. Number of pupils enrolled on the school registers (excluding duplicate registrations), classified by race and sex (a + b + c + d).

NOTE.—The plus sign (+), when used, indicates that the items between which it is placed are taken separately. Thus, a + b means that the white males and white females are given separately. Where this plus sign is omitted, the items are not given separately in the reports.

3. Average daily attendance, classified by race and sex.

4. Average length of school year (days).

5. Number of teachers, classified by race and sex.

6. Number of pupils receiving kindergarten instruction, classified by race and sex.

7. Number of pupils receiving elementary instruction (including kindergarten pupils), classified by race and sex.

8. Number of pupils receiving secondary instruction, classified by race and sex.

9. Number of students receiving higher instruction, including colleges, schools of medicine, theology, law, technology, classified by race and sex.

10. Number of students in special schools, classified by race and sex, including trade schools, evening schools of all kinds, manual training schools, schools for the defective and dependent classes, reform schools, commercial schools, and nurses' training schools.

11. Number of buildings used as schoolhouses.

12. Total seating capacity of such buildings (number of pupils that can be accommodated).

13. Value of all property used for school purposes.

14. Average monthly salaries of teachers classified by race and sex.
15. Total school revenue.
    (1) Income from productive funds and rents.
    (2) State school fund.
    (3) Local taxes.
    (4) Other sources.
16. Total expenditure.
    (1) Salaries of teachers (including supervision).
    (2) Other current expenses.
    (3) Permanent expenditure (for buildings, grounds, etc.).
17. Amount of permanent invested funds.

II. Less Essential but Desirable Items.

18. Age classification of pupils enrolled.
    (1) Number of pupils under six.
    (2) Number of pupils between six and seven, etc.
    * * * * * * * *
    (11) Number of pupils between fifteen and sixteen.
    (12) Number of pupils over sixteen.
19. Number of cases of tardiness.
20. (1) Number of pupils born within the State.
    (2) " " " " in other States.
    (3) " " " " in foreign countries.
21. Occupations of parents.
    (1) Agents.
    (2) Bankers and brokers.
    (3) Clerks and salesmen.
    (4) Domestic servants and waiters.
    (5) Draymen and teamsters.
    (6) Farmers.
    (7) Factory and mill operatives.
    (8) Hotel and boarding-house keepers.
    (9) Laborers (unskilled).
    (10) Manufacturers.
    (11) Mariners and boatmen.
    (12) Mechanics and artisans.
    (13) Miners and quarrymen.
    (14) Merchants, traders, and dealers.
    (15) Professionals.
    (16) Public officials and employés.
    (17) Railroad employés.
    (18) Seamstresses.
    (19) Saloon-keepers and bartenders.
    (20) Unclassified.
22. Average number belonging, including temporary absentees.
23. Number of pupils in each branch of study.
24. (1) Average age of kindergarten pupils.
    (2) " " " elementary pupils.
    (3) " " " secondary pupils.
    (4) " " " higher pupils.
    (5) " " " special pupils.

25. (1) Number of normal schools.
(2) Enrollment in normal department.
(3) Average attendance.
(4) Number of teachers.
(5) Expenses.

III. Occasional Items.

26. (1) Number of teachers who have taught less than two years.
(2) " from two to five years.
(3) " over five years.
27. (1) Number of applicants for teachers' certificates.
(2) " who are certified.
28. (1) Number of teachers graduates of normal schools.
(2) " " " " " universities and colleges.
(3) " " " " " high schools, academies, etc.
(4) " " " who have received only an elementary education.
29. Number of pupils dropped and readmitted in the course of the year.
30. " " hours in each school session.
31. Length of recesses or intermissions, and time of beginning.
32. Number of cases of corporal punishment.
33. " " pupils promoted to next higher grade.

APPENDIX II.

An exhibit showing which of the essential items enumerated in Appendix I. are reported by the several States of the Union and by leading foreign nations.

Note.—Acknowledgment is here made by the Committee to Mr. F. E. Upton, of the Bureau of Education, for valuable assistance in the compilation of this and the following appendices.—W. T. H.

I. The United States.

Alabama.—1. ab+cd (enumeration made on alternate years). 2. ab+cd. 3. ab+cd. 4. ab+cd. 5. a+b+c+d. 14. ab+cd. 15. (1)+(2)+(4); (3) is imperfectly given. 16. (1) and (3) are only reported in city districts. 23. 25.

Arizona.—1. ab. 2. a+b. 3. ab. 4. 5. a+b. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 22.

Arkansas.—1. a+b+c+d. 2. a+b+c+d. 5. ac+bd. 11. 13. 14. ac+bd. 15. 16.

California.—1. a+b+c+d. 2. a+b. 3. ab. 4. 5. a+b. 7. 8. 11. 13. 15. 16. 22. 25. 27. 28.

Colorado.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 3. ab. 4. 5. a+b. 7. 8. 11. 12. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16.

Connecticut.—1. ab. 2. ab. 3. ab. 4. 5. a+b. 6. 11. 12. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 26.

Delaware.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 3. 4. 5. a+b. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 23. ab.

District of Columbia.—2. a+b+c+d. 3. ab+cd. 4. 5. a+b+c+d. 6. 7. 8. 10. 14. ab+cd. 15. 16. 22. 25. (1) (2) (3) (4).

Florida.—2. a+b+c+d. 3. ab+cd. 4. 5. a+b+c+d. 11. 13. 14. 15. 16. 23.

GEORGIA.—2. a+b+c+d. 3. ab+cd. 5. a+b+c+d. 7. 8. 15. 16. 23.
IDAHO.—2. a+b. 4. 5. a+b. 15. 16.
ILLINOIS.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 3. ab. 4. 5. a+b. 8. a+b. 11. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 17. 25. (1) (2) (3) (4) (5). 27.
INDIANA.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 3. ab. 4. 5. a+b. 11. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 25.
IOWA.—1. a+b. 2. ab. 3. ab. 4. 5. a+b. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 26. (1) (2). 27. (1) (2).
KANSAS.—1. ac+bd. 2. ac+bd. 3. ac+bd. 4. 5. a+b. 11. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 27.
KENTUCKY.—1. a+b+c+d. 2. a+b+c+d. 3. a+b+c+d. 4. 5. a+b+c+d. 7. 8. 11. 13. 14. a+b+c+d. 15. 16. 23. (1) (4). 25. 26. (1). 27. (1) (2). 28. (1).
LOUISIANA.—2. a+b+c+d. 3. ab+cd. 4. 5. a+b+c+d. 11. 14. a+b+c+d. 15. 16.
MAINE.—1. ab. 2. ab. 3. ab. 4. 5. a+b. 11. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 23.
MARYLAND.—2. a+b+c+d. 3. ab+cd. 4. 5. a+b+c+d. 11. 15. 16. 23.
MASSACHUSETTS.—1. ab. 2. ab. 3. ab. 4. 5. a+b. 8. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 22. 25. 28. (1).
MICHIGAN.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 4. 5. 11. 12. 13. 15. 16.
MINNESOTA.—1. ab. 2. ab. 3. ab. 4. 5. a+b. 11. 13. 14. a+b. 16. 28. (1) (2) (3).
MISSISSIPPI.—1. a+b+c+d. 2. a+b+c+d. 3. a+b+c+d. 4. 5. a+b+c+d. 11. 13. 14. a+b+c+d. 15. 16. 27. (1) (2).
MISSOURI.—1. a+b+c+d. 2. a+b+c+d. 3. 5. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 27. b. 28. (1).
MONTANA.—1. a+b. 2. ab 3. ab. 4. 5. a+b. 11. 13. 15. 16. 28. (1).
NEBRASKA.—1. ac+bd. 2. ac+bd. 3. abcd. 4. 5. ac+bd. 7. 8. 11. 13. 15. 16. 18. 27. (1) (2).
NEVADA.—1. ab+cd. 2. ac+bd. 3. a+b+c+d. 4. 5. a+b. 11. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 22. 26. (1).
NEW HAMPSHIRE.—2. a+b. 3. 4. 5. a+b. 11. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 22. 26. (1).
NEW JERSEY.—1. abcd. 2. abcd. 3. abcd. 4. 5. ac+bd. 11. 12. 13. 14. ac+bd. 15. 16. 18. 27. (1) (2).
NEW MEXICO.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 3. a+b. 4. 5. a+b. 15. 16.
NEW YORK.—1. ab. 2. ab. 3. ab. 4. 5. a+b. 11. 13. 14. 15. 16. 27. (1) (2).
NORTH CAROLINA.—1. a+b+c+d. 2. a+b+c+d. 3. abcd. 4. 5. abcd. 15. 16. 23.
NORTH DAKOTA.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 3. ab. 4. 5. a+b. 7. 8. 11. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 23.
OHIO.—1. a+b. 2. ac+bd. 3. ac+bd. 4. 5. a+b. 7. 8. 11. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 23.
OREGON.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 3. a+b. 4. 5. a+b. 11. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 23. 27. (1) (2).
PENNSYLVANIA.—1 ab. 2. a+b. 3. ab. 4. 5. a+b. 11. 12. 13. 14. a+b. 16. 26. (1) (4). 27. (1) (2). 28. (1) (2) (3).
RHODE ISLAND.—1. ab. 2. a+b. 3. ab. 4. 5. a+b. 11. 13. 15. 16. 23.
SOUTH CAROLINA.—2. a+b+c+d. 3. a+b+c+d. 4. 5. a+b+c+d. 11. 13. 14. ac+bd. 15. 16. 23.
SOUTH DAKOTA.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 3. ab. 4. 5. a+b. 11. 12. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 23. 27. (1) (2).
TENNESSEE.—1. a+b+c+d. 2. a+b+c+d. 3. ac+bd. 4. 5. a+b+c+d. 11. 13. 14. a+b+c+d. 15. 16. 23.

TEXAS.—2. a+b+c+d. 4. 5. ac+bd. 11. 12. 13. 14. a+b+c+d. 15. 16. 17. 23. 28. (1) (2).

UTAH.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 3. ab. 4. 5. a+b. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 23.

VERMONT.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 4. 5. a+b. 7. 8. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 18. 23.

VIRGINIA.—1. a+b+c+d. 2. a+b+c+d. 3. a+b+c+d. 4. 5. a+b+c+d. 8. ab+cd. 11. 12. ab+cd. 13. 14. ac+bd. 15. 16. 18. 24. 25. 27. (1) (2).

WASHINGTON.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 3. a+b. 4. 5. a+b. 7. 8. 11. 12. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16. 27. (1) (2).

WEST VIRGINIA.—2. a+b+c+d. 3. a+b+c+d. 4. 5. a+b+c+d. 11. 13. 15. 16. 23. 27.

WISCONSIN.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 4. 5. a+b. 11. 12. 13. 14. a+b. 15. 16.

II. FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

CANADA—ENGLAND.—1. ab. 2. a+b. 3. a+b. 4. 5. a+b. 6. a+b. 7. a+b. 12. 14. a+b (yearly). 15. 16. 18. ab (a+b in some cities). 23. 25. 26 (in some cities). 27. 28.

SCOTLAND.—1. ab. 2. a+b. 3. a+b. 4. 5. a+b. 6. a+b. 7. a+b. 8. a+b. 12. 14. a+b (average annual salary). 15. 16. 18. ab. 23. 25. 27. 28.

FRANCE.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 4. 5. a+b. 6. a+b. 7. a+b. 8. a+b. 9. ab. 10. ab. 11. 14. 15. 16. 18. 21 (Paris). 25. 28. 30. 31.

ITALY.—1. ab. 2. a+b. 4 (by months). 5. a+b. 6. ab (reports infant schools which include Froebelian methods and a few kindergartens in the largest cities). 7. a+b. 8. a+b. 9. ab. 10. a+b. 11. 14. a+b (reports maximum and minimum annual salary). 15. 16. 25. a+b. 27. a+b (reports numbers certified). 28. a+b (reports graduates of normals). 30. 31.

NETHERLANDS.—1. ab. 2. a+b. 5. a+b. 7. a+b (kindergartens not included). 8. a+b. 9. a+b. 10. a+b. 11. 14. ab (reports maximum and minimum annual salary). 15. 16. 23. a+b. 25. a+b. 27. a+b. 28. a+b (reports graduates of normals). 33. ab.

SPAIN.—1. ab. 2. a+b. 3. a+b. 5. a+b. 7. a+b (kindergartens not included). 8. a+b. 9 (in part). 10 (in part). 11. 14. a+b (reports maximum and minimum annual salary). 15. 16. 25. a+b. 27. ab (reports numbers certified, and those certificated). 28. ab (reports graduates with normal certificates). 30. 31.

NORWAY.—1. ab. 2. a+b. 4 (reports number of weeks). 5. a+b. 7. a+b. (kindergartens not included). 8. a+b. 9. ab. 15. 16. 25. ab. 28. ab (reports graduates of normal schools and academies). 30. 31.

SWEDEN.—1. ab. 2. a+b. 4 (by weeks). 5. a+b. 7. a+b. (kindergartens not included). 8. a+b. 9. ab. 10 a+b. 11. 14. a+b (reports maximum and minimum annual salary). 15. 16. 18. ab. 23. ab (reports per cent. of pupils in each branch in secondary schools). 25. a+b (reports separate schools for the sexes). 30. 31. 33. ab.

RUSSIA.—1. ab. 2. a+b. 5. ab. 7. a+b (kindergartens not included). 8. a+b. 9. a+b. 10. a+b. 15. 16. 25. a+b.

PRUSSIA.—1. a+b. 2. a+b (every third year). 4. 5. a+b. 7. a+b. 8. a+b. 9. ab. 11. 15. 16. 17 (every third year). 25. 27. 28. 30.

SAXONY.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 4. 5. a+b. 7. a+b. 8. a+b. 9. ab. 10. ab. 11. 15. 16. 17 (every third year). 25. 27. 28. 30.

WÜRTEMBERG.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 4. 5. a+b. 7. a+b. 8. a+b. 9. ab. 10. ab. 11. 15. 16. 17 (only partially). 25. 27. 28. 30.

HAMBURG.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 4. 5. a+b. 7. a+b. 8. a+b. 10. ab. 11. 15. 16. 17. 25. 27. 28.

BREMEN.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 4. 5. a+b. 7. a+b. 8. a+b. 10. ab. 11. 15. 16. 25. 27. 28.

LUBECK.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 4. 5. a+b. 7. a+b. 8. a+b. 10. ab. 11. 15. 16. 25. 27. 28.

AUSTRIA.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 4. 5. a+b. 7. a+b. 8. a+b. 9. ab. 10. 11. 25. 27. 28. 30.

HUNGARY.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 4. 5. a+b. 6. a+b. 7. a+b. 8. a+b. 9. ab. 10. ab. 11. 15. 16. 17. 25. 27. 28. 30.

SWITZERLAND.—1. a+b. 2. a+b. 4. 5. a+b. 7. a+b. 8. a+b. 9. a+b. 10. ab. 11. 15. 16. 25. 27. 28. 30.

APPENDIX III.

Giving the definitions of certain technical terms used in educational reports, together with their equivalents in certain foreign countries.

TECHNICAL TERMS USED IN EDUCATION—DEFINITIONS AND FOREIGN EQUIVALENTS.

1 (a). *School age.*—Age at which children are permitted free attendance at the public schools. This age varies in the different States, but 6 to 21 may be considered the representative school age in this country, being designed evidently to embrace all minors old enough to render school instruction advisable and profitable to them. The children of school age in each State, whatever that age may be, collectively constitute the *school population* of such State.

NOTE.—There are, in the foreign countries considered in this vocabulary, no terms corresponding in significance to "school age" and "school population," as understood in the United States. In a popular sense, however, as used in literature everywhere, "school age" includes the period of life from the age of four or five years to adult age, as the epoch most suitable for schooling.

1 (b). *Compulsory school age.*—The age at which children are obliged by law to attend school in those States of the Union having compulsory school laws. This age also varies in the several States, but 8 to 14 may be considered as the representative. The children subject to a compulsory school law constitute the "compulsory school population" of a State.

Eng. *Age for school attendance.*
Ger. *Schulpflichtige Alter.*
Fr. *Âge scolaire.*
It. *Obbligo di frequentare la scuola.*
Sp. *Edad escolar.*

NOTE.—The compulsory school age in the foreign countries considered above varies, but 6 to 13 may be regarded as typical. All the children subject to compulsory school laws in England and France, and the major part of those in Germany, are allowed free instruction at public schools.

1 (c). *School population.* See 1 (a) and note.

1 (d). *Compulsory school population.* For definition see 1 (b).
Eng. *Population of school age.*
Ger. *Schulpflichtige Kinder.*
Fr. *Enfants d'âge scolaire;* or, *Nombre d'enfants à instruire.*
It. *Popolazione da 6 a 12 anni.*

2. *Enrollment.*—Number of different pupils enrolled (or entered) on the school registers during any given year; or, in other words, the entire number of different pupils who have attended at any time during the year.

Eng. *Number of children (or scholars) on registers.*
Ger. *Zahl der Eingeschriebenen.*
Fr. *Nombre des inscrits.*
It. *Numero degli iscritti.*
Sp. *Número de niños concurrentes* (or *inscriptos*).

3 (a). *Attendance.*—Number of pupils present (on any given day or at any given time).

Eng. *Attendance.*
Ger. *Frequenz,* determined on two test-days (*Stichtage*) each year.
Fr. *Fréquentation,* or *Élèves présents,* determined as in Germany.
Sp. *Asistencia.*

3 (b). *Average attendance.*—Average number of pupils attending each day or session.

Eng. *Average attendance.*
Sp. *Asistencia media.*

4 (a). *School year.*—(1) The year, or period of twelve months, for which school officials are elected, appropriations of money made, teachers hired, school reports made, etc., though the annual epoch of some of these features sometimes dates from a different day than that of others. In the United States the school year usually begins the first of July, or some other day during the summer vacation. The term is sometimes restricted to (2) that portion of the school year during which the schools are in actual session.

Eng. *School year.* "A year or other period for which an annual parliamentary grant is . . . paid or payable." It "is the year ending with the last day of the month preceding that fixed for the inspectors' annual visit." —Ed. Acts Man., 17 ed., p. 375.
Ger. *Schuljahr.*
Fr. *Année scolaire.*
It. *Anno scolastico.*

4 (b). *Length of school year.*—The number of days, weeks, or months the schools were in actual session during the school year. The expressions "length of schools," "duration of schools," "length of school term," etc., are also used. The *average length of the school year* is the average of a group of schools in which the number of days of session varies. As in most foreign governmental school systems the number of days is nearly uniform, this latter term has little application outside the United States.

Eng. *Number of times school has kept.* This must be divided by two to get the number of days.
Ger. *Dauer des Schuljahres.*
Fr. *Durée de l'année scolaire.*

5. *Teacher.*—An instructor in an elementary or secondary school.

Eng. *Schoolmaster, schoolmistress, teacher.*
Ger. *Lehrer, Lehrerin.*
Fr. *Maître, maîtresse, instituteur, institutrice.*
It. *Insegnánte, maestro, maestra.*
Sp. *Maestro, maestra.*

6. *Kindergarten.*—A school for young children, from about three to six years, conducted after the methods of Froebel.

Eng. *Infant school, or class.*
Ger. *Kindergarten.*
Fr. *École maternelle.*
It. *Asili d'infancia.*

7. *Elementary instruction.*—Instruction in the first principles or rudiments of knowledge, including chiefly reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, grammar, geography, United States history, and often the outlines of natural history and science, the pupil being prepared by this course to enter upon algebra and Latin or some modern language. Usually in the United States the first eight years of a fully graded public school course mark the period of elementary instruction, taking the child at the age of about 6 years. *Elementary schools* are schools in which elementary instruction is the sole or predominating feature. These in a fully graded course may be subdivided into *primary schools* (first four years) and *grammar* (or *intermediate*) *schools* (second four years). Kindergarten instruction is also classed as elementary.

Eng. *Elementary instruction.*
Ger. *Elementar-Unterricht.*
Fr. *Enseignement primaire* (excluding the "primaire supérieur").
It. *Istruzione elementare.*
Sp. *Enseñanza primaria.*

8. *Secondary instruction.*—This is supposed to begin the ninth year of the course of study, and to take up algebra, geometry, natural philosophy, physical geography, Latin, Greek, French, and German, for some or all pupils, and for a whole or a part of the four years; also an outline study of universal history, English literature, and some of the special natural sciences, as geology, human physiology, botany, etc. A *secondary school* is a school whose ultimate object is to give a secondary education, and which may or may not have a preparatory course of elementary grade, or pupils pursuing elementary studies.

Eng. *Secondary* (or *intermediate*) *instruction.* The term "secondary schools" in England is applied to certain groups of schools designed for the education of the upper and middle classes, including *endowed grammar* (*i.e.*, classical) *schools, endowed non-classical schools, private schools,* and *proprietary schools.* These are also known as *middle class schools.* They receive pupils at about the age of 8, continue them in their elementary studies, and carry them along to an age varying from 14 to 19, giving them an education in some cases higher, in others—especially in the "private" schools—not so high as is indicated by the term secondary in the United States. The nine great *public schools* of England (Eton, Harrow, etc.), which are properly "intermediate" schools—*i. e.*, standing between preparatory primary schools or private tutors, and the "Universities"—receive pupils from 10 to 15, and are of higher grade than most of the secondary schools of the United States. *Higher board schools* have developed in some of the large cities, and correspond nearly to our public secondary schools (high schools), giving to the children of their people an opportunity to continue their education beyond the elementary grade. About 80,000 pupils pursue high school subjects in elementary schools.

Ger. *Höhere Unterricht* (*i. e.*, higher than that given in the Volksschulen).

Fr. *Enseignement primaire supérieur.* The instruction given in the *Division de grammaire* of *lycées* and *collèges communaux* also belongs here.

It. *Istruzione secondaria.*

9. *Higher* (or *superior*) *instruction.*—This is supposed to take the fourth epoch of four years in a complete course of education, secondary taking the third four years, and elementary education the first eight years. By topics and methods, the higher education is distinguished by taking mathematics in those branches which succeed plane geometry and elementary algebra ; Latin and Greek writers that require more maturity of reflection to master, such as Horace, Livy, Tacitus, Juvenal, Cicero's moral essays, Homer, Demosthenes, Plato, Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Aristotle ; physics treated by mathematics ; rhetoric ; mental philosophy ; the philosophy of history. In general, the studies of higher education are conducted on a comparative method—with the purpose of treating each theme in the light of all branches of knowledge. A *higher institution* of learning is one whose ultimate object is to give a higher education, and which therefore may or may not have a preparatory department in which instruction is given in secondary or even elementary branches.

Eng. *University instruction ; collegiate instruction.*
Ger. *Hochschulunterricht.*
Fr. *Enseignement supérieur.* The last three years of the *enseignement secondaire* is also of the higher grade according to the United States standard.
It. *Istruzione superiore.*
Sp. *Enseñanza universitaria.*

10 (a). *Special schools.*—Schools of elementary or secondary grade which (1) educate for some special trade, business, or occupation (*e. g.*, commercial colleges, art schools) ; or (2) educate some special class of persons (*e. g.*, deaf-mutes, juvenile delinquents).

10 (b). *Evening schools.*—A class of special schools, generally public and located at the centers of population, designed to give evening instruction in elementary and sometimes in secondary branches, general and technical, to persons whose occupation, age, or both, prevent them from attending the day schools. A special feature of evening schools in some cities of the United States is the instruction of foreigners in the English language.

Eng. *Evening schools.*
Fr. *Classes d'adultes.* (Held in the evening or on Sunday.)
It. *Scuole serali.*

10 (c). *Evening high schools. Continuation schools.*—A class of evening schools designed more particularly to give some degree of secondary education to youths who are obliged to go to work after finishing their elementary education in the day schools.

Ger. *Fortbildungsschulen.* (Evenings or Sundays.)

11. *Schoolhouse.*—A building used for school purposes, one in which instruction is given.

Eng. *School building.*
Ger. *Schulhaus.*
Fr. *Maison d'école.*
It. *Edificio-scolastico. Locale per le scuole.*
Sp. *Casa de escuela.*

12. *Number of sittings for study,* excluding those used only for recitation purposes.

Eng. *Accommodation, number of seats.* Includes all seats, being total seating capacity.

13. *School property.*—All property, real and personal, belonging to a school system (*i. e.*, not hired or rented), and designed to be used for school purposes, including school sites and buildings, furniture, libraries, apparatus, etc.

Eng. *School buildings, premises, and furnishing.*
Ger. *Schul-Eigenthum.*
Fr. *Bâtiments et matériaux scolaires.*

14. *Salary* (or *wages*) *of teachers.*—The sum paid to teachers weekly, monthly, or annually, as compensation for their services. In computing the *average monthly salaries* of any group of teachers, weekly and annual salaries must be reduced to a monthly basis.

Eng. *Salary.*
Ger. *Gehalt.*
Fr. *Traitement.*
It. *Onorario stipendio.*
Sp. *Sueldos.*

15 (a). *Revenue* (school).—Money from any source received for school purposes.

Eng. *Income.*
Ger. *Einnahmen.*
Fr. *Ressource.*
It. *Rendita.*
Sp. *Ingresos.*

15 (b). *State* (school) *tax.*—A uniform tax levied on all the property or polls of a State, the proceeds whereof is apportioned to the counties, towns, or school districts, generally according to school population or average attendance.

Eng. *Rates.*
Ger. *Staats-Steuern.*

15 (c). *Local* (school) *taxes.*—County, town, and school-district taxes for school purposes.

Eng. *Rates.*
Ger. *Orts-* (or *Municipal-*) *Steuern.*
Fr. *Centimes additioneis*, or *spéciaux.*
It. *Tasse communale e provinciale.*
Sp. *Fondos provinciales, comunales, y municipales.*

15. (d). *Revenue from permanent funds.*—The interest on invested funds, including rent of school lands, if any.

Eng. *Income from endowment.*
Ger. *Interessen angelegter Fonds.*
Fr. *Produit des legs et dons.*
Sp. *Ingresos de los donativos y legados.*

16 (a). *Expenditure* (school).—Money expended for school purposes.

Eng. *Expenditure.*
Ger. *Ausgaben.*
Fr. *Dépenses.*
It. *Spese generali.*
Sp. *Gastos.*

16 (b). *Amount paid to teachers* (for salaries), including salaries of superintendents.

Eng. *Teachers' salaries.*
Ger. *Ausgaben für Gehalte.*
Fr. *Traitements.*
It. *Stipendi; rimunerazioni ed indemnita al personale.*
Sp. *Obligaciones del personal.*

16 (c). *Other current expenditure* in addition to amount paid to teachers; *i.e.*, incidental or miscellaneous expenditure for the maintenance of the schools and care of school buildings, including, among other things, fuel, lighting, janitors, incidental repairs, free text-books if any, and stationery, cost of administration, rent of hired buildings, etc. Foreign countries do not conform to this classification, but the analogous foreign terms are as follows:

Eng. *Miscellaneous expenditure.*
Ger. *Andere Ausgaben.*
Fr. *Dépenses diverses.*

16 (d). *Permanent expenditure.*—Expenditure for school buildings (including permanent repairs), grounds, furniture, libraries, and lasting apparatus.

Eng. *Capital charges.*
Ger. *Bankosten.*
Fr. *Dépenses de construction.*
It. *Sussidi per construzione e riparazione di edifici scolastici.*

17. *Permanent funds.*—Value of funds and other property yielding an annual revenue for school purposes.

Eng. *Endowment.*
Ger. *Fonds.*
Fr. *Dons et legs.*
Sp. *Donativos, legados, y mandos.*

19. *Tardy.*—Late in arriving at school.

Eng. *Not punctual.*
Ger. *Zuspätkommend.*
Fr. *En retard.*

22. *Average number belonging* to a school, or system of schools, includes temporary absentees. Pupils absent for sickness or other cause, but with intention of returning to school, are considered as "belonging." This number differs from the number "enrolled" (see 2), inasmuch as the latter contains all different pupils who have attended at any time during the year, some of whom may have been dropped from the roll of those "belonging," on account of death, removal from the district, protracted sickness, entrance on business, etc.

25. *Normal school.*—A school designed for the professional training of persons intending to become teachers, usually maintained by a State or city.

Eng. *Training college.*
Ger. *Lehrer-Seminar.*
Fr. *École normale.*
It. *Scuela normale.*
Sp. *Escuela normale*

27. *Certificate; license* (to teach).—A formal testimony of ability to teach, or permission to teach, awarded as the result of satisfactory examination before an examining board, or after having successfully completed a certain prescribed course of study, or given other evidence of capacity to teach.

Eng. *Certificate.*
Ger. *Zeugniss; Reifezeugniss; Licenz.*
Fr. *Titre* (or *brevet*) *de capacité; certificat d'aptitude pédagogique.*
It. *Diplôma d'abilitazione* (or *d'idoneita*).
Sp. *Certificado de aptitud.*

28 (a). *University.*—An institution for higher education, having as its nucleus a college in which the so-called liberal arts are taught in a course of three or four years for the degree of A.B., and in addition one or more departments for the learned professions, medicine, law, or divinity—or it may be for advanced or post-graduate work, along any lines of learning or investigation. In England the university unites several colleges.

Eng. *University.*
Ger. *Universität.*
Fr. *Faculté. Université* is the term very generally employed for the Paris "facultés."
It. *Universita.*
Sp. *Universidad.*

28 (b). *College.*—Strictly speaking, an institution of higher education, usually with a four years' course completing preparation for the degree of A.B. The word college is also used in connection with a descriptive word to designate other species of higher education, as, "Agricultural College," "Medical College."

Eng. *College.*
Ger. *Gymnasium.*
Fr. *Lycée; collége communal* (*de plein exercice*)
It. *Ginnasio; liceo.*
Sp. *Instituto; colegio.*

28 (c). *High school.*—A public secondary school.

Eng. *Higher board school.*
Ger. *Höhere Schule.*
Fr. *École primaire supérieure.*

28 (d). *Academy; institute; seminary.*—Names given indifferently to private secondary schools. "Institute" is occasionally applied to schools of higher grade.

Eng. *Grammar school; high school; institute; public school,* etc.
Fr. *Établissement libre d'enseignement secondaire; établissement laïque; établissement ecclésiastique; petit seminaire.*

30. *Session.*—A sitting of a school, or assembly of the pupils for recitations, exercises, and studies, continuing from the time the school is called to order until the pupils are dismissed beyond the teachers' jurisdiction. There are generally either one or two sessions each day.

Eng. *Meeting of the school.*
Ger. *Schulstunde.*

31. *Recess; intermission.*—Brief suspensions of school exercises, recurring periodically each day, for recreation, meals, or some other purpose. In public elementary schools holding sessions from nine to twelve A.M., and from one to four P.M., two recesses of fifteen minutes each take place, the first at or near the hour of 10.30 A.M., and the second at or near the hour of 2.30 P.M. The noon hour for dinner is not called a "recess," but usually an "intermission."

Ger. *Freiviertelstunde.*
Fr. *Récréations; sortie de midi.*

32. *Corporal punishment.*—Punishment inflicted upon a pupil's person, generally with a rod, cane, or ruler, but including a variety of other punishments in which bodily pain is caused. Other punishments, to be discriminated from corporal, are such as are based on the sense of honor, such as deprivation from privileges of the school, confinement after school hours, requirement to sit or stand in some unusual place, enrollment on a list of disgraced pupils, etc.

33 (a). *Promotion.*—Advancement from any grade to the next higher.

Eng. *Advance to higher standard.*
Ger. *Versetzung.*
Fr. *Avancement; montée d'une classe.*

33 (b). *Grade; class.*—The body or group of pupils having the same degree of advancement, pursuing the same studies, etc.

Eng. *Standard.*
Ger. *Klasse.*
Fr. *Classe.*
It. *Classe; grado.*
Sp. *Celas; grado.*

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION.

OFFICERS FOR 1892–93.

President—E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, O.
Vice-President—F. A. Fitzpatrick, Omaha, Neb.
Secretary and Treasurer—Chas. De Garmo, Swarthmore, Pa.

Executive Committee—The President, Vice-President, Secretary; and E. E. White, Columbus, O.; D. L. Kiehle, St. Paul, Minn.; N. M. Butler, New York, N. Y.; J. Baldwin, Austin, Texas.

MEMBERS.

NOTE.—The letter "A" following a name denotes that the member is of the class elected by the Association; the letter "C" by the Council.

	Term Expires.
W. H. Bartholomew, Louisville, Ky	A 1893
Frank A. Fitzpatrick, Omaha, Neb	A 1893
Henry Sabin, Des Moines, Ia	A 1893
E. O. Lyte, Millersville, Pa	A 1893
J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo	A 1893
Wm. A. Mowry, Salem, Mass	C 1893
Selim H. Peabody, Chicago, Ill	C 1893
Nathan C. Schaeffer, Kutztown, Pa	C 1893
David L. Kiehle, St. Paul, Minn	C 1893
Mary E. Nicholson, Indianapolis, Ind	C 1893
C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H	A 1894
H. S. Jones, Lincoln, Neb	A 1894
Z. Richards, Washington, D. C	A 1894
James H. Baker, Boulder, Col	A 1894
John T. Prince, Boston, Mass	A 1894
Aaron Gove, Denver, Col	C 1894
Wm. E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass	C 1894
James H. Hoose, Cortland, N. Y	C 1894
Clara Conway, Memphis, Tenn	C 1894
H. H. Seerley, Cedar Falls, Iowa	C 1894
R. W. Stevenson, Columbus, O	A 1895
John Eaton, Washington, D. C	A 1895
A. R. Taylor, Emporia, Kan	A 1895
W. R. Garrett, Nashville, Tenn	A 1895
Jas. L. Hughes, Toronto, Can	A 1895
Geo. P. Brown, Bloomington, Ill	C 1895
Bettie A. Dutton, Cleveland, O	C 1895
Henry M. James, Omaha, Neb	C 1895
Delia L. Williams, Delaware, O	C 1895
Wm. F. King, Mt. Vernon, Iowa	C 1895
Edwin C. Hewett, Normal, Ill	A 1896
Andrew J. Rickoff, New York, N. Y.	A 1896
Euler B. Smith, La Grange, Ga	A 1896
George Howland, Chicago, Ill	A 1896
John S. Irwin, Fort Wayne, Ind	A 1896
John W. Dickinson, Boston, Mass	C 1896
H. S. Tarbell, Providence, R. I	C 1896
E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, Ohio	C 1896
Ella C. Sabin, Fox Lake, Wis	C 1896
John W. Cook, Normal, Ill	C 1896
Wm. T. Harris, Washington, D. C	A 1897
D. Bemiss, Spokane Falls, Wash	A 1897

J. E. Bradley, Minneapolis, Minn. A 1897
Geo. T. Fairchild, Manhattan, Kan. ..... A 1897
Chas. W. Eliot, Cambridge, Mass. A 1897
Charles De Garmo, Swarthmore, Pa. C 1897
L. H. Jones, Indianapolis, Ind. ... C 1897
C. M. Woodward, St. Louis, Mo .. C 1897
W. N. Hailmann, La Porte, Ind. .. C 1897
Nicholas Murray Butler, New York ..... C 1897
R. G. Boone, Bloomington, Ind. . A 1898
F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo. ... A 1898
N. A. Calkins, New York, N. Y. .. A 1898
Joseph Baldwin, Huntsville, Tex. . A 1898
Jas. H. Canfield, Lincoln, Neb. ... A 1898
A. S. Draper, Albany, N. Y. ..... C 1898
Wm. H. Maxwell, Brooklyn, N. Y. C 1898
Emerson E. White, Cincinnati, O . C 1898
B. A. Hinsdale, Ann Arbor, Mich. C 1898
N. C. Dougherty, Peoria, Ill ..... C 1898

HONORARY MEMBERS.

Robert Allyn, Carbondale, Ill.
Israel W. Andrews,* 1888.
Henry Barnard, Hartford, Ct.
William N. Barringer, Newark, N. J.
Newton Bateman, Galesburg, Ill.
Thomas W. Bicknell, Boston, Mass.
Albert G. Boyden, Bridgewater, Mass.
Anna C. Brackett, New York, N. Y.
Edward Brooks, Philadelphia, Pa.
Matthew H. Buckham, Burlington, Vt.
David M. Camp, New Britain, Conn.
Aaron L. Chapin, Beloit, Wis.
Matilda S. Cooper, Nyack, N. Y.
William J. Corthell, Gorham, Maine.
J. L. M. Curry, Richmond, Va.
N. R. H. Dawson, Selma, Ala.
V. C. Dibble, Charleston, S. C.
Larkin Dunton, Boston, Mass.
William W. Folwell, Minneapolis, Minn.
Daniel C. Gilman, Baltimore, Md.
Samuel S. Greene,* 1883.
James C. Greenough, Westfield, Mass.
John M. Gregory, Washington, D. C.
Daniel B. Hagar, Salem, Mass.
G. Stanley Hall, Worcester, Mass.
William D. Henkle,* 1882.
Elnathan E. Higbee,* 1889.
Ira G. Hoitt, Sacramento, Cal.
J. George Hodgins, Toronto, Can.
George W. Howison, San Francisco, Cal.
Thomas Hunter, New York, N. Y.
Ellen Hyde, Framingham, Mass.
E. S. Joynes, Knoxville, Tenn.
Thomas Kirkland, Toronto, Can.
Merrick Lyon,* 1888.
James MacAlister, Philadelphia, Pa.
Martin, Lillie J., San Francisco, Cal.
Parker, Warren D., Madison, Wisc.
James McCosh, Princeton, N. J.
Albert P. Marble, Worcester, Mass.
Francis A. March, Easton, Pa.
Thos. J. Morgan, Washington, D. C.
Lemuel Moss, Minneapolis, Minn.
M. A. Newell, Havre de Grace, Md.
Birdseye G. Northrop, Clinton, Ct.
Edward Olney,* 1886.
John M. Ordway, New Orleans, La.
Gustavus J. Orr,* 1888.
Francis W. Parker, Chicago, Ill.
S. S. Parr, St. Cloud, Minn.
W. H. Payne, Nashville, Tenn.
John B. Peaslee, Cincinnati, Ohio.
William F. Phelps, St. Paul, Minn.
Joseph L. Pickard, Iowa City, Iowa.
John D. Philbrick,* 1885.
William H. Ruffner, Lexington, Va.
H. E. Shepard, Charleston, S. C.
Edgar A. Singer, Philadelphia, Pa.
James H. Smart, Lafayette, Ind.
Homer B. Sprague, ——, Cal.
J. W. Stearns, Madison, Wis.
Thomas B. Stockwell, Providence, R. I.
Grace Bibb Sudborough, Omaha, Neb.
John Swett, San Francisco, Cal.
Eli T. Tappan,* 1888.
Charles O. Thompson,* 1885.
H. S. Thompson, Columbia, S. C.
L. S. Thompson, Jersey City, N. J.
S. R. Thompson, New Wilmington, Pa.
Julia S. Tutweiler, Livingston, Ala.
James P. Wickersham,* 1891.
J. Ormond Wilson, Washington, D. C.
John Hancock,* 1891.
Thigpen, W. R., Savannah, Ga.
James, E. J., Philadelphia, Pa.

* Deceased.

STANDING COMMITTEES.

The committees from which reports are due in 1894 are Nos. II., III., IV., VII., X., XII. The topics already reported on will be found in italics, with the year of the report in parentheses.

The chairman of each of the above-named committees should communicate with the other members of his committee at once, select a subject, and notify the President, E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, Ohio.

I. On State School Systems.

—SUB-TOPICS: (1) *Organization* (1883); (2) *Supervision* (1885); (3) *Licensure of Teachers* (1889); (4) School Revenues; (5) *Compulsory Education* (1891); (6) *Tenure of Office of Teachers* (1887); (7) Supplying the schools with Text Books; (8) *State, County, City and District Supervision* (1892).

W. R. Garrett, Nashville, Tenn., *Chairman.*
A. S. Draper, Albany, N. Y.
James H. Canfield, Lincoln, Neb.
David L. Kiehle, St. Paul, Minn.
George Howland, Chicago, Ill.

II. On City School Systems.—

SUB-TOPICS: (1) Organization; (2) *Supervision* (1884, 1890); (3) Superintendency; (4) Qualification of Teachers; (5) *Classification of Pupils* (1886); (6) Ungraded Schools; (7) *Business Side of City School Systems* (1888, 1889, 1890); (8) Promotions and Examinations; (9) Evening Schools; (10) Enriching the Course of Study below the High School.

Frank A. Fitzpatrick, Omaha, Neb., *Chairman.*
Aaron Gove, Denver, Col.
N. C. Dougherty, Peoria, Ill.
John E. Bradley, Minneapolis, Minn.
H. S. Tarbell, Providence, R. I.

III. On Higher Education.—

SUB-TOPICS: (1) *Higher Institutions Required* (1885); (2) *Harmonizing of Higher, Secondary, and Elementary Schools* (1882); (3) *Admission to College* (1884); (4) *Elective System* (1888); (5) College Government; (6) What Should Precede the University? (7) The Seminary Method of Instruction.

Nicholas Murray Butler, New York, N. Y., *Chairman.*
Charles W. Eliot, Cambridge, Mass.
Wm. F. King, Mt. Vernon, Ia.
John Eaton, Washington, D. C.
B. A. Hinsdale, Ann Arbor, Mich.

IV. On Secondary Education.

—SUB-TOPICS: (1) *High Schools* (1882); (2) *Academies* (1885); (3) *Preparation for College* (1884); (4) *Relation of High Schools to Colleges* (1887); (5) *Opportunities of the Rural Population for Secondary Education* (1889); (6) Schools by Correspondence; (7) *Uniformity in Requirements for Admission to College* (1891); (8) Difference between College methods of Instruction and High-school methods.

W. H. Bartholomew, Louisville, Ky., *Chairman.*
James H. Baker, Boulder, Col.
F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo.
H. H. Seerley, Cedar Falls, Ia.
John S. Irwin, Ft. Wayne, Ind.

V. On Elementary Education.

—SUB-TOPICS: (1) *Course of Study* (1882); (2) *Oral Teaching* (1884); (3) *Text-Books* (1886); (4) *Waste in Elementary Education* (1888); (5) Kindergarten; (6) Language Lessons in Elementary Schools; (7) Science Teaching in Lower Grades; (8) *Essentials in Elementary Education* (1890); (9) *The Uses of Literature in Elementary Education* (1892).

L. H. Jones, Indianapolis, Ind., *Chairman.*
Ella C. Sabin, Fox Lake, Wis.
Wm. E. Sheldon, Boston, Mass.
H. S. Jones, Lincoln, Neb.
Bettie A. Dutton, Cleveland, Ohio.

VI. On Normal Education.—

SUB-TOPICS: (1) Kind of Normal Schools required; (2) *Academical and Professional Training* (1883, 1889); (3) *Practice Departments* (1885); (4) *City Normal Schools* (1891); (5) *Teachers' Institutes*

(1887); (6) *The Relation of the Normal School to Other Institutions of Learning* (1892); (7) Normal School Extension.

C. C. Rounds, Plymouth, N. H., *Chairman.*
Nathan C. Schaeffer, Kutztown, Pa.
John W. Dickinson, Boston, Mass.
A. R. Taylor, Emporia, Kansas.
W. N. Hailman, La Porte, Ind.

VII. On Technological Education.— SUB-TOPICS: (1) *Technical Training in Public Schools* (1881); (2) Preparation for Institutes of Technology; (3) *Pedagogical Value of the School Workshop* (1886); (4) *Agricultural Colleges* (1888); (5) Summer Schools of Science; (6) Relation of Technological to Liberal Education.

C. M. Woodward, St. Louis, Mo., *Chairman.*
George T. Fairchild, Manhattan, Kan.
Henry M. James, Omaha, Neb.
Selim H. Peabody, Chicago, Ill.
Euler B. Smith, La Grange, Ga.

VIII. On Pedagogics. — SUB-TOPICS: (1) *Chairs of Pedagogy in Colleges* (1882); (2) *Pedagogy as a Science* (1884); (3) Pedagogical Inquiry; (4) *Function of Public Schools* (1886, 1887); (5) *Educational Value of Manual Training* (1889); (6) Moral Education; (7) Pedagogical Terminology; (8) *The Education of the Will* (1891); (9) Distinguishing Ideas in the Herbartian System of Pedagogy; (10) *Scope and Character of Pedagogical Work in Universities* (1892).

Chas. De Garmo, Swarthmore, Pa., *Chairman.*
John T. Prince, Newtonville, Mass.
Geo. P. Brown, Bloomington, Ill.
Delia L. Williams, Delaware, Ohio.
R. G. Boone, Bloomington, Ind.

IX. On Moral Education.— [Changed from—"*On the Education of Girls,*" 1891.] SUB-TOPICS: (1) *Coeducation* (1883, 1890); (2) *Technical Training for Girls* (1886); (3) *What Education is Best* (1888); (4) *The Education of Girls* (1891); (5) *Practical Culture of the Moral Virtues* (1892); (6) Direct and Indirect Moral Teaching.

Joseph Baldwin, Austin, Tex., *Chairman.*
Mary E. Nicholson, Indianapolis, Ind.
Z. Richards, Washington, D. C.
E. E. White, Columbus, Ohio.
Clara Conway, Memphis, Tenn.

X. On School Sanitation, Hygiene and Physical Training.— [Changed from—"*On Hygiene in Education,*" 1891.] SUB-TOPICS: (1) *Sanitary Exercises and Appliances in Public Schools* (1883); (2) *Recesses* (1884, 1885); (3) *Relation of Mental Labor to Physical Health* (1887); (4) *Harmonious Development* (1889); (5) *Physical Education* (1891).

James L. Hughes, Toronto, Canada, *Chairman.*
Wm. A. Mowry, Salem, Mass.
Henry Sabin, Des Moines, Ia.
D. Bemiss, Spokane, Wash.
R. W. Stevenson, Columbus, Ohio.

XI. On Psychological Inquiry.—[Changed from—"*On Educational Literature,*" 1891.] SUB-TOPICS: (1) *School Reports* (1885); (2) *Books on Pedagogy* (1888); (3) *Use of General Libraries* (1887); (4) *Educational Literature* (1890); (5) *Relation of Mnemonic Systems to the Cultivation of the Powers of Thought* (1892).

Wm. T. Harris, Washington, D. C., *Chairman.*
E. O. Lyte, Millersville, Pa.
Edwin C. Hewitt, Normal, Ill.
N. A. Calkins, New York, N. Y.
John W. Cook, Normal, Ill.

XII. On Educational Reports and Statistics.—[Changed from—"*On Educational Statistics,*" 1891.] SUB-TOPICS: (1) *Reforms in Statistics* (1885, 1887); (2) *What Statistics Should be Collected* (1889, 1891).

J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo., *Chairman.*
Andrew J. Rickoff, New York, N. Y.
Wm. H. Maxwell, Brooklyn, N. Y.
James H. Hoose, Thousand Islands Park, N. Y.
E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, Ohio.

REPORT OF SECRETARY.

OPENING SESSION.

SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y., July 7, 1892.

At 10 o'clock, President Baker in the chair, the Council was called to order.

Prayer was offered by Dr. Baldwin. On motion it was agreed that the sessions open at 10 A. M. and at 3:30 P. M.

Voted that the report on "Practical Culture of the Moral Virtues" be postponed to the afternoon session.

The following members were present: Baker, Baldwin, Coy, Dougherty, Miss B. A. Dutton, Dickinson, Fitzpatrick, De Garmo, Prince, Schaeffer, Sheldon, Stevenson, Honorary Member L. Dunton.

Adjourned till 3:30 P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION—JULY 7, 1892.

The Council met at 3:30 P. M.

The report on "Practical Culture of the Moral Virtues," postponed from the morning session, was read by Joseph Baldwin, chairman of the Committee on Moral Education.

At the close of the report, the Committee introduced Larkin Dunton as a specialist, who spoke at length upon the theme of the paper and answered the questions of the members.

The five minute rule was re-adopted by vote of the Council, to govern the length of the speeches in the discussions.

The report was discussed by Messrs. De Garmo, Dougherty, Sheldon, Richards, L. H. Jones, Prince, Dunton and Schaeffer. The discussion was closed by Mr. Baldwin.

The report was, on motion, received and ordered to be printed in the proceedings.

The Council then took a recess of five minutes.

After the recess the report on "The Uses of Literature in Elementary Education" was read by Mr. L. H. Jones, chairman of the Committee on Elementary Education.

The report was discussed by Messrs. De Garmo, Kiehle, Sheldon, Richards, Dunton, Prince, Mowry, Baldwin. The discussion was closed by L. H. Jones.

The report was, on motion, received and ordered to be printed.

Members present: Baker, Baldwin, Coy, Dougherty, Miss Dutton, Dickinson, Fitzpatrick, De Garmo, Kiehle, L. H. Jones, Prince, Richardson, Schaeffer, Sheldon, Stevenson, Mowry. Honorary members, David N. Camp, Larkin Dunton.

Adjourned at 6:15 P. M.

SECOND DAY—JULY 8, 1892.

Council met in the High School at 10 A. M. Prayer was offered by Mr. Schaeffer.

The minutes of the First Day's Sessions were read and approved.

The Council then adjourned to the rooms assigned to the several committees for Round Table Conferences.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Council met at 3:30 P. M.

J. W. Dickinson read his report of the discussion on "Practical Culture of the Moral Virtues." The report was accepted.

J. T. Prince read his report of the discussion on the "Uses of Literature in Elementary Education." The report was accepted.

A report on "Scope and Character of Pedagogical Work in Universities" was read by Chas. De Garmo, chairman of the Committee on Pedagogics.

The Committee introduced Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia College, and Prof. S. G. Williams of Cornell University, who spoke at length upon the various points of the report.

The report was further discussed by Messrs. L. H. Jones, Sheldon, Canfield and Prince. The discussion was closed by Mr. De Garmo.

It was voted that the report be received and printed.

J. H. Canfield received permission to read his report of the discussion. The report was accepted.

The President announced the following Committees:

Committee on membership: W. E. Sheldon, A. S. Draper, F. A. Fitzpatrick.

Committee on nominations: N. C. Dougherty, J. Baldwin, J. Canfield.

Auditing Committee: L. H. Jones, D. L. Kiehle, Z. Richards.

The following members were present: Baker, Baldwin, Butler, Calkins, Canfield, Coy, Dickinson, Dougherty, Draper, Miss Dutton, Fitzpatrick, De Garmo, Howland, L. H. Jones, Kiehle, King, Miss Nicholson, Prince, Richards, Rounds, Miss Sabin, Sheldon, Stevenson, Schaeffer. Honorary members, Larkin Dunton, David N. Camp, Albert Boyden, Wm. J. Corthell.

Adjourned at 5 o'clock.

THIRD DAY'S SESSIONS—JULY 9, 1892.

Council met at 10 A. M.

The meeting was opened with prayer by Mr. Baldwin.

The minutes of the Second Day's Sessions were read and approved.

The report on "The Relation of the Normal School to other Institutions of Learning" was read by C. C. Rounds, chairman of the Committee on Normal Education.

The report was discussed by Messrs. Schaeffer, Dickinson, Harris, De Garmo, Greenwood, Boyden, Camp, Baldwin, Dunton, Richards. The discussion was closed by Mr. C. C. Rounds.

It was voted that the report be received and printed.

The report on State, County, City and District Supervision was on motion postponed to Monday afternoon.

It was moved and seconded that the Council hold an Executive Session on Monday morning after the regular session.

Voted that the motion be laid on the table.

Voted to receive and hear a report of progress from the Committee of Conference between Colleges and Secondary Schools.

Voted that a recess of five minutes be taken.

After recess the Committee on Conference between Colleges and Secondary Schools received permission to make a final report at the afternoon session.

Voted that the Council go into Executive Session.

On motion it was resolved that in the opinion of the Council absence from a meeting of the Council one year, followed by absence at the succeeding meeting up to the time of the report of the Committee on Membership on the last day of the meeting, must be held to be a resignation of membership.

The following members were present: Baker, Baldwin, Butler, Canfield, Dickinson, Dougherty, Draper, Miss Dutton, Fitzpatrick, De Garmo, Greenwood, Harris, Howland, L. H. Jones, Kiehle, W. F. King, Miss Nicholson, Prince, Richards, Rounds, Miss Ella Sabin, Henry Sabin, Sheldon, Schaeffer, Tarbell. Honorary members: L. Dunton, David N. Camp, Albert G. Boyden, Wm. J. Corthell, Thos. B. Stockwell.

Adjourned at 1:15 P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Council met at 3:30 P. M.

W. T. Harris, chairman of the Committee on Psychological Inquiry, read a report on "The Relation of Mnemonic Systems to the Cultivation of the Power of Thought."

The Committee introduced the specialist, Prof. E. Pick of London, who addressed the Council and answered questions by the members.

The report was discussed by Messrs. Greenwood, Sheldon, Harris and Schaeffer. The discussion was closed by Mr. Harris.

The report was ordered to be received and printed.

The report of the Committee of Conference between Colleges and Secondary Schools was read by Mr. Butler, and, after discussion by the members, was amended and adopted in the following form:

To the National Council of Education.

In the opinion of the Conference of Representatives of Colleges and Secondary Schools, called by authority of the Council, certain conferences by departments of instruction, of teachers in colleges and secondary schools are desirable. We, therefore, recommend to the Council that the following ten persons, namely, President Chas. W. Eliot, of Harvard University, Dr. W. T. Harris, Commissioner of Education, President James B. Angell, of the University of Michigan, Mr. John Tetlow, Master of the Girls' High School, Boston, President James M. Taylor, of Vassar College, Mr. O. D. Robinson, Principal of the Albany, N. Y., High School, President James H. Baker, of the University of Colorado, President R. H. Jesse, of the University of Missouri, Mr. Jas. C. Mackenzie, Head Master of the Lawrenceville, N. J., School, and Professor Henry C. King, of Oberlin College, be designated as an Executive Committee, with full power to call and arrange for such conferences during the academic year 1892–3; that the results of the conferences be reported to said executive committee for such action as they may deem appropriate; and that the executive committee be requested to report fully concerning their action to the Council.

We recommend, further, that the Council ask the Directors of the National Educational Association to authorize the payment of the necessary expenses of the Conference, and that they set apart out of the income and current funds of the present year the sum of twenty-five hundred dollars, which sum shall be available so far as may be necessary to carry on the work of the committee, and shall be disbursed by the Trustees of the National Educational Association on vouchers signed by the Chairman of the Executive Committee herein recommended.

Respectfully submitted on behalf of the Conference,

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER,
Chairman of Committee.

July 9, 1892.

A committee of three, consisting of Messrs. Baker, Sheldon, and Butler, was, by motion, appointed to present and press these recommendations before the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association.

The following members were present: Baker, Baldwin, Butler, Calkins, Canfield, Coy, Dickinson, Dougherty, Draper, Miss Dutton, Fitzpatrick, De Garmo, Greenwood, Harris, Howland, James, L. H. Jones, Kiehle, King, Miss Nicholson, Prince, Richards, Rounds, Ella C. Sabin, Sheldon, Schaeffer, Henry Sabin, Tarbell. Honorary Members: L. Dunton, David N. Camp, Albert G. Boyden, Wm. J. Corthell, Grace C. Subborough.

Adjourned at 6.15 P.M.

FOURTH DAY'S SESSIONS—JULY 11, 1892.

Council met at 10 A. M.

Prayer was offered by Mr. E. E. White.

The minutes were read, corrected, and adopted.

The reading of the report of the discussion on the Relation of Normal Schools and other Institutions of Learning was, on motion, dispensed with, and ordered to be printed in the Proceedings.

A similar motion was carried with reference to the report of the discussion of the Relation of Mnemonic Systems to the Cultivation of the Power of Thought.

In the absence of G. Stanley Hall, the report on State, County, City, and District Supervision was taken up and read by W. R. Garrett, Chairman of the Committee on State School Systems.

The Committee introduced Mr. George Walton, as a specialist, who presented a paper on that portion of the report relating to ungraded schools.

It was moved and seconded that the report be recommitted, with the request that it be returned to the Council at a subsequent session.

Voted that this motion be laid on the table.

The report was taken up seriatim; the first five points were, on motion, passed over; the sixth item, that the country school should be graded, was discussed by Messrs. Harris, Baldwin, Sabin, Richards, Greenwood, Harris, Dickinson, White, Kiehle, Brown.

It was ordered that the report of Mr. Walton be printed.

The motion to recommit the report of the Committee was taken up and passed.

The following members were present: Baker, Baldwin, Brown, Butler, Canfield, Coy, Dickinson, Dougherty, Draper, Miss Dutton, Fitzpatrick, De Garmo, Gove, Garrett, Greenwood, Harris, Howland, James, L. H. Jones, Kiehle, King, Lyte, Miss Nicholson, Peabody, Richards, Rounds, Ella Sabin, Sheldon, Schaeffer, H. Sabin, Tarbell, Mrs. Delia L. Williams, White. Honorary members: L. Dunton, David N. Camp, A. G. Boyden, W. J. Corthell, Grace C. Subborough, Thos. B. Stockwell.

Adjourned at 12.45 P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Council met at 3:30 P. M.

The minutes of the morning session were read, amended and approved.

It was voted that more time be allowed for the completion of Mr. James's report of the discussion on Ungraded Schools, and that in case it be unfinished at the close of this meeting, the report be referred to the Executive Committee and printed.

N. C. Dougherty presented a report of the conference on City School systems.

L. H. Jones presented a report of the conference on Elementary Education.

C. C. Rounds made a report of the conference on Normal Education.

Chas. De Garmo read a report of the conference on Pedagogics.

The reports were on motion received, referred to the Executive Committee, and ordered to be printed under the usual limitations.

It was agreed that the reports of these Round Table Conferences be printed with the statement that they were not discussed in the regular meetings of the Council.

A telegram was received from G. Stanley Hall, stating that he had been delayed.

On motion it was resolved that the Council go into executive session.

The report of the Auditing Committee upon the account of the Treasurer was received and adopted.

N. C. Schaeffer, Treasurer, in account with National Council of Education.

1891.	RECEIPTS.	*Dr.*	*Cr.*
July 14	—Received from D. L. Kiehle, former Treasurer	$97 53	
1892.			
July 9	—Dues received from July 14, 1891, to July 9, 1892	142 00	
	DISBURSEMENTS.		
1891.			
Aug. 19	—Express charges paid to Z. Richards		$6 90
Sept. 28	—Printing charges paid to G. P. Brown		7 50
Oct. 24	—Express charges and type-writing to S. H. Peabody		7 02
1892.			
July 8	—Stationery		50
" 8	—Express charges		40
" 9	—Printing 750 copies, N. A. Calkins		97 00
" 9	—Express charges on same		16 16
" 9	—Balance on hand		104 05
		$239 53	$239 53

To the National Council of Education: The undersigned, Auditing Committee, have examined the accounts of the Treasurer of this Council, Nathan C. Schaeffer, together with the vouchers accompanying said accounts, and find the whole correct.

L. H. JONES, *Chairman.*
Z. RICHARDS.
D. L. KEIHLE.

The Committee on Membership made the following report, which was on motion received and adopted.

SARATOGA SPRINGS, *July* 11, 1892.

To the National Council of Education: Your Committee on Membership have attended to the work assigned to them, and respectfully submit the following report:

The term of membership of five persons expires in 1892, viz.: Andrew S. Draper, Albany, N. Y.; Emerson E. White, Cincinnati, Ohio; N. C. Dougherty, Peoria, Ill.; B. A. Hinsdale, Ann Arbor, Mich.; and William H. Maxwell, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Your Committee recommend that these gentlemen be respectively reëlected for a term of six years—term to expire in 1898.

The action of the Council, as embodied in the following resolution: "Resolved, That in the opinion of the Council, absence from all the sessions of the Council for one year, followed by absence at the succeeding meeting up to the time of the report of the Committee on Membership, on the last day of the meeting, must be held to be a resignation of active membership," creates four vacancies on account of such absence.

Your Committee recommend the following persons to fill these vacancies: 1. A. R. Taylor, of Emporia, Kansas, to fill the vacancy caused by the absence of Lillie J. Martin; term to expire in 1895. 2. John W. Cook, of Normal, Ill., in place of Warren D. Parker; term to expire in 1896. 3. Euler B. Smith, of La Grange, Ga., in place of W. R. Thigpen; term to expire in 1896. 4. Charles W. Eliot, of Cambridge, Mass., in place of E. J. James; term to expire in 1897. Respectfully submitted,

WILLIAM E. SHELDON,
FRANK A. FITZPATRICK,
A. S. DRAPER.

It was voted that the officers of the Council make arrangements with the officers of the National Educational Association to have the proceedings printed from the plates or type of the general volume.

A letter was read from D. B. Hager, saying that when he was ready to start for the meeting of the Council his physician forbade his coming.

The Committee on Nominations made the following report:

President.—E. W. Coy.
Vice-President.—F. A. Fitzpatrick.
Secretary & Treasurer.—Charles De Garmo.
Executive Committee.—E. E. White, D. L. Kiehle, N. M. Butler, J. Baldwin.

The Secretary was instructed to cast the ballots for the officers placed in nomination.

They were declared elected.

The Custodian was authorized to ask active and honorary members for copies of the Proceedings of the Council, and to sell the same at fifty cents per copy.

Voted that the thanks of the Council be extended to the retiring officers. With appropriate remarks the retiring President presented the newly elected President, who had been conducted to the chair in the usual form.

Voted that the names of deceased members be placed with a star upon the list of Honorary Members.

After the minutes of the afternoon session were read and approved, the Council adjourned.

J. H. BAKER, *President.*
N. C. SCHAEFFER, *Secretary.*

REPORT OF ATTENDANCE.

The following were present at one or more of the sessions of 1892 :

Baker, Baldwin, Brown, Butler, Calkins, Canfield, Coy, De Garmo, Dickinson, Dougherty, Draper, Miss Dutton, Fitzpatrick, Garrett, Gove, Greenwood, Harris, Howland, James, L. H. Jones, Kiehle, King, Lyte, Mowry, Miss Nicholson, Peabody, Prince, Richards, Rounds, Miss Sabin, H. Sabin, Schaeffer, Sheldon, Stevenson, Tarbell, Mrs. Williams, White.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON MORAL EDUCATION.

PRACTICAL CULTURE OF THE MORAL VIRTUES.

By the practical culture of the moral virtues is meant the development of moral character, for the moral virtues are the ingredients of moral character. It seems fitting that we should approach the study of moral education from the standpoint of history, for history and biography teach us, by example, how to cultivate the moral virtues. As we go to the Spartans to learn the possibilities of physical culture, and to the Athenians to learn the possibilities of æsthetic culture, so we go to the peoples who have exalted the moral virtues, to learn the possibilities of ethical culture. History and biography present us a marvellous series of object lessons in the practical culture of the moral virtues. Two or three examples selected from this wonderful series, will illustrate the historic plan of ethical study.

The Jew teaches us fidelity. The savage is a savage from habit, for savagery is the line of least resistance. The unthinking masses move round and round in the treadmill of custom, for this is easier than independent action. But the Jew is a Jew from conviction as well as from habit. For many centuries it has cost much to be a Jew, yet the Jewish people have proven true to their convictions. Their history is a striking object lesson in the development of the virtue of fidelity to enlightened conviction. That the God of Abraham created the worlds and gave the Bible, is the earliest lesson taught the Jewish child. With the years the conviction is deepened. From infancy to age, fidelity to this conviction is the deepest impulse in the heart of the Jew. Fidelity grows into a fixed habit. Through all the centuries, the profound belief in Jehovah and in the Hebrew Scriptures has made the Jewish people a perpetual miracle.

The Scotch teach us integrity. The integrity of the Scotch people is proverbial. Go to the homes and schools and kirks of Scotland. You find that integrity in things great and small is every way inculcated. By example, by precept, by training, the habit of integrity is developed. The God of the Scotch is a God of integrity, and the heaven of the Scotch is filled with the departed spirits of men and women of integrity. The Scotch stand for integrity, and are a living object lesson in the practical culture of the moral virtues.

The Quaker teaches us truthfulness. His word stands for more than the oaths of other men. Go to the home of the Quaker. From the earliest to the latest periods of life, truthfulness and honesty are exalted as the crowning virtues. Early and always the Quaker child and youth learn to love truth and speak and act truth. That it is a sacred duty to be truthful becomes a fixed principle, and the habit of truthfulness becomes a fixed habit. The Quaker is a noble object lesson in the practical culture of truthfulness and honesty.

The world's moral heroes teach us all the moral virtues. The lives of the great and good are the best of all lessons in practical ethics. We study the life of Jesus as the one perfect life. We study the lives of the best women and men that we may discover how they grew into moral greatness. History and biography are immensely rich in object lessons teaching the practical culture of the moral virtues. From these lessons we deduce the laws and the methods of moral education. Sacred and classic literature must be counted of highest value.

It seems fitting, in the second place, to study the lessons of environment and heredity as influencing moral conduct. No one knows the extent of the moulding influences of heredity and environment.

A moral atmosphere conditions the growth of the moral virtues. A sturdy moral manhood is almost impossible in the midst of moral pestilence. Our first care should be to remove alluring temptations and degrading influences. Moral pest-houses are very necessary. Our second care should be to throw around the child and the youth all favoring influences. Helpful environments, helpful companionship, helpful literature, helpful society, helpful work are of incalculable value. Our third care should be to incite high purposes and earnest work. The idle classes, rich and poor, are our moral lepers. Only men and women who have high purposes, and who work with tireless energy, develop sturdy moral characters. Circumstances do not make the man, but it is certain that circumstances do much to thwart us in our efforts to develop a grand moral manhood. Weak, struggling mortals need all possible helps and all favoring influences. In a moral atmosphere we find it vastly less difficult to develop the moral virtues than in an atmosphere surcharged with folly. Educators may study with great profit the management of our reform prisons, such as those at Elmira, N. Y., St. Cloud, Minn., and elsewhere. Under favoring environments and skillful management the prisoners are educated out of their vices and into the moral virtues. Most of our pupils come to us with bad habits. Our work is to educate them out of these bad habits and into good habits.

Moral ancestry tends to morality. Practical ethics may gain invaluable lessons from the study of heredity. The tendencies of the offspring of lines of moral ancestors are toward the right. It is certain that the moral education of such persons is far less difficult than that of the off-

spring of immoral ancestors. Henry Ward Beecher uttered an important truth when he said that we should begin with the grandparents to educate the child.

It seems fitting, in the third place, to consider moral education in the light of psychology. Educational evolution is the development of the possibilities of the human germ, for each human germ is a human self in embryo. Each human self is endowed with the same elemental energies, and in all the ages no new activity has been added. Education does not create activities; it simply develops native capabilities. All the capabilities of the man are feebly active in the child; education means the growth of the feeble activities of the child into the mighty activities of the man. Education makes the difference between the infant Newton uttering its first cry, and Newton, the philosopher, trembling with joy as he grasped the problem of the heavens. Education makes the difference between the weak conscience of the child and the powerful conscience of a Spurgeon or a Paul. Conscience stands for our moral nature and keeps us en rapport with the moral universe. Ethical laws are the articulated language of conscience. In its last analysis, moral culture is the education of conscience. Self as intellect finds out right, and self as will purposes and does right, but it is self as conscience that feels the impulse to right. Conscience is the central idea in moral education. When a man does what he considers right, we call his act a moral act, and when moral acts grow into habits, we call them moral virtues. The practical culture of the moral virtues is the development of these virtues into fixed principles and controlling habits. We educate the moral virtues by putting conscience into conduct. In the mental economy all our activities supplement each. We feel in view of ideas, and we determine in view of ideas and emotions. Conscience is our capability to feel in view of ideas of right and wrong, and it is the basis of moral conduct. The brute can do no moral act because it can have no moral ideas. The admirable traits of animals are not moral virtues. Brutes have no moral instincts, nor in fact has man. Man is the only earth-born being capable of moral acts. We stand face to face with the moral universe; by direct insight we gain elementary moral ideas just as we gain elementary cause ideas. Our elementary ethical ideas are intuitions. Rationality conditions morality, and moral education is the education of conscience. Scientific morality and mechanical morality are misnomers. The little child realizes that it ought to obey its parents. The impulse to obey because it ought is the voice of conscience. The child thus early gains the intuition of right, and begins to do moral acts. Each moral act strengthens conscience just as each act of reasoning strengthens reason. The habit is formed of doing what is considered right. The impulse of conscience to find out right, to choose right, and to do right becomes practically imperative. The moral habits of the child grow into the moral virtues of the

adult. Study a single example. The child realizes that it ought to be truthful. It feels the impulse to truthfulness, and so persists in truth-telling until truthfulness grows into a habit, into a moral virtue, into character. As reasoning educates reason, so truth-telling develops truthfulness. It is right, it is my duty, I ought—these expressions are the articulated language of conscience. Moral conduct is conscientious conduct. The greatest thing in education is the development of the habit of doing what we believe we ought to do. This is the education of conscience.

It is fitting, in the fourth place, to study applied ethics as the art of promoting the growth of moral virtues. Moral virtues are moral acts rooted into habits and ingrained into character. A rational act done from a sense of duty is a moral act. No one thinks of the acts of brutes as moral acts. No more do we think of acts intrinsically right as moral acts when not prompted by conscience. Many virtues are not moral virtues. Gracefulness is an æsthetic virtue, but honesty is a moral virtue. The moral virtues are the ingredients of moral character. You are convinced that it is your duty to act honestly. You go on acting honestly until honesty becomes your habit. You are honest from habit as well as from principle. You are now an honest man, for honesty is ingrained in your character. We understand reasonably well how to develop the intellectual powers, but can we claim that we understand equally well how to educate the emotions and the will powers?

1. We determine the ideas and the ideals of the young. We have it in our power, to a great extent, to control the ideas and ideals of the child and the youth. This truth is the rock on which we build. Parents, teachers, ministers and writers determine the ideas and the ideals of the young. We can teach as object lessons, even to the little ones, such great moral laws as these: Be truthful, be honest, be just, be pure, be generous, be faithful, be kind. We can tell of moral heroes in all the walks of life, and thus lead even children to form high moral ideals.

2. But moral ideas must become moral acts. Here we stand face to face with one of our most difficult problems. How can we bring it about that moral ideas shall lead to moral conduct? Moral ideas occasion moral emotions, and naturally prompt to moral purposes and moral acts. Be kind, is a moral law which the young child can understand. The law, when wisely taught, occasions the moral impulse to be kind. The child feels that it ought to be kind. The idea and the impulse lead the child to resolve to be kind. The moral purpose leads the child to do kindly acts. We get the child in love with kindliness. We lead it, more and more, to do kind acts and speak kind words. Kindliness thus grows into a habit and becomes a moral virtue.

3. High moral ideas and worthy moral ideals are fundamental. The masses do not rise above the dead level because their ideas and their ideals

are low. Only men and women with grand ideas and grand ideals develop grand characters. It is in the moral world that this principle has its widest sweep. Supreme motives are necessary to self-control. In the absence of such motives men become slaves to lawless appetites and mad passions. When we learn to think of God as our loving father, of happiness as the result of obedience to law, and of our position among the eternal tenantry of a boundless universe as conditioned by our conduct, we become strong to live the lives of the righteous.

4. The specific culture of each moral virtue is the practical side of moral education. We cannot educate abstractions. To say to the child, "Be good," does little good. We succeed in moral education only when we concentrate; we must develop the moral virtues one by one. The wise teacher now devotes her best efforts to fostering the truth habit. She gives object lessons from life. She tells anecdotes and reads short stories in which truthfulness is exalted. She contrasts the truthful character with the deceiver. She works in her pupils a love of truth and an abhorrence for falsehood. She develops in her pupils a determined purpose to be truthful. Above all, she trains her pupils, in things great and small, to speak the truth and act the truth. Thus, one by one, she promotes the growth of the moral virtues into moral habits. She carries over into moral culture the plans of work that have proven so efficient in intellectual culture. She secures good conduct with as much certainty as good thought.

5. The key-note in moral culture is love and duty. The millions pitch the tune of human conduct too low. Will it give me pleasure? Will it pay? Is it good policy? These are the considerations that determine the conduct of most men. The consequent moral degradation is appalling. But duty is the key-note of every grand life. Conscience stands for duty, for it is our capability to feel duty impulses. These are our deepest and only imperative impulses. Find right, choose right, do right, enjoy right —are the imperial mandates of conscience. As the needle points to the pole, so conscience impels each one to do his duty as he understands it. Here all vital moral culture has its root. Is it right? Is it duty? These are the considerations that determine moral conduct. Duty is the supreme motive. From infancy to age, the greatest thing in education is to so foster the ethical impulses, that they shall become practically imperative in controlling human conduct. The noblest work of God is a man who from principle, and from habit, does what he deems right. The highest work of the educator is the development of such men and women.

JOSEPH BALDWIN, Austin, Texas, *Chairman.*

DISCUSSION.

[REPORTED BY J. W. DICKINSON.]

MR. DUNTON (introduced as a specialist): The aim of moral education should be threefold: knowledge of what ought to be done, power to choose the right, and the habit of right conduct in view of right motives.

Motives may be classified into higher and lower motives, on the basis of selfishness. The lower class of motives consists of those feelings which impel us to do harm to others, such as resentment, envy, and fear. The next higher class of motives is those feelings which impel us to do what we believe will result in good to ourselves, such as the desire for life, knowledge, power, and companionship. Next above the desires stand those feelings which urge us to do good to those who have in some way been beneficial to us, such as family affection, friendship, patriotism, and humanity. Highest of all is the sense of duty, which moves us to do right and refrain from doing wrong, without regard to personal good, either past or future. These motives can be called into action in the minds of children only by changing the state of their knowledge. It is only through the action of the intellect that we can change the state of the feelings. The teacher should know just what knowledge is antecedent to each kind of feeling which is to be used as a motive. Each class of motives has its use, even the lowest. Fear should be used as a motive but sparingly. The desires are proper and sufficient motives for a large part of human conduct, and should be used by the teacher. The principle of love has an important place as a motive, but it should never be made to usurp the place of the desires or of conscience. If a pupil is made to act constantly from love to his teacher, he is in danger of being left without sufficient motives when he is deprived of the teacher's presence. The sense of duty should always be the motive where other motives fail. The fundamental law in the government of children is this: Whenever two motives of different rank impel them to different courses of action, always lead them to act in accordance with the higher motive. This may be accomplished in any or all of three ways: weakening the lower motive, strengthening the higher motive, or reinforcing the higher motive by creating other motives, which will act in the same direction. If this principle be constantly applied, the conscience will ultimately be made the supreme motive in all cases of conflict of motives. The order of procedure in moral education may be briefly stated: knowledge, motive, volition, action, habit.

MR. RICHARDS: Would you ever resort to corporal punishment?

MR. DUNTON: I have no objection to the use of corporal punishment if wisely administered, but I would use it mainly as a restraining influence, and even here less and less as the higher motives can be brought into play.

MR. RICHARDS: Is the child ever made better through corporal punishment?

MR. DUNTON: Perhaps not often by the immediate effects of it, but he is often led by this means to form correct habits of action.

MR. DE GARMO: I wish to call attention to the fact that modern history is an uncertain quantity in the teaching of ethics in the elementary schools. Even teachers are not sure to be right. Suppose the question should arise which is the moral hero, Grant or Lee. A chorus of voices might be heard in favor of each, while some might be in favor of both. Classical literature is much better than history, for it treats of topics as wholes, and in imaginative forms. The ethical lessons stand out clearly and distinctly, so that the child can be led to comprehend an action in its chief moral relations.

MR. PRINCE: I consider love to be the key-note of moral culture rather than duty.

The paper was further considered by Messrs. Richards, Sheldon, Butler, Jones, Dougherty, and Sheldon.

MR. SCHAEFFER: I have thought of the report as a whole. When the celebrated Professor Delitzsch translated the Epistle to the Romans into Hebrew, he could find no term in that language that corresponded to our word conscience. This shows that the teachers in the schools of the prophets founded by Samuel did not talk of the conscience

as much as we do. And yet by the use of Old Testament biography and history the school of those times produced moral heroes like Isaiah and Daniel. Conscience deals with the future, the present, and the past. With regard to the future, it is a monitor, telling us what to do and what to leave undone ; with regard to the present, it acts as a judge, either approving or condemning our conduct ; with regard to the past, it performs the functions of an executive, inflicting penalties upon us for wrong doing, and rewarding us for good conduct. If too much stimulus is given to the primitive activities of the conscience, it may paralyze effort and hinder the development of practical virtues. The New Testament doctrine is that we grow in virtue by oblivion of the past. Forgetting the things which are behind, we press forward toward the mark of our high calling as moral beings. Old Testament literature is quite valuable for the purpose of developing the practical virtues, and while the Old Testament writers, by their use of the Hebrew word for *heart*, show that they looked profoundly into the inner life of man, the significance of their peculiar treatment of the conscience should not be ignored in our modern discussions on the cultivation of moral virtues.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

THE USES OF LITERATURE IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

YOUR Committee has thought it might tend to clearness to define the principal terms of the title of this report; or, at least, to state the meaning given to these terms in this paper.

The term "Elementary Education" has been used to name the process of education as it is carried on in the eight years below the High School; and the recommendations as found herein, are intended to be specially applicable, in the forms here indicated, to those years of the school life.

This paper will therefore deal but incidentally with any questions relative to the uses of literature in the High School, the College, or the University.

It is not so easy to define the other leading term—Literature. Some illustrations and distinctions may lead *toward*, if not *to*, a definition.

We are told in the Bible that "God is a spirit," and that we are created in His image; hence we infer that man in his inherent nature is a spirit. But this spirit builds unto itself, from the dust of the earth, a body, so intimately related to itself as an instrument of expression or manifestation that it is still a question of doubt among thinkers whether it is nearer the truth to say "man is a spirit," or "man is body and spirit."

No one claims, however, that this dust of the earth is any part of man until it is organized by the spirit of man into its own typical form.

See the force of the comparison. Literature is either an *inner essence*, or *spirit*, or an *inner essence* and an *outer form* harmonized by the influence of the inner over the outer—body *and* spirit. But the body, in this case, as in the illustration, is built by the spirit. It is easy to see what the outer is—language. But no one claims that mere words, phrases or clauses, or even sentences as such, are any part of literature; only when these are organized into a fitting external expression of an inner essence, or spirit, do they become a proper body of literature.

In other words, there is a sense in which *style* may fairly be considered an external part of literature; but mere *language* never. If, then, *style* be the *body* of literature, what is the inner essence, or spirit, of literature, which thus dexterously builds unto itself a body—combines words, phrases and clauses into its appropriate instrument of manifestation? The following considerations may help to a correct conception:

1. The mind's action on objective things does not change the things. It is the mind's products occasioned by these things, that can be transformed or organized at will. Since this essence of literature is product of the human spirit, then its *elements* must be those things which the human mind can make. Now, the human mind can produce thoughts, feelings, and volitions, and can do no other thing in the way of making elementary products. It can organize these elementary products of its own making in endless variety, especially as to the relative degree of each employed in any combination. But these elements themselves are not the inner essence of literature unless organized, any more than words are style, or dust is the human body. At this point comes the second consideration :

2. The character of the organized product is determined not alone by the elements which enter into it, but chiefly by the nature of the ruling principle under which the organization is effected.

This ruling principle in the case here referred to is believed to be as follows : Thoughts, feelings, and volitions may be organized into literature by relating them properly to the universal life of man as expressed in the great institutions. There are four underived or fundamental institutions, *i. e.*, institutions not derived from one another, but evolved from the nature of man. These four are general society, the church, the state, and the family.

General society is evolved from mere aggregation by an attempt to systematize companionship for the greater general pleasure ; and since its aim is general, society has always remained in a half-organized condition. But each of the other three fundamental institutions is founded on a great yearning or hope. So soon as man begins to ponder upon the destiny of man, the church in some form arises. When he begins to consider justice as between man and man, the state is born. When he begins to consider the proper regulation of the companionship of the sexes, the family is seen to be a necessary institution. And, finally, all these are seen to have mutual relationships, whereby each institution receives aid from all the others.

Now, each of these great institutions, as has been said, is founded upon a great yearning or a great hope—it is, in fact, a means of realization to the race of the great human hope on which it is founded. Life becomes full of meaning—becomes worth living—when it is passed in these institutions, each realizing its purpose in the individual. The portrayal of life as it *has been lived* in these institutions is history. The portrayal of life as it *may be lived* in these institutions is pure literature. Thus you will see that thoughts, feelings and volitions about life in these institutions, or organized in view of the great central hope of each, become literature, or at least become the spirit of literature, if literature be considered composite ; for it is claimed by some, I know, that however worthy

such thoughts, feelings and volitions may be, or however elevated the spirit of their organization may be, unless they weave unto themselves a fitting body of style they can not be preserved, and can not become, therefore, any part of the permanent literature of the world.

Without having made a formal definition, then, of literature, it has been shown that two appropriate uses of the term may be made, one naming an inner essence—the spirit, so to speak—and the other the combination of this with its outer form of style. The context will show in which sense the term is employed from this point throughout the paper.

Now, the school is a derived institution. Its purpose is to prepare the young to live in the other and underived institutions. For when the family, the state and the church have done all they by their nature are capable of doing for man, he is not only saved for this world, but likewise for the next.

Every subject taught in school has an immediate or remote relation to this end. The scope of this paper precludes the statement of these. Among all these ends it is easy now to select the chief use or function of literature in elementary schools : To give to children elevated notions of institutional life, and to acquaint them with their duties and privileges in each.

As has already been said, the other subjects give the practical details of life in these institutions. It is left to literature to idealize and universalize each institution. Nothing is more needed in our American life.

These institutions are the outgrowth of the inherent nature of man. No race or variety of men has ever been discovered in which these institutions did not exist at least in germ ; and progress in civilization everywhere is but progress in the perfection and idealization of one or more of these fundamental institutions.

To have the conduct of man reach the universal standard in each of these three institutions is to realize the hope and the destiny of man. When the deed of one may, without detriment to any, become the deed of all, under like circumstances, the institution is ideally perfect, and its members realize the good which they have reason to expect from life in such institution.

It has been said that some men live poetry while some men write it. So it is with all literature. Some men live it, and some men write it, and a few both live it and write it. To live with people of noble nature, high ideals, and pure life, is in itself ennobling. But in literature there is something still better, viz.: the portrayal of the ideally perfect and the universal in life. Literature is not bound by those unpleasant limitations of time, space and casualty, which so mercilessly hold us in bondage ; but it can transcend all and put the student into contact with ideal life in all lands and in all ages, can universalize and idealize all institutions.

Doubtless the limitations must come into literature, too, as a means of

contrast; but the function of literature is doubtless not to emphasize limitations, but to eulogize the ideally perfect. This it can do through the power of the imagination to leap from peak to peak without the necessity of passing through the dark intervening valley.

The practical details of living greatly materialize the notions of the young, and leave them open to the insidious approaches of the sordid vices. To withstand this modern Hercules, some power not derived from earth is necessary. The idealization of life as found in the best literature gives this power.

The proper order of presentation of literature to the child is doubtless psychological rather than logical. The interests of family and social life chiefly engage his attention. The graver concerns of state and church doubtless come later. Yet the *elements* of all are simple, and all should receive some attention from the first. It is not the purpose of this paper to outline a course in literature, except so far as this may be necessary to a clear conception of the nature of true literature and its function in Elementary Education.

A brief statement further, therefore, is all that is allowable on this point.

The statement of the uses of literature as already given, viz.: To give to pupils elevated notions of institutional life, has its greatest importance in the fact that this statement determines both the kind of literature selected and the method of its presentation. Writings which idealize the relationship of husband and wife, of father and mother to children, of brothers and sisters in the family, and represent in a pleasing way these persons engaged in the duties growing out of such relations, are helpful in setting the ideal of family life. These duties must be faithfully represented from their ethical side, and made to seem duties; but over each must be placed the rainbow glow which gives the charm necessary to make such a course of life seem truly beautiful. "Snow Bound," "Among the Hills," and "Evangeline" show that glorification is not inconsistent with the ethical element, while the fairy tale of "Cinderella" shows in a pleasing way that life may be lived happily and worthily whether in a palace or a hovel.

But instances in which these family relationships are glorified and sanctified, without distorting the ethical element involved, are so numerous in poetry, fairy tale, or charming prose, that it is unnecessary even to mention any further illustrations.

It should be added that nothing which lowers or materializes these relationships should ever be admitted, unless occasionally for purposes of contrast, for some purpose of effective condemnation; and, indeed, even these latter uses scarcely warrant their introduction. In like manner, the relationships of general society, those of the state and the church, should in their time be surrounded by the halo of youthful enthusiasm.

From the above chief use of literature in the elementary grades, I pass to the consideration of a subordinate one, which, though subordinate, I regard as valid, viz.: As material to be used in teaching children to read.

In order to be able to read, a child must, of course, know words as words and letters as letters. But the process by which this is learned will receive its significance, and therefore its effectiveness, from a hope and a purpose beyond letters and words. The printed word in black ink on a white page is not a thing of beauty. It is not even a temporary joy to the child. The idea which it helps to signify gives its meaning, enlists the interest of the child, and brings the powers to bear on its mastery, because of the purpose involved in its mastery, viz.: That through this word, combined properly with its fellows, ideas of bewitching interest and permanent value may be obtained.

No reading matter should ever be placed before children which does not thus lead them to strive to master the form for the sake of the entrancing beauty and worth of what is enshrined within the outer form, and none of these outer forms should ever be presented for study except as the shell, holding within the valued kernel. The teacher who thus learns to search for and to show the beautiful institutional truth in the simple child-literature will teach reading as an *incidental* exercise much more rapidly and correctly than the driller upon words can ever do while devoting her *whole* time to this profitless routine.

It is in place here to say that while I am in favor of placing before our pupils only the best in literature, and while I claim that children should accomplish their learning to read by testing their powers on the best literature, I wish yet to say that I think the great outcry against our school readers, now to be heard on every hand, is due not entirely to the fault of the readers themselves, but partly to a lack of comprehension by teachers of the possibilities of these same pieces of composition contained in the readers.

Teachers do not themselves know the meaning of the pieces they condemn. I have heard a class read Hans Andersen's story of the "Five Peas" without being transported outside of the kitchen garden; I have heard pupils read selections from "Snow Bound" without having had their notions of the family the least bit glorified. But this was not the fault of the reading book in either case, but distinctly the fault of the teacher.

I have myself never finished the delightful task of studying out the manifold interesting relationships to literature and life of those fragments of eloquent prose and beautiful poetry which early in life I found in McGuffey's Sixth Reader, and which were fortunately interpreted to me by a spiritually minded teacher. While, therefore, I believe in supplementary reading, and while I believe decidedly in wholes rather than

fragments, I also believe in teaching our teachers how to use the materials already in their hands; and any one who will take the trouble to examine our best school readers will find many literary gems of great worth in them.

L. H. JONES, Indianapolis, Ind.,
Chairman.

DISCUSSION.

[REPORTED BY J. T. PRINCE.]

MR. DE GARMO said that the real truth has been laid bare in this report. Literature for children is doubly valuable, because it reveals institutional life, and because it interests them. It interests them because it is concrete and appeals to their imagination. Men commit crime because they have not imagination enough to see themselves as what they are capable of becoming. The reading of good literature will serve to supply this lack.

MR. KIEHLE asked when the reading of literature should be begun.

MR. JONES replied that it should be begun on the first day the child enters school.

MR. SHELDON, as a member of the committee, desired to emphasize that part of the report relating to the selection of material of reading. The best literature tends to cultivate the æsthetic nature of the child, and to arouse in him higher notions of life. He protested against the use of "Information Readers." There is a notion abroad that time given to anything that idealizes is a waste. The utilitarian idea of education is so strong in many places as to lead School Boards to adopt readers wholly unworthy as a means of culture.

The standard pieces in our best reading-books frequently teach patriotism, and all of the noble virtues, better than any other text-book. He commended highly Plutarch's Lives, which had been to him one of the best text-books he had ever had.

MR. RICHARDS said that the natural inference which might be made from one passage of the report was that the school may teach the child all he need to know of religion.

MR. DUNTON was in thorough accord with the spirit of the report, but desired to call attention to one paragraph which seemed to carry the idea that reading words is only incidental. A good knowledge of words is a necessary condition for reading literature. The child should be led first to read what he is most familiar with. There is a distinction between colloquial language and literary language—although there is doubtless a connection between the two. The child may pass from one to the other, but should not begin with reading literature which he may not understand.

MR. KIEHLE said that he agreed with Mr. Dunton. The exercise of handling the words and thoughts familiar to the child should precede the reading of literature, which could hardly be presented so early as the primer period.

MR. PRINCE said that while the mechanical stage in reading is necessary, the reading of literature may be begun earlier than is generally thought possible. He referred to the practice of German teachers in leading children to read classical poetry as early as the second year in school, and spoke of having recently fourth-year pupils reading with great delight "Hiawatha" and "Evangeline." We are likely to underestimate the powers of children in this regard.

MR. MOWRY spoke of the great value of good reading in cultivating the imagination and in awakening the æsthetic and ethical powers of children. There is in all literature a body and spirit, and attention must be given to both. Little interest can be excited in children by reading words only. Just as soon as possible the words should be brought into known relations. He cited an instance of a total change of interest in reading about natural objects as soon as the objects were brought into the presence of the children and talked about. Much will necessarily depend upon the teacher in awakening an interest and in making the reading effective.

MR. BALDWIN wished to emphasize the cultivation of a literary taste in children by reading the best literature. Less arithmetic and less facts should be learned, and the time thus gained should be given to leading the children to come into contact with the best in literature.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PEDAGOGICS.

SCOPE AND CHARACTER OF PEDAGOGICAL WORK IN UNIVERSITIES.

It is not strange that many prominent school men should sit in the seat of the scornful as soon as the study of pedagogy is mentioned, when their ideal of pedagogy is the exceedingly elementary discussion concerning education found in such books as Page's "Theory and Practice of Teaching" and "Fitch's Lectures"—books which are indeed an inspiration to young misses just from the village high school, but which are wholly inadequate for university work. At most they are but the occupation of leisure hours. College students get no inspiration, and but little knowledge, from primers in any department of learning. Nor has the rote learning of the history of education from such volumes as Compayré or Quick much more significance. Gentlemen have been pleased to call such elementary instruction the history and philosophy of education. They have occupied the attention of university students in many cases with painful efforts to demonstrate truths that become axiomatic upon presentation.

A most unfortunate result of such teaching of pedagogy is that the mind soon becomes inoculated against any genuine fundamental study of educational problems. Dealing only with the commonplace and axiomatic, it soon complacently settles all disputed questions with a maxim from Page or Quick. In reality, however, educational problems are not so simple that they can be solved by a little pedagogical mental arithmetic. They involve, rather, wide knowledge and profound research. For example, the history of education for any period is not understood in its vast implications when studied from a manual, but only when approached in the spirit and with the methods of Mr. Davidson's recent book on "Aristotle and Ancient Educational Ideals." It is not to be imagined that the student will be able to produce such results as the erudition and trained power of Mr. Davidson have given us, but only that he should work by the same methods, under such a master as Mr. Davidson would be.

I am well aware that the quality of work which I have described does not now pervade the whole, and, perhaps, not even a part of the pedagogical work done in some universities. Yet, unfortunately, it is the

ideal that many of the most influential of our school men have. Had I, like them, so low an ideal of the study of pedagogy, I, too, should regard it as an idle fad of short-sighted pedagogues. But however distorted or inadequate the popular notion may be, a thoughtful consideration of the question shows one that there is plenty to do in the educational field, and that it is eminently worthy of being done.

Even the gentlemen who sneer at their own conceptions of what the study of pedagogy is good for, acknowledge by their attentive presence at these national conventions that there are important unsettled matters in education, worthy of this great annual gathering, quite deserving the long, thoughtful study of our best minds. Even President Eliot, himself, finds it worth while to rouse all New England by his proposals for strictly educational changes in the grammar-school curriculum. A few days ago, a professor of English in one of our great universities gravely informed me that he had no faith "in this pedagogical theory," yet this same gentleman has for five years vainly striven to master the pedagogical problems arising in his own department, and must now await a greater than himself to solve them. Even so eminent a man as Professor Huxley encounters the following educational dilemma, as described by himself in the preface of the second edition of his "Practical Biology": "The reader who compares the two editions will observe that the order in which the subjects are presented is completely changed. In the first edition the lowest forms of life were first dealt with; the series of plants followed in ascending order; and then the series of animals, from the bell animalcule upwards to the frog. No doubt," he continues, "there is much to be said for the principle of this arrangement, which leads the student from the study of simple to that of complex phenomena; but the experience of the lecture-room and the laboratory taught me that, philosophical as it might be in theory, it had defects in practice. After two or three years' trial of the road from the simple to the complex, I became so throughly convinced that the way from the known to the unknown was easier for students, that I reversed my course, and began with such animals as a rabbit or a frog, about which everybody knows something, while their anatomy and physiology are illustrated by innumerable analogies with those of our own bodies."

In this argument, Mr. Huxley seems balancing between two educational principles, both of which he regards as theoretically valid. In the end, however, one proves to be the higher principle and gains the day at the expense of the other. Truly, here is a tragedy in pedagogy. It arises from failure to distinguish between the logically simple in a completely developed science, and what is psychologically simple to an undeveloped mind concerning a science which to that mind is also undeveloped. Mr. Huxley's dilemma in method is one that always forces itself upon a teacher who has never considered whether or not the logical order in the

parts of a developed science is at the same time the best pedagogical order for a learner to whom this science is unknown. Evidently this line of investigation for every subject in all grades of schools is worthy of the prolonged attention of students of pedagogy in universities, since every teacher must find some sort of an answer, and the danger of getting the wrong one is so imminent. We find, therefore, that all classes of educational men, the president of the great university, the professor in his department, and the author in his text-book, meet educational problems on every side, and, whether they will or not, must at least make an attempt to solve them. They may scorn a given method of doing it, but they cannot consistently despise the attempt itself.

But the most serious defect, as it seems to me, of our present arrangement of pedagogical work in universities is that it bears no organic relation to allied subjects. It is in the main mechanically united, but organically separated. Like the nest in the tree, it is perhaps snugly ensconced, but it is no part of the living tree. These chairs have been established, not so much from demonstrated need as from sentiment—a sentiment founded on reason, it is true, but still a sentiment. It is, therefore, not strange that for the most part they have been isolated rather than organic units in the university life. A few courses have been arranged quite independent of other departments, a single man has been appointed to give them, and such students as had a fancy for the man or his subjects have been allowed to hear the courses. That much good has been done, even in this way, I doubt not—but that such an arrangement is the ideal one, no man who gives the subject consideration can imagine for a moment. It has been simply the first stage in the development of what I am sure is destined to attract increasing attention from all men who have the good of education at heart.

Two prominent faults of the present system have been noted, namely, mechanical instead of organic connection with the allied studies of the university, and the tendency to teach easy things as if they were hard. It will be seen as the argument proceeds, that a single professor does not suffice to make the educational department what it should be.

As soon as the university begins to specialize, usually at the beginning of the junior year, the tendency everywhere is to separate the instruction into groups of allied subjects. These subjects are taught by men organized into groups, so that the work of each fits exactly into that of every other, all parts working together as an organic whole. The isolated professor is being pushed to the wall, for there is no room for educational "Robinson Crusoes" in the university, when once its instruction differentiates into special lines of activity. Where is the successful technical school inside the university that does not control in all subjects deemed vital for its success? Where are the schools of political and economic science that do not deem it absolutely essential to make their group of

professors and assistants work as one body? The professor who wants to teach all over a field, fits in nowhere. Like the comet, he may be fine to look at, but he performs no useful function. As fast as the universities come to a full realization of this fact, they insist that he fit in or get out. Now, under such conditions as these, it is easy to see that an effective educational department is impossible when there is but one professor, and this one bearing such an extra-organic relation to the rest as he does. If he as an individual becomes absorbed in another department, like history or economics, his influence on education is secondary and feeble; if he goes it alone, he can do but little, for he is the isolated unit in a life where the only things that count are organization, concentration, synthesis of varied forces working together to a common end. To have an educational department that shall be an educational force, we must have a sufficient group of men working together to control not only strictly pedagogical subjects, but also enough allied ones to give students a pedagogical consciousness in all their work. As matters now stand, the chief interests are in some other group, like history or economics or biology, where there is sufficient organization to give a denominating tone of mind, while the student exercises his pedagogical interests much as some men exercise their religion—in church on Sundays. Why should he be more than theoretically interested in pedagogy, when it occupies this isolated position? The unrelated is always uninteresting to the extent of its isolation.

No department of university activity is more potent for good throughout our whole country than that of education, were it properly organized and sustained. None would yield a more immediate or lasting return to the university thus establishing and maintaining it. It may be thought that nobody can be brought to see the way to establishing so expensive a department, but in these days of Harpers and Jordans, money can be found for every line of educational activity that will pay a reasonable interest on the investment.

With this idea of an education department large enough to control the instruction in pedagogy and immediately allied subjects fairly before us, we may proceed briefly to inquire what subjects should enter into this pedagogical organization.

The first requisite of a department of pedagogy is an ample provision for what we may call general and special psychology. By general psychology, I mean a survey of introspectional psychology in some such book as that of John Dewey or J. Mark Baldwin, or even the larger works of Prof. James. It might be thought that this part of the work might safely be trusted to the general psychological department of the university, but if there were no other reason, we know that it would ordinarily come too late to do much good. This subject must be under control of the educational department, so that it shall be right in time and method. General psychology should be followed by at least two lines of special

psychology, which must likewise be under the control of the department of education. The first of these should be the special psychology of apperception, and the second should be physiological psychology. The first gives the key to all arrangement and progress in the course of study as well as to the fundamental laws of method. The second enables us to solve the hundred and one educational problems that arise from the physical environment of the child, such as questions of temperature, light, ventilation, eyesight, fatigue, rest, exercise, puberty, sex, food, clothing, sanitation, etc.

The psychology of apperception guides us in the solution of such groups of questions as the following, each of which must in turn receive prolonged and thorough-going investigation :—

1. How shall the component parts of a subject, say language work, be arranged ? Is the logical order of the science as a completed whole the psychological one for the growing child, to whom the subject is unknown ? Evidently not, as we have seen from Mr. Huxley's dilemma. Is the true order a variable or an invariable one ? How shall we determine ?

2. Supposing the correct order to have been found, what shall be the rate of our progress ? How rapidly shall generalizations be presented in any given subject ? How rapidly shall they increase in difficulty ? What bearing has advancing age on power of comprehension ? May that which is hard in one year of a child's life become small business for him in the next ? Is there ever hope in the next grade for those who are without it in the one below ? What effect on a child's progress does over-analysis have ?

3. Shall each study pursue an independent path substantially unrelated to all the others, or shall all studies run on parallel and related lines ? Do coördination and conglomeration of studies mean the same thing ? Are they equally valuable ? How much force is there in the German principle of coördination, called the historical stages of culture, as a guide to the development and correlation of studies ? Is such a principle applicable here ? Are the historical stages of growth in science of any account as a guide to teaching ? Shall we, for instance, teach alchemy before chemistry ? What, then, would be valid principles of correlation ? When these questions are answered there remains the great labor of actually working out the coördination.

4. What are the essential laws of method ? What are their possible modifications when applied in the various subjects ?

5. Even before all the above questions may be asked and answered, we must determine, partly according to the laws of apperception, and partly from teleological reasons depending upon our civilization, what the curriculum of studies shall be for the various grades and kinds of schools. This takes us not only to the realm of psychology, but to that of practical ethics as well. Here we find involved a study of political and economic history and science, for which, as matters now stand, we must again

depend on the other departments of the university, but which should be controlled by the education department for its own students.

In brief, then, the study of psychology from the standpoint of apperception leads to a direct consideration of the following matters: The selection of the studies of the curriculum; the arrangement of the order in which the parts of each subject can be most advantageously presented; the rate of progress in each as determined by the needs of the growing mind; and, finally, the determination of the best principles of correlation, and the actual labor of making them, at least in outline. It is hardly necessary to say that this closely related study of special psychology should be entirely in the hands of the education department.

We have, fortunately, a very good illustration of the right correlation of special psychology and education as viewed from this standpoint in the work now done in Clark University. Pres. Hall, Prof. Burnham, and Prof. Sanford form a trio, each in his work presupposing and reflecting the others. Dr. Sanford has direct charge of the early work in physiological psychology, and Pres. Hall of advanced investigations. Dr. Burnham is the head of the department of education. He treats the philosophy of education from the psycho-physical standpoint, regarding education as a method of human development. He studies the school in its various functions: in the light of sensation, memory, habit, attention, association, and the like. This line of work coördinates well with that in psycho-physics by Dr. Sanford, who treats, in lecture and laboratory, of the nervous system, the senses of touch, hearing, and vision, quantitative measures of sensation, time measurements of mental processes, memory, association, mental span, attention; also of the development of speech, apperception, temperaments, character, personality, will, criminology, sleep and dreams, imitation and emulation.

Now, whatever we may think of the value of physiological psychology as a method for examining educational questions, I think it undeniably true that the organic connection between the educational and the psychological department, for which this paper contends, is better illustrated in Clark University than elsewhere. Admirable as this is, I regard it as a happy accident, not likely to be found in any other university in the land. Nor is the arrangement an adequate one, for it wholly ignores other important departments that are closely allied to education.

In addition to the two phases of special psychology and their attendant subjects of pedagogical investigation, there are other important departments of educational work, all of which should have adequate correlation to allied subjects, which can only be effected when these related topics are within the control of the educational department. Educational administration, in all its aspects, involves close contact with political administration, and must always take account of determining economic conditions.

Economic and political science should be presented, therefore, from the

pedagogical standpoint. This can be done, of course, only when directed by the faculty of the education department. I have already referred to investigations in educational history, which is only a department of general history, which, again, should be so taught as to emphasize the educational features.

In addition to the subjects mentioned, the study of literature should be in the hands of the education faculty. There are several strong reasons for such an arrangement. In the first place, many of our most potent æsthetical and ethical ideals are fully exemplified only in literature, which is idealized history. It has this advantage: that it presents in brief, sensuous form, ethical and æsthetical ideals that are wrought out only at great length and in an obscure manner in history and art. Consequently the literature should be taught for the pedagogical department from the pedagogical standpoint. Furthermore, no subject is larger in possibilities for good, or smaller in results, as now taught, than literature. It would be a sad mistake to allow a great subject like this, which touches the school at every point, from kindergarten to university, to be taught by those out of touch with these educational ideals.

In brief, then, this paper contends that, instead of having a single, isolated professor, an education department of a university should have a faculty of five or six men, in whose control the following lines of work should be placed:

1. All strictly pedagogical subjects.
2. Political and Educational Administration.
3. Economic Science.
4. History.
5. Literature in English.
6. Philosophy and Psychology.

Accident may make it possible, but not probable, that some of these lines of study could be suitably coördinated with the education department by other departments, as happens at Clark University. That nobody else in the university should teach economic, historical, literary, or political science, will hardly be claimed by any. But if we acknowledge the potency of the organic group of professors as contrasted with isolated instructors, we shall need to demand all this, and perhaps more, for effective work in pedagogy. Moreover, if any strong university will organize its pedagogical work in this way, it will soon have students enough to keep all its professors busy, so that the partial duplication of work will not be so expensive as would at first appear.

An important phase of the education department should be complete accounts of foreign contemporaneous educational systems. This topic, of course, covers the whole field of administration, curriculum, methods, etc. An ideal plan would be to have a number of fellowships in connection with each pedagogical department, so that two or more men could

be kept constantly at work in foreign countries, returning from time to time to give the results of their labor.

In my opinion, there should be two courses in pedagogical subjects, one undergraduate, for juniors and seniors, and one graduate, lasting also for two years. The work should be so arranged that a graduate student could choose any department of study, say history or economics, and at the same time do such work in general and special pedagogy as will best fit him to become a specialist as a teacher in these subjects. He should have ample opportunity to study his favorite topics in the light of general and special psychology, the history of education, and contemporaneous foreign practice.

Not only should the regular undergraduates of the university be admitted to the courses in pedagogy, but graduates of State normal schools, also. They constitute the army of men and women who have at heart the business of teaching as a life occupation. What they may lack in scholarship after their three years' course in the normal schools, they more than make up in maturity, in earnestness of purpose, and in trained skill in applying the results of their education. Their great lack as normal school graduates is development as specialists, and a broad outlook. The university will supply both of these lacks. Two years of earnest work will start a man as a specialist in some department of knowledge, while the mind-expanding studies of general and special psychology, ethics and philosophy, to say nothing of other departments, will give him such an outlook that he will be able to sustain himself in responsible positions. It is time for the universities to pull down the barrier that separates those who wish higher training in pedagogy from the only place where such training can be effectively given.

In this paper, I have urged three things: First, that departments of pedagogy should raise their work to the dignity of real university study in the lines I have pointed out, entirely discarding primers, except for amusement; second, that the education department should consist of a faculty of five or six men who should control the instruction given to students in their department in all educational and closely allied subjects, to the end that these students may acquire the true pedagogical consciousness in all their work; and third, that normal school graduates should be freely admitted to the undergraduate course, and given full credit for all work done. This third topic I hope to elaborate more fully before the normal school section.

It may be said that this plan will cost more money than the university will be willing or able to spend. Experience has shown, however, that men can find money for whatever is grandly worth doing. However this may be, we may rest assured that universities will never be able to do much for education until they see clearly what is needed.

CHARLES DE GARMO, Swarthmore, Pa.,
Chairman.

DISCUSSION.

[REPORTED BY J. H. CANFIELD.]

MR. BUTLER: Mr. De Garmo has described the specific system on which Columbia is now at work, and has advanced ideas toward which we are now aiming. The universities have thus far hesitated about taking up pedagogy, because of the weakness of its presentation and form. The literature on pedagogy thus far has been so generally contemptible that university men have not been willing to touch the subject at all. But there is a strong side, a worthy side, that the university is now recognizing. This strength is showing itself most favorably in the demand for strength, maturity, and previous training on the part of the student. It is not best that boys and girls of fifteen or sixteen should attempt such work. Especially should the student have known something of elementary philosophy.

The weakness of the single instructor has become very apparent, and painfully apparent. Mr. De Garmo's thought of a pedagogical faculty is the only true way out of this difficulty. The coördination of various topics, all handled from the pedagogical standpoint, is most essential.

Mr. Butler then described at some length the plans and purposes of Columbia College in the matter of educational training, explaining that some men are engaged along those lines. As yet, however, these men have not been drawn closely together.

But pedagogics must mean more than individual and specific classroom *methods*, or the university will not touch it. The normal school may do such specific work, and ought to do it; but the work of the university is different.

MR. JONES: Wished to add that the contempt of the university for "pedagogy" as often taught is no greater than that felt by all good normal school men for the same thing.

MR. SHELDON: Thought the practical difficulty was the lack of funds in the hands of the universities to organize these pedagogical faculties. We must hold to what we have, and not do away with chairs already established.

MR. WILLIAMS, of Cornell (introduced as a specialist): Accepts the criticism on pedagogical instruction as on the whole just. There seems to be no strong and worthy text-book on pedagogics that can be used as a text-book, though there are several authors that are useful in a way; but nothing that could properly be called a university text-book.

The proposed organization is certainly desirable, though there are possibly some subjects about which a question might arise. The Cornell chair of pedagogy is included in the School of Philosophy, which arrangement has been very helpful and strengthening. All students of pedagogy certainly should have mastered elementary psychology, mathematics, science, history; these are all necessary as preliminary training, not only in themselves, but in their methods. In the history of education, again, there is really no worthy volume, though there are several that may be helpful below the university course. The worthy worker in pedagogics must go over this ground for himself and for his students. This is true, also, of the matter of administration.

The undergraduate course at Cornell admits juniors as well as seniors, but this is because Cornell does elementary work in philosophy in the sophomore year.

MR. CANFIELD: Asks that all students be encouraged to take up some phases of this work, as preparing them for citizenship. The average man on the average city school board can scarcely give a reason for public education, for State education. Give the students an opportunity to take up this work.

MR. DE GARMO (closing discussion): Was delighted to know what Columbia is doing. If that university takes up the work organically, others must follow.

MR. PRINCE: What can be done for seminary work, for practice work?

MR. DE GARMO: That will be left to the pedagogical faculty.

MR. PRINCE: We have no access to the secondary schools for practice work.

MR. DE GARMO: That is a question of details, which must be settled hereafter. It is hard to say how to meet this now.

MR. PRINCE: But in Massachusetts we are called on to answer that question at once —within the next four months.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON NORMAL EDUCATION.

It has been the object of the committee in this report to make a brief statement of points for full consideration by the council rather than to present a completely elaborated discussion of the subject.

THE RELATION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL TO OTHER INSTITUTIONS OF LEARNING.

I. As regards Courses of Study.

a. Relation to Preparatory Schools.

After more than fifty years of trial, the course of study in the State normal schools is still, in most cases, based upon that of the common school, and the applicant who is qualified to enter a high school is admitted without conditions. This holds true in the States in which normal schools have been established longest. The requirement of completion of a high-school course as condition for admission, is evidently considered neither wise nor practicable. In most cases a preparatory course would be of great advantage.

b. Relation to Higher Schools.

1. *Actual.*—The general normal-school course connects with that of no higher school or college. Hence, but few normal-school graduates pursue more advanced courses in other institutions, and when advanced courses are provided in the normal school itself, in but few cases do any considerable proportion of the students take them. The individual is thus deprived of culture almost within reach; his influence is restricted; there is great loss in educational forces.

Few colleges give even the slightest attention to questions of pedagogy; most of their graduates who teach, bring to their work scholarship only; the study and application of principles of method are mostly confined to the lower grades. We find incompleteness of culture below; lack of pro-

fessional spirit above. The normal school, first established as an institution apart, still remains apart. It is *in* the system of schools, but not *of* it.

2. *Desirable.*—The normal-school course develops purpose and ability, and gives rise to a thirst for knowledge. It brings its pupils in sight of fountains of which they cannot drink because of a barrier which the normal school makes no attempt to remove. By differentiation of courses, by increase of electives, by modification of requirements for admission, colleges and scientific schools have made advances toward other schools. To this advance the normal school has not responded. By the broadening and enriching of courses of study in public schools, increased demands are made upon teachers in regard to art, science, and literature. The rapidly increasing number of graduates from the young ladies' colleges crowd the higher grades of schools with teachers of an advanced culture, but without professional preparation. Such adjustments should be made in normal-school courses as will open the way to higher culture not merely to the privileged few who take the advanced courses in these schools, but to all who bear their diplomas.

3. *Possible.*—In the distinction of classes of studies, the normal school devotes itself mainly to the modern. Its course fits much better for the scientific than for the classical school. There is great need in the normal school: First, for the development of more power in the severer studies of the course; second, for the addition of some language other than English. The language may be ancient or modern—Latin, French, or German. Without regard to a higher course of study, such acquisition would be a benefit to all, of inestimable value to some. With the general conditions of admission to the normal school strictly enforced, a three years' course may be so arranged as to give that more thorough culture in the severer studies of the course, and that degree of knowledge of a foreign language, which will enable the graduate to pursue with profit a wide range of selected higher studies, and will also open the way to valuable courses offered in some of the best colleges and scientific schools.

In pleading for such extension and modification of the general normal-school course, we can cite high authority from abroad.

In this selection of some of the leading studies from the normal-school courses of several foreign countries, for ease of comparison with the courses in American schools the number of lessons per week in the studies named is summed up and presented in the equivalent number of lessons per week in a course of one year. In all such comparisons it should be borne in mind that the arrangement of courses abroad radically differs from our own in that most of the studies of the course are extended through all the years of the course, in many cases not more than two or three lessons a week being given. The student's mind is thus kept in

contact with the subjects for a much longer time than in American schools.

PRUSSIA.	3 *years' course.*
Pedagogy	6
German	15
Geography	5
History	6
Arithmetic	7
Geometry	6
Science	10
Drawing	5
Latin, French and English, optional.	

AUSTRIA.	4 *years' course.*
Pedagogy	17
Mother tongue	16
Geography	7
History	8
Mathematics	14
Science	16
Drawing	7
A foreign language	12

SWITZERLAND (Zurich).	4 *years' course.*
Pedagogy	7
German	20
Geography	6
History	12
Mathematics	22
Science	16
Drawing	12
French	14

FRANCE.	3 *years' course.*
Pedagogy	3½
French language and literature	16
Geography	3
History	10
Arithmetic	8
Geometry	6
Science	12
Agriculture and horticulture	3
Drawing	12
A foreign language, optional	6

II. As regards Methods of Professional Work.

The spirit which has of late years been especially strong in professional schools, has been that of bringing their pupils more and more face to face with the problems which they are proposing to solve. The text-book, the lecture, can no longer suffice. Theory must be tested in application. Aside from the engineering and allied professions which have led this advance, we find that in the other professions inductive methods more widely prevail.

Laboratory methods have been extended. The medical student studies by the bedside of the patient; the law school makes less of the formulated text-book, and more of the induction of principles from the study of leading cases; even the school of theology, most conservative of all, is more and more bringing its students into practical contact with the real problems which in their subsequent ministry they will have to meet. The normal school has not uniformly been found in the front line of this advance in method. To establish a true relation to those other professional schools which have most efficiently prepared their students for the highest success, it must study the real child in his actually existent conditions more, the ideal child less. Its pupils must be trained more to deduce principles from cases, to formulate doctrines by observation and by inductive inquiry and research, rather than to take them as something ready-made, which are merely to be illustrated and confirmed. Practice, training, must no longer follow theory a long way off.

It should go without saying that a completely organized school for observation and practice, in connection with every normal school and under its control, is a necessity.

C. C. ROUNDS, Plymouth, N. H.,
Chairman.
N. C. SCHAEFFER, Kutztown, Pa.

DISCUSSION.

[REPORTED BY .]

MR. SCHAEFFER : Our normal schools are growing too large, and cannot give the individual attention to their pupils that is given in Germany and France. There should be an entrance examination, and where the lower schools do not qualify the candidates, preparatory courses must be maintained.

The pedagogical work of the universities is conducted from the standpoint of philosophy. Philosophy is satisfied if the idea is grasped in its essence and relations. Teaching, as art, requires the application of theory to individual cases. This is aimed at in the schools of practice. Students who take the course in pedagogy are greatly helped by the previous training of the normal and model school. The normal school should inspire a desire for the advanced work of higher institutions, and the course of study should carry the student over the obstacles which now keep him from taking such advanced courses.

MR. DICKINSON : It seems to be the province of the normal school to teach the principles of teaching, which are found in the laws of the mind that control it in the acquisition of knowledge, and in the development of its power ; to teach the method of teaching, derived from a knowledge of the principles ; and to teach the history of what others have done in the application of principles and method in teaching the branches required in the schools.

The principles and method of teaching must be made familiar to the pupil teacher's mind before he can comprehend in a practical way either the nature or the value of different educational systems or the significance of different methods of instruction. The modern student of pedagogical science must have a standard by which he can measure systems and methods of teaching and education before he can be prepared to make an intelligent study of their history.

2. It belongs to the normal schools to teach the ends for which the disciplinary schools have been organized, and their support and administration made compulsory.

3. The normal schools should direct their pupils to a typical course of studies, adapted to present right occasions for knowledge in its various grades of development, and for the corresponding grades of mental activity and mental growth. This course of studies should be thoroughly understood in its relations to elementary and scientific knowledge, and to the disciplinary results which are expected from its pursuit. The normal student should be led over this course for perfecting his knowledge, and for arranging each branch of learning under appropriate topics, and all the branches in the order of their dependence upon one another.

The normal pupil should also derive his knowledge of school organization and school government from the same source as that from which he derives his knowledge of the methods of intellectual instruction.

From what has been said it appears that the normal schools have a province of their own. They were not established to teach in an academical way the different branches of learning, but to teach the principles and method of teaching all branches, especially those required in our system of public schools. Therefore, the normal schools should require those who desire to enter these classes to have what may be called an academical knowledge of all the branches taught in our elementary and secondary schools, and to have that maturity of mind which a proper pursuit of these studies in the preparatory schools is adapted to produce.

The normal schools of the future should not be confused, as they have been in the past, with work that belongs to the preparatory schools.

If the preparatory studies have been fairly well mastered by the candidates for professional instruction, then the normal schools can devote their attention to their legitimate work, and pupils will graduate from them prepared to teach in any grade of instruction.

A high-school preparation should be the minimum required for entrance into our normal schools. And on account of the relations that elementary teaching holds to scientific, all grades of our teachers should be prepared to teach in any grade in our system, and then there will be that unity in our school work which success in its results demands. Let it not be forgotten that our normal schools are to teach teachers to teach, in the highest and best sense of that term.

Mr. Harris said that Dr. Dickinson had pointed out that there is a difference in methods between the normal school and the secondary school. I think that it is well to draw attention to this difference, inasmuch as it explains both the great value of the normal school and also the causes of a class of defects which some of the normal pupils fall into at the beginning of their career. The normal school pupil is, on an average, two years older than the pupil of the secondary school. The method of the normal-school instruction is what may be called the comparative method. It attempts to study each branch of the common-school course of study in the light of the other branches. Especially does it look after the derivation of one branch from another.

It studies arithmetic in the light of algebra, showing how the several rules are statements in words of the algebraic formulas in which the process is demonstrated in a universal manner. In geography, for another example, the causes of the configuration of countries is sought in geology. Mineralogy and meteorology are brought in to explain such things as erosions of rivers and peculiarities of climate. All means at the command of the teacher are brought into requisition to give the normal pupil an idea of the genesis of a given branch of study. We may also call this the constructive method; for the pupil is taught how to construct a text-book in a given subject. But this great advantage the normal method has over the secondary, which cannot work along comparative lines, cannot compare and derive branches one from another, because it does not yet possess them in *any* form, and consequently cannot begin to reflect about them. It happens, sometimes, that the best pupils of the normal school make the mistake of trying to use the method which they have learned in the normal school in their teaching in the elementary school. Dana P. Colburn tried to introduce that method into elementary instruction, and have little boys and girls deduce the rules of arithmetic algebraically. Guyot tried to make a primary geography on the constructive principle, and deduce geography from geology. It is a mistake to suppose that the normal method can be used in any other school unless the maturity of the pupils has developed the epoch of reflection. Not the elementary school, nor even the secondary school, can use the comparative method, except sparingly. But all the normal schools that I have seen, North, South, East, and West, seem to have adopted the comparative or constructive method as the only proper thing to do, quite independent of one another. I suppose that they felt that just the knowledge which the teacher most needs is this one of the derivation of the systematic arrangement of the matter to be learned in a text-book from the higher sciences which show causes and processes.

Mr. De Garmo: The actual state of the normal-school graduate is that he is very soon stranded, because of his lack of a broad outlook and of specialized knowledge. Although he pursues his studies, as Dr. Harris says, yet he pursues each in isolation from the others, so that he is not prepared to meet intelligently the more serious problems of practical education. He makes a good drill-master and can manage the outline of his business, but is helpless when confronted by more serious problems. Evidently this state of things should be changed, and we can discuss what changes are desirable under the appropriate topics.

Mr. Greenwood: The courses of study in the normal school, high school, college, and university, are all based upon a knowledge of the common branches. The normal schools of the several states are designed to supply local demands, hence the different courses of study must be accounted for on this hypothesis. In some of the states, the normal schools graduate pupils in two years; others in three, and others in four years. Whether the normal school should spread out so as to usurp the whole sphere of the college in order to secure for its graduates the college culture, is a question of some moment. It, doubtless, would be an unwise thing to attempt such an expansion. Of course, the ideal normal school is a strictly professional school; but none of the states —unless it be true of Massachusetts—have yet reached that high degree of proficiency

in training and furnishing teachers. The children will not stop growing, and the material that we have must be used in the schoolroom.

The first condition of good teaching is scholarship, and the second is professional practical skill in teaching and managing. It is just here that the normal schools of the country are doing their most effective work. The pedagogical instruction in the colleges and universities designed to prepare teachers to teach, is, in nearly all instances, a significant failure in that the heads of these departments do not know how to teach children. They talk about the subject. That is all.

The high-school girl who has gone through the city training-school goes into the schoolroom with some very definite notions how to begin. For the actual teaching of children she is much better equipped for her duties than is the average pedagogical graduate fresh from the unpractical pedagogical atmosphere of the college or university. There are exceptions, however, but the exceptions are rare indeed.

I do not agree with the statement that the full-fledged normal graduate is more liable to die of *brain cramp* in three or four years than is the graduate of the college or university. In fact, so far as my experience extends in a live region of our country, I find that the four-year normal graduates are the most active, progressive schoolmen to be found. A two-years' course is too short to give much culture, yet even that short period is enough to stimulate to something better that is worth striving for.

The normal school teaches how to teach; the others teach about how teaching might, could, would, or should be done.

MR. BOYDEN: The distinctive work of the State normal school should steadily be kept in mind. Its work is to prepare teachers for the public schools of the State. It has to consider the course of studies as a means to be used in training the child. It must consider each branch in the curriculum of the public school with reference to three things, namely, what parts of the subject shall be used as a means in teaching; the logical arrangement of these parts; and the method of teaching in this subject.

This requires of the normal student a careful study of the subject matter and its arrangement, and the actual teaching of the subject. To go through the public school curriculum in this way requires much time and hard work. It will always be true that the normal student will have to study the subject matter to be used in teaching. The better his knowledge of the subject upon coming to the normal school, the less the time he will require for this study.

In the preparatory schools he studied subjects for the possession of knowledge and information, and for general training. In the normal school he must study each subject as a whole, its parts, and their relations, and the relation the subject holds to other subjects in the course, with reference to using the knowledge in the specific work of teaching. These two lines of work are essentially different. Acquiring knowledge for use in teaching is as much a part of professional work as is the teaching or application of the principles of education

While studying the elementary branches the normal student should carefully observe the teaching of children in these branches in the model school.

After studying and teaching the subject in his own class, the normal student should study human nature to find the principles of education, which underlie the method he has learned to use in teaching; then he should go into the model school as an assistant to apply these principles in teaching and governing, and to correct the mistakes he is liable to make in his first work.

In some of the normal schools there is a two-years' course, wholly English, which prepares, so far as it can be done in this time, for teaching in the primary and grammar grades of the public schools. There is also a three-years' course which includes the advanced English branches, and the languages required in the public schools which prepare students for high-school work.

The normal school must get the best prepared students it can secure. It should have those who have had a four-years' course in a good high school or its equivalent. If it does its legitimate work, those of its graduates who deserve it, and who have the means, will be prepared to continue their work in advanced courses of study.

The normal school is distinctly professional in its work. It looks to the high schools for its students. Its graduates may go on to advanced work in other institutions.

MR. CAMP: Permit me to refer to a few special considerations which were presented at the "Round Table" Conference yesterday, which were not fully brought out in the report of the chairman of the committee:

1. In regard to the conditions of admission to the normal school. One very important and essential condition of admission to the normal school was specially

referred to, viz , that every candidate received should have a good moral character. This should be a requisition for entrance into every normal school.

2. Every candidate should be received on *probation.* If it should be found that the candidate received should give evidence that he is by nature or by character incapable of being made a successful teacher, the candidate should be advised, and, if possible, made to feel that he should seek some other employment for his life work.

3. The importance of a *graded* course of training was proposed, which should give appropriate training (*a*) for elementary teachers; (*b*) for teachers of high schools and secondary schools; and (*c*) for instructors in colleges and universities. Different qualifications are required for these different grades of instruction.

MR. BALDWIN: The high school will doubtless prove the key to the situation. I believe the time is near when it will be safe to make high school graduation, or its equivalent, the condition of admission to our normal schools as well as our colleges. This will enable the normal school to devote all its resources to its special work. Our great work, just now, is to adjust and coördinate the work of our various schools.

MR. DE GARMO: I have no desire, at this point, to criticise the work of the normal school. I wish merely to urge that it receive the credit that it deserves at the hands of higher institutions of learning. It is true, as Mr. Greenwood states, that normal school graduates do, to some extent, continue to grow, but it is in spite of the normal school, and not because of it. They pursue the higher education because they are driven to do it in order to compete with those who have already gained this vantage ground. We, as friends of the normal school, should therefore urge the fitness of its graduates for further study at the university, and should secure an opportunity for them to go on in any appropriate line of work without obliging them to return to the work of the secondary school for further preparation.

MR. SCHAEFFER: I find some difference between the ideals of professional study cherished by those who have been trained in a school of law, medicine, or theology, and those who have never had such training. The student of medicine spends more time in acquiring a knowledge of the science than in the compounding of drugs or the amputation of limbs; the student of theology devotes more time to learning what to preach than to the art of preparing and delivering sermons. The figures of the report show that in old countries, like Prussia, Austria, Switzerland, and France, the pupil-teachers of the normal school devote far more time to the study of the branches than to the study and practice of pedagogy. Whilst I cherish ideals similar to those of Mr. Dickinson, I am not willing to bind a particular method upon any teacher in a normal school, believing that the teacher should be greater than his method, and that it is impossible to realize the ideals cherished by many who have never passed through a course of professional training.

MR. DUNTON: There is a difference between the preparation needed by teachers, especially by elementary teachers, and that needed by superintendents and principals of large graded schools. The latter should have a college education and a thorough course of broad professional training, which should include the history of educational movements, systems, reformers, etc. But we are not yet prepared to pay for a similar training for the rank and file of the teachers of the elementary schools. Hence, it seems to me that the normal school has its special work, and so has the university, or a school fitted to the needs of college graduates.

MR. RICHARDS: There are three considerations to which I wish to call the special attention of this conference:

1. That in admitting pupils to normal schools, great care should be taken to examine into the *moral qualifications* and character of the candidate, so that no one should presume to fit himself for the work of teaching who will not exemplify the *moral* virtues.

2. When pupils are admitted, it should be done so that each pupil should understand that his admission is *probationary;* that if his improvement and *mental* and *educational* characteristics do not prove to be of the right kind for a teacher, he should be advised to seek some other employment for a life work, and that he should not receive a diploma as a teacher.

3. It has seemed to me that a complete normal school should have three grades of training in its curriculum:

(*a.*) One for training teachers for our *elementary schools,* including that for kindergartens;

(*b.*) Another grade for teachers in secondary schools; and

(*c.*) Another grade for teachers and professors in colleges and in universities.

It cannot be successfully maintained that the special training for each of these grades should be the same as the others in all details.

MR. ROUNDS: I thank those who in this discussion have considered the points presented in the report. Though differences of opinion were manifested by the inquiries made, some of the most able and experienced normal-school teachers in the country are in most hearty accord with the views taken in this report. This discussion in the report has been conducted with some reference to the several courses of two or three years. It is idle to talk of requiring a high-school course as preliminary to admission to the normal school.

There is a question as to whether the normal school of to-day as fully meets the demands made upon it as did the normal school of a generation ago. The common-school courses have been expanded all along the line, in art, science, literature, and now even the admission of foreign languages is advocated. Means of education have in some cases been increased with the demands, but, as a whole, has the average culture of our people increased? I wish I could believe that the statement made in a recent government publication, by the Assistant-Secretary of the Smithsonian Institute, is not true: that "Year by year it becomes clearer that despite the large increase in the number of cultivated men and women in America, the nation is deteriorating in regard to culture. Among five hundred towns where formerly courses of varied entertainments worthy of civilized communities—concerts, readings, lectures on artistic, literary, and scientific subjects, and so forth—were successfully arranged season after season, scarcely fifty now feel justified in continuing their efforts in the cause of culture, knowing that the community will not support them. Scientific, literary, and artistic societies, formerly flourishing, are now dying or dead in many cities which have in the meantime increased in wealth and population." For many years I have been forced to consider this subject. Twenty years ago it was my duty to arrange the programme of the normal department of the National Association, and again ten years ago, and to-day, after twenty-four years of trial in the attempt to adjust the normal-school course to existing conditions, I must confess to a feeling of dissatisfaction, in many cases of entire disappointment, at results. There are many among those who in their work have most honored the normal-school, who should have taken instead a course offering a broader culture. The way to this must be opened before all in the normal school. The demand becomes more imperative year by year, as the ranks of the teaching profession become crowded by the increasing number of graduates from women's colleges, possessing a culture which these do not, but without professional preparation.

In the inquiries preliminary to this report, it has been shown that the colleges and scientific schools have now made such concessions in their demands for admission to their privileges that the connection can easily be made. In justice to reasonable demands it must be made. Whatever may be said, it is true that very few now take a higher course after the normal school. The advanced course for the comparatively few does not suffice; this cannot take the place of advanced study, in association with maturer minds and with the appliances of a broader culture.

I do not like this talk of an elementary course for the teachers of the elementary schools. It is the elementary school, in which the great mass of our people are trained, which especially needs the teacher of true culture. I have seen such a child's school as this ideal sets before us, in which a teacher of true culture was doing more for the salvation of souls than all the clergymen in the place.

I am more and more firmly convinced that we are wrong in holding to the formal and deductive method in our training work. Practice must accompany theory. At the same time with the study of principles must go on the practice in teaching, that induction may accompany deduction. Less of dead formalism, more of the living spirit.

On this whole matter we need not less inspiration, but more light; not less enthusiasm, but more of well-considered purpose. I yield to none in my high regard for the noble work which the normal school has done, but we must move forward if we would do our whole duty to the children before us and the God above us.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON PSYCHOLOGICAL INQUIRY.

THE RELATION OF MNEMONIC SYSTEMS TO THE CULTIVATION OF THE POWER OF THOUGHT.

YOUR Committee for Psychological Inquiry have selected for their report this year the question of memory so far as it relates to schemes devised for its aid. They have considered it to be evident that whatever cultivation of memory tends to the arrest of the power of rational thinking is to be by all means avoided. It seems therefore to them that some of the schemes of mnemonics which are advocated are to be condemned without reservation. Those which proceed upon the principle that memory is to be cultivated by association, and that all kinds of association are equally good, should fall under the ban. For in order to find interesting associations they suggest the search for absurd and ridiculous relations. The philosopher Locke has condemned such devices and asserted that "the connection in our minds of ideas in themselves loose and independent of one another, has such an influence, and is of so great force to set us wrong in our actions, as well as moral and natural, passions, reasonings, and notions themselves, that perhaps there is not any one thing that deserves more to be looked after."

Your committee think that in all cases the mind should seek essential relations, and particularly the relation of cause and effect and that of individual and species. Necessary connection enables the mind to make deductions, and thus it acquires a sort of generative memory, so to speak, a memory which can deduce or develop from given data the other data that stand in relation to it. It is true that this is difficult with regard to certain classes of memory, as, for instance, the memory of proper names, or the memory of dates, or memory of words in general.

Your committee think that the memory of dates, names, or words in general can and should be cultivated to some extent without attempting association of any kind except that of sequence. The committing to memory of fine passages from poets and literary prose writers certainly cultivates a memory for words without detriment to thought. A memorized list of proper names, names of persons of historic note, or characters in the great literary works of art, such as the plays of Shakespeare, the Iliad, and Odyssey—the memorizing of these names will serve the double

purpose of being at once very useful and a means of arousing into activity faculties in the mind grown torpid. Also, the memorizing of paradigms in the study of language has the effect to cultivate this memory of words and isolated items. If the mind thinks at all in the process of memorizing these lists of proper names and the important dates of history or the paradigms of grammar, it considers the deeds and characters of the persons named, or the events associated with the dates, or the logical relation of the inflections to the verbs and nouns inflected. And such kind of thinking as this is positive and valuable. But in case of associating in accordance with certain mnemonic rules the names, dates, and inflections with arbitrary and fanciful suggestions, the thinking power is set moving on wrong lines.

If the discovery of Broca, generally recognized as the beginning of physiological psychology on the new basis, is to be understood in the sense that a certain convolution near the base of the brain is used by the mind in recalling words and associating them with ideas, it would seem that a cultivation of the memory of words should be undertaken in later life by all people who have an incipient tendency to aphasia. If a person finds himself forgetful of names it is a health-giving process to take a certain portion of time in committing to memory words. If this is done by committing to memory new masterpieces of poetry and prose, or in committing to memory the words of a new language, there is profit and gain to the thinking powers as well as to the memory. Doubtless, the cultivation of verbal memory, building up as it does a certain convolution in the brain, has a tendency to prevent local paralysis in that organ.

This contains a hint in the direction of keeping up in the later part of life the faculties which are usually so active in youth. The tendency is to neglect childish faculties and allow them to become torpid. But if this is liable to weaken certain portions of the brain in such a way as to induce hemorrhage, ending in softening of the brain, certainly the memory should be cultivated if only for the health of the brain, and the memory for mechanical items and details should be cultivated on the grounds of health as well as on grounds of culture.

Your committee present these considerations as looking toward the true solution of the much-vexed question of memory in schools. The extreme advocates of rational methods of teaching are perhaps wrong in repudiating entirely all mechanical memory of dates and names or items. Certainly they are right in opposing the extremes of the old pedagogy which obliged the pupils to memorize page after page the contents of a grammar "*verbatim et literatim et punctuatim*," as, for instance, the graduates of the Boston Latin School tell us was the custom early in this century. But is there not a middle ground? Is there not a minimum list of details of dates and names which must and should be memorized both on account of the health of the nervous system and on account of

the intrinsic usefulness of the data themselves? And must not the person in later life continue to exercise these classes of memory which deal with details for the sake of physical health?

Your committee have obtained the assistance of a distinguished specialist in these matters of memory, Dr. Pick, of London, who is noted for his repudiation of fanciful methods of mnemonics and for his adoption of rational methods in their place. Dr. Pick has promised to open the discussion on this report by some appropriate remarks.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

W. T. HARRIS.

As a member of the Committee, I take pleasure in signing the report prepared by Dr. Harris.

E. O. LYTE.

DISCUSSION.

[REPORTED BY ————.]

DR. PICK (introduced as a specialist):—Memory has little to do with ease or difficulty of remembering. Many things easily remembered are easily acquired, and *vice versa*. I endeavor to show why this is true. The basis of my explanation is found in "Herbart's Psychology." Ideas constantly come to the mind; they usually find other ideas present. The stronger ideas temporarily exclude the weaker from consciousness. When we look without seeing, it is because the ideas present fully occupy the mind. One often finds his attention fail in reading; this is because some other idea has come in and claimed the attention Suppose two equally strong ideas to be in the mind. Since they cannot retreat to separate compartments, they must fuse or blend. These blended ideas recall each other. The ease with which one idea recalls another depends upon the intimacy with which they originally blended. Facility of memory, therefore, depends upon closeness of fusion. It is of great importance that we strengthen impressions. The first requisite is concentration of attention upon a few things; it is also needful to introduce comparison. This is so important because the ideas should be clearly before the mind, that they may fuse sufficiently. Dr. Pick introduced a long list of words, associating each word with the following. This list was easily recalled, since there was effort to associate but two words in each case. In learning a list where the order is not important, the pupil may rearrange the words in such a way that he can associate them in connected pairs He further showed that this principle applies in the learning lists of exceptions and the like in language studies. In comparison it is wise to make the known one member of the comparison.

DR. HARRIS: Would Dr. Pick have students study arbitrary associations?

DR. PICK: These associations should not be arbitrary.

DR. HARRIS: But if we look for fanciful relations we distract the mind. The report shows the proper use of mechanical memory. Do not look for artificial connections, but use only the connection of sequence.

DR. PICK: What Dr. Harris calls mechanical memory, is a method of acquiring in a very clumsy way what may be easily learned. You can get the strongest of impressions needful by proper contrast or comparison. Even dates and numbers may be remembered by comparing with known numbers. The easiest way to hold a lecture or poem is to make an outline or skeleton. Then read the text again, to see what its full context is.

The discussion was now continued by suggestions from Messrs. Fitzpatrick, Schaeffer, Sheldon, Jones, and Richards.

Dr. Harris : The essential thing in rational memorizing is to inquire What is the thing ? What caused it ? What is it for ? If one habituates himself to attend to fanciful, accidental associations, one enters upon a vicious course that will result in harm to the thinking power.

Dr. Pick : I, too, select the causal when practicable, and look for association only when causal relations do not appear.

Mr. Greenwood : We have been swinging around to the idea of memory culture that for fifteen years has fallen into disuse. The results will be most beneficial.

Mr. Sheldon : How would you teach spelling ?

Dr. Pick : The unknown must here also be compared with the known. In learning the distinction between *beech* and *beach*, one may remember that the word *tree* ends in *ee*, and that the word *sea* ends in *ea*. This suggests the right spelling.

Dr. Harris described a plan of selecting a list of twelve hundred words of irregular spelling, upon which he trained the grammar-school pupils.

Mr. Schaeffer and other gentlemen of the Council continued the discussion substantially along the lines already laid down.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON STATE SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

GRADING IN COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

BY GEORGE A. WALTON, WEST NEWTON, MASS.

[Mr. Walton was introduced as a specialist. The main report was re-committed.]

GRADING is for the purpose of instructing together in classes children of about the same attainments and mental development. It is a part of the organization of the school, a guide in its administration. It involves the consolidation of schools and classes, making a course of studies, and arranging a program. Country schools usually have but few pupils. They differ in attainments and pursue a wide range of subjects.

I. CONSOLIDATION OF SCHOOLS.—Grading is facilitated by concentrating the children. It is advisable, wherever possible, to unite small schools together, or with larger ones. This process is now going on at a rapid rate in the Massachusetts rural and suburban towns. To aid in it, children remote from the school are conveyed at public expense. It makes possible the closest grading.

II. THE TWO-CLASS SYSTEM is employed in some foreign countries, and somewhat in rural towns in our own. The older children are taught in one grade, four hours in the forenoon ; the younger in another grade, three hours in the afternoon. Each grade may consist of two or of three classes. The plan is practicable for small, compact neighborhoods, having fifty or more pupils. Grading is made easy under this system.

III. GRADING FOR MIXED COUNTRY SCHOOLS.—This kind of schools has many branches to teach, for the most part few pupils, with one teacher. The general principles stated by Dr. E. E. White, page 9 "Bureau of Education," No. VII., 1891, concerning grading in graded schools, apply equally to country schools. The little time the teacher can personally devote to one class or to an individual, is the unfortunate condition to be compensated for in some way, in this kind of school. This is to be done by its organization and administration, of which an important element is the grading. There are the same school hours in the day and school days in the week here as in the city graded school. Properly use this time, and give an equal school year, and it will hold its own with the

closely graded school. So far as the use of time enters into the problem, it would be solved if it were practicable to simply base the grading upon development. It will be difficult of solution so long as it is based so largely upon knowledge and information, with development for the basis of grading. The school would require three grades to correspond to the three kinds of mental activity or classes of mental powers—presentative, representative, and elaborative. A course of studies to correspond would include :

First Period: Nature studies ; form ; color ; numbers and arithmetical problems, with objects ; weights and measures ; experiments in physics ; and lessons in position, distance, and direction, preparatory to the study of geography. The knowledge is of facts. The training is of the powers of observation, and for the use of language ; this would include talking, reading, and writing. I would add to the above, gymnastics, manual work, manners and morals, and singing. This is for the first period, covering two or three years, more or less.

Second Period: Nature studies, and form, with drawing ; color ; numbers (abstract), with figures and diagrams ; arithmetical problems ; home and foreign geography, with history, using moulding and map drawing ; the earth and man ; language, including reading of narrations, allegories, and fables, and written compositions—these with special reference to training the memory and imagination, and making comparisons for elementary classifications ; experiments in physics ; singing, and manners and morals, continued. So far the course is elementary.

Third Period: Nature studies now pass to botany, zoölogy, physiology, mineralogy, geology, physics, and chemistry ; numbers pass to arithmetic and algebra ; form studies to geometry ; geography and history from facts to causes ; language to grammar, rhetoric, and English literature ; continue drawing, and read for information civics and psychology. Other languages than the English are now pursued.

This course is scientific ; it appeals to the reflective or elaborative faculties, and leads to the discovery of rules of conduct for man and for things.

Grading upon this basis implies a certain order of development ; it presumes coincidence of time and rate, which are not, however, fatal to its being pretty fully realized. It requires a proper selection of studies adapted to the stages of development and presented to the learner's mind by a right method. Grading under such a scheme would be easy, because natural. Did it admit of complete practical application, most of the difficulties of promotion would be removed. At certain periods of development children in normal conditions, completing appropriate courses of study under competent instructors, would simply pass to the next course of studies as they now do in many schools.

I learn since writing the above that schools in Chicago and Indianapolis

are working close up to this plan. Some, I know, in the East are intelligently, others unconsciously, falling into it. I have not seen the way to fully base grading for country schools upon it, and no doubt it will strike some as purely theoretical. Then much that is doing in the schools is theoretical. For example, gymnastics, military drill, manual training, industrial drawing, nature studies, kindergarten work, and I might add singing, are almost wholly for development. And this is admitted by every writer and speaker upon education to be its supreme end. Development must be the goal to be reached, whatever the basis of the grading. Were this made the basis, the knowledge gained would be greater in amount and better in kind. The current sets that way; we can go with it, or be stranded. The pilots have their choice; the passengers haven't.

IV. The Program.—With this prevision, realizing the difficulties of an ideal grading, one of which is the inefficient supervision of the country schools, we will proceed to the program. A prescribed order of exercises by subjects is necessary. It can do no harm if directed by a teacher with his mind on the increase of power in his pupils. The course of studies will be the same as above outlined, except that beginning with the pupils' fifth or sixth, it will end with their thirteenth or fourteenth year of age. The studies for these eight years are those of the elementary, including part of those for the scientific course. Some principles to guide in teaching it are: (1.) No subject can be taught exhaustively in an elementary grade; (2.) Every study has a development, from its simplest elements to its complex relations; (3.) At the same time that you observe the maxim, "Teach but one thing at a time," apply that other, "Teach as many things at a time as possible;" (4.) The mind develops by its own activity.

In making the program we first decide what amount of time per week shall be given to each branch, and then distribute the studies with their proportions of time through the days of the week. The first difficulty to be overcome is the large number of classes. Reduce them to four classes or grades, to three if possible. Two are preferable to one in any school. In no case have over five. These may be (1) first year; (2) second and third years; (3) fourth and fifth years; (4) sixth and seventh years; (5) eighth year and onward.

The program for the first day must be made by forecasting the situation. A full day's work should be done the first day; by the second a permanent program should be prepared and posted. It should assign a time for reciting and for study. Till reconstructed it should be closely followed.

A five-grade program has been prepared; a four-grade and a three would have been made, but for want of time. With fewer grades the recitation periods would be lengthened.

Working of the School under the Program.—Having seen the ends to be reached we come now to the means. These are, study by the pupil; teaching, drilling and testing by the teacher. Teaching presents the occasion for the pupil's activity and knowledge. Drilling is training for the purpose of leading the pupil to experience the truths he has been taught or trying to learn. Testing is for the purpose of discovering what the pupil knows and can do, and what he does not know and cannot do; its sole reference is to future teaching and drill.

An essential element that enters into teaching is sympathy. It implies fondness, patience, solicitude. The elements that enter into testing are immobility, placidity, unconcern.

Teaching is a kind of nurturing; its symbol is the parent. Testing is a process of toughening; its symbol is the sphinx, looking into the future. Teaching and testing require comparatively little time. Take all that is needed. But drill, so far as the teacher is concerned, or some substitute, is the chief business of elementary schools.

Study for the purpose of gaining information from books, cannot be expected of children in their early years; they work and they play. Work for the lower grades in country schools is the substitute for drill in the closely graded schools.

For the upper grades, study is the substitute. These substitutes are the reliance of the country schools. To give children constant employment, useful and agreeable work and study, is the key to success here as everywhere. To provide for this as a means is the vital essential purpose of grading.

Means of Saving Time.—Some exercises should occupy the whole school at the same time. Such are talks on morals and manners, on the news of the day; singing; vocal and physical exercises; experiments, and penmanship. Some may be presented to the upper four grades at once; such are drills in reviewing elementary studies, geography, numbers, and physiology; dictations of various kinds, and impromptu compositions.

Train the lowest-grade pupils as early as possible in some of the essentials of the several branches, that they may participate in these general exercises. Arrange the program with reference to these. Discriminate in all subjects between the essential and the less important topics. Be thorough with the former, treat lightly or wholly omit the latter. This principle applies to most branches, but especially to arithmetic and geography. They can be reduced from one-third to one-half. After simple percentage is taught in the application of arithmetic, I would say in the language of the turf, "Go as you please."

Let me suggest before passing to my next topic, that provision should be made for an assistant teacher in all elementary schools containing thirty or more pupils studying all the branches ordinarily taught in our

country schools. If teachers cannot be employed on full pay, persons desiring to teach and in waiting can be obtained at low wages to observe and teach, assisting experienced teachers. Much good work is doing in city schools by teachers in training. The system is commended for country schools.

PROMOTIONS AND LOOSE GRADING.

Sacrifice no pupil to the grading. If a pupil can do more work than his class, he should have it to do. Don't limit him to arithmetic when he can do that, and geometry and algebra too. We hear much of keeping back in graded schools. There is no lack of it in country schools; the forcing of an ambitious, active boy or girl to keep in the traces, beside the indifferent and plodding, is common. This is an abuse of grading. Bring up the weaklings, but let the strong press ahead.

In teaching the course of any grade, first cover the principles, the essentials of a branch; then review, make applications, and amplify. Then if a pupil is able, encourage him, help him, make him pass to the higher grade, else let him do both grades at once. This is what the graded schools are doing; it is more easy to do in country schools. Loose grading consists in allowing a pupil to work with one class in one branch, with another in a second, and so on. Live superintendents and teachers, everywhere, employ some form of loose grading. This, for those who enter late and want to make up for lost time, is their right. It is so, indeed, for all.

Regular promotions should be based upon the ability of the pupil to do the next grade work. Has he the development? Has he the essential knowledge? If "Yes," then give him his passport with a God-speed. Nobody can answer these questions so well as the teacher. He would better keep a record, weekly or monthly, of the pupil's achievements, of his efforts and success,—this by estimate. His opinion should have the greatest weight. If he lacks courage, or is too full of the mother spirit, let the judgment of the superintendent be put into the scale with or against that of the teacher. To assure and assist both, and especially satisfy patrons and pupils, a special examination in essential branches is a wise provision.

Taking into account all the disadvantages of the country schools with some evident advantages, with proper grading and administration their graduates may be expected to take rank with those from closely graded schools.

Hour.	Time. (*Min.*)	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.
9.00	15			**Opening Exercises—Singing, Ethics.**		
9.15	20	Copying from blackboard.	Copying from blackboard.	Slate work.	Constructive Geometry.	**Arithmetic.**
9.35	10	**Reading.**	Reading.	Reading.	**Constructive Geometry** (Asst.).	Arithmetic.
9.45	10	Copying words read (on blackboard).	**Reading.**	Reading.	Reading.	Arithmetic.
9.55	15	Copying words read (on slate).	Writing sentences, etc. (on blackboard).	**Reading.**	Reading.	Arithmetic or Reading.
10.10	15	Manual exercise at table (sticks, blocks, etc.).	Slate exercise.	Letter writing.	**Reading.**	**Reading and Literature.**
10.25	20	Drawing from objects.	Drawing or Molding (clay or sand).	Map drawing.		
10.45	15			**Recess.**		
11.00	10	**Numbers.**	Number work (from blackboard).	Arithmetic.	Arithmetic.	History and Geography (alt.).
11.10	15	Copying figures.	**Numbers** (Arithmetic).	**Arithmetic.**	Arithmetic.	History and Geography (alt.).
11.25	20	Recreation (stringing beads, sewing, etc.).	Slate work in numbers.	Slate work in numbers.	**Arithmetic.**	Chart or Map drawing.
11.45	15	Kindergarten work or dismissed.	Kindergarten or dismissed.	Language.	Language.	**History and Geography** (alt.).
12.00	60			**Noon Recess.**		
1.00	20	Copying from blackboard.	Copying from blackboard.	**Language.**	**Language.**	Physiology or Botany (alt.).
1.20	20	**Talking and Reading** (nature studies—form, color).	**Talking and Reading** (nature studies—form, color).	Geography.	Geography.	Grammar.
1.40	20	Slate or blackboard work.	Blackboard or slate work.	**Geography.**	**Geography.**	Composition.
2.00	20	**Writing.**	**Writing.**	**Writing.**	**Writing.**	**Writing.**
2.20	15			**Gymnastics or Recess.**		
2.35	15	**Talking and Reading** (manners and morals).	**Talking and Reading** (manners and morals).	Spelling.	Spelling alt. with Physiology.	Arithmetic.
2.50	15	Blackboard or slate work.	Slate or blackboard work.	Silent reading.	Composition alt. with Physiology.	Grammar.
3.05	25	Busy work or sewing.	Busy work or sewing.	Drawing.	**Physiology and Natural Studies** (alt.).	**Physiology and Natural Studies** (alt.).
3.30	10			**General Exercise.**		
3.40		Dismissed.	Dismissed.	**Written Spelling drill in Fundamental Op.** (alt.).	**Written Spelling drill in Fundamentals** (alt.).	**Written Spelling drill in Fundamentals** (alt.).
4.00				Dismissed.	Dismissed.	Dismissed.

☞ Assistant, teacher in training, or pupil teacher to be employed where needed.

DISCUSSION.

[REPORTED BY H. M. JAMES.]

THE first four divisions of the report were passed, and the discussion was confined to the last, which referred to the grading of country schools.

DR. HARRIS: The chief difficulty in the management and instruction of country schools lies in the great number of classes, there being sometimes twenty or thirty in a school of not more than thirty pupils. I have been familiar with such schools, and in my childhood attended them, and I fully appreciate their difficulties. The amount accomplished varies greatly with different pupils and with different subjects. Sometimes a great deal is done when a pupil is ambitious, but the work is usually irregular. Because grading has done so much for our city schools, on the false ground that what is good for the city must necessarily be good for the country also, some county and State superintendents have undertaken to introduce into these schools a classification similar to that adopted in the cities, having however, only three or four grades where the city would have ten. Grouping pupils in this way means that when the teacher sets the lessons for the best pupils they are too hard for the poorest, who become discouraged; and if they are set for the poorest, they are too easy for the bright pupils, who, in turn, become listless and form habits of idleness. If the average pupils are regarded in the assignment of lessons, both extremes of the class will suffer. Now it has been shown, and may easily be verified, that with pupils under fourteen a year's interval between classes is too great, as it is in the case of those under ten with half a year's interval. The growth of the mind is too rapid at these early periods to keep pupils in the same class for a year without detriment to the pupils in the two extremes of the class. The best get listless and indolent, losing interest in their work, while the slow minds get discouraged because they are dragged along after their more brilliant rivals, and lose their self-respect. It is plain, then, that the longer intervals necessary in this country school classification must result in still greater harm. This evil sometimes exists in city schools supposed to be well graded. Any classification that discourages the slow pupils or makes idlers of the bright ones, is hurtful, and should be avoided.

When the wants of all the pupils are met, as is sometimes the case, it will be found that there is a subclassification which amounts to individual instruction, with very little real class-work. In other words, the school is not graded at all. I do not consider the evils of the ungraded school as great as those of schools partially graded, such as are found in many of the States. I regard them as stiflers of talent, in most cases.

In my judgment, the remedy for this waste of the best pupils' energies and the discouragement of those of slow intellect, may be found in the adoption of some form of the Lancasterian or monitorial system, in which the more advanced pupils, under the direction of the teacher, are set to instruct the backward ones. This system should be used sparingly, and only under careful supervision. If carefully managed, this method will prove advantageous to both classes. With the mere routine teacher this plan would not succeed, and there are dangerous tendencies attending its introduction. Invention has not been exerted much in this line, but I believe the hope of the country schools lies in the adoption of some form of this system. I hope good teachers may be found who will brave public prejudice, and experiment in this direction.

DR. BALDWIN: For several years I have been familiar with the Lancasterian or monitorial system, and have seen good results secured in this way, but it has very dangerous tendencies. What the country schools need most is intelligent supervision. Effort under guidance educates, but the highest intelligence must guide. This law conditions educational efficiency and educational progress. Its application has made our city schools and our higher institutions marvels of efficiency. By observing this law France, in two decades, has created the best school system in the world. How to embody this law in the management of our rural schools is now the great problem for educators and statesmen. But let each township constitute a school district, with a central school, whose teacher shall be principal of all the schools in the district, and the country schools would be revolutionized. This district principal, elected to serve during the pleasure of the board, would work under the direction of the county superintendent just as city principals work under a city superintendent. Wise courses of study, good grading, efficient district institutes, helpful school libraries, and all other needed improvements would then become practical.

MR. SABIN: There is no attempt to grade the country school after the pattern of that of the city. We only design to gather the pupils in classes, perhaps, four classes in arithmetic, three in reading, and a certain number in other branches. Now, the boy who is fitted for one class in arithmetic may be fitted for a higher or lower one in reading. He is not necessarily classified in the same class in each branch. Then we have, in Iowa, a system by which a comparatively complete record is kept of his attainment and progress in each branch, which is left with the district secretary the same as the register of attendance, for the government of the succeeding teacher in assigning the boy on his return to school. We have many counties in which the schools have monthly cards of information to parents, regular promotions, and enough of the machinery of the graded school to give stability to the course.

As for the Lancasterian system proposed by Dr. Harris, it would breed discord with us at once. You set John Smith's girl to instructing John Jones's boy, and the question would be asked at home: "What is that girl teaching you for? I want you to recite to the teacher." This system could never in the world be introduced successfully into the schools of Iowa.

DR. RICHARDS: I should think the classification would necessarily be very imperfect if all the pupils were brought into three or four classes. Would it not be a plan of merely calling pupils members of one grade when, in fact, they are in three or four different grades?

MR. GREENWOOD: This method of grading is very common already in many Western States. The county and State superintendents in Illinois, Iowa, Missouri, and other States, have been preparing courses of study and programmes for the use of the country teachers, and they have overcome many of the difficulties alluded to. In the investigation of this subject the Committee might get the experience and practice of the different States in this matter. There are many superintendents ready to explain how these difficulties may be overcome.

DR. HARRIS: Will Mr. Greenwood, or any one else, tell us how to meet these difficulties of so many grades and classes in a room?

MR. SABIN: Dr. Richards asks if we should not have in this classification simply four or five classes taught as one. In just the same way as in the city school in a class of twenty-five pupils in reading you will find twenty-five different classes, for no two pupils will read alike. The objection which he urges will apply to any school in which other than individual instruction is given.

Some of the evils referred to will cure themselves in time. Every one who has had experience in grading the schools of a city or village for the first time knows that this grading is at first very loose, but he relies upon time to remedy the evil. By an interchange of pupils between the classes from term to term, he finally works out the problem of gradation. The same is true in the rural school.

I desire to call attention to the further fact that, as the work of classification becomes successful, there follows an improved feeling in the community toward the school, manifesting itself in better buildings and surroundings.

I wish the Committee would investigate the workings of the new Ohio law which compels the grading of the rural schools, and also permits the directors to pay the tuition of pupils sufficiently advanced who may desire to attend the school in the neighboring city or village.

DR. DICKINSON: I would recommend, as a means to a more satisfactory classification, that pupils be collected from large areas and brought to convenient centers, instead of having so many schools scattered over a wide expanse of territory. This may require some public provision for the transportation of children living at a distance from the school. This is done in Massachusetts, and the plan is found quite practicable, experience proving that this transportation costs much less than would at first thought seem necessary. By this means the classification has been greatly improved, and the schools have gained much in public favor.

The time has come in our country when all schools, rural as well as urban, should have trained teachers and intelligent supervision. Both are essential to the highest results, and the public has a right to insist on them as a condition to success. The teacher is the chief factor in the building up of a school, and no pains should be spared to equip him well. His education and character are of the utmost importance. He teaches by what he is as well as what he knows or what he can do. The schools of the

rural districts need trained teachers, improved classification, rational courses of study, and intelligent supervision.

DR. WHITE: I share to some extent Dr. Harris's doubt with respect to the feasibility of grading country schools after the close classification of city systems. Attempts thus to grade rural schools have now been made on a wide scale by State, county, and local authority. California adopted a graded course of instruction for all its schools over twenty years ago. Progressive counties in several States took the same step years ago, and the present movement is strongly towards the general adoption of the system. Where adopted and intelligently administered, it has undoubtedly resulted in improvement, but it has not been free from serious difficulty. Grading has been accompanied with mechanism, and the bright and capable pupil has been unduly sacrificed. The unclassified schools of my boyhood gave bright pupils—who needed little instruction, but only required an opportunity to study—a chance to go ahead. They were not held back by the dull and indolent, but the less capable pupils made little progress. I should be sorry to see a return to the old *régime* of no grading, and I have not much confidence in the remedy proposed for its evils—the Lancasterian plan of assistance by pupils. The monitorial system means the memoriter system with all its weakness.

But is there not a more feasible plan of grading country schools than the close city grading so generally attempted? The special report somewhat modestly suggests a plan of grading based on the three stages or phases of mental development: the objective, or primary phase; the transitional, or secondary phase; and the thought, or grammar phase. Some years ago I worked out a scheme for grading country schools on this basis, and I wish to emphasize this suggestion in the report. I thought I had made a little discovery; but, a few months since, I learned that the schools of Wisconsin had been graded on this plan for several years, and now comes Massachusetts, with her experience in the same direction. It will be seen that this plan makes few points of promotion, and that these come at the place of natural transition in the course of study. Between these points it permits needed flexibility, the brighter pupils having an opportunity to make as rapid progress as may be desirable. It also permits all art branches to be taught without multiplying exercises. The three grades of pupils in language, drawing, and writing, for example, may be taught in the same period. In other studies the pupils in each grade may be divided into classes, but their rate of progress will not be fixed by the programme. I wish to commend this three-grade plan to all who may be interested in the gradation and improvement of country schools.

MR. KIEHLE: I desire to defend this report. The very elaborate and excellent report of Dr. Smart of Indiana, a few years ago, on this subject, is commended; but without undertaking to review or supersede it, the committee would render a good service if it should report what progress has been made toward realizing the ideals there offered.

The condition of the country schools is far from satisfactory. Those of Minnesota have made little if any progress in the last twenty-five years. The teaching has not improved. The desirability of a good system of classification is to be recognized; but all depends on efficient teachers and an efficient and continuous superintendency. The schools are not suffering so much from the selection of officials by political means, as from the frequent changes that are made. The terms of service are too short for any adequate results. Help us to secure good teachers and an efficient superintendency, and we will promise a practical and economical classification.

MR. BROWN: The ungraded school has certain advantages over those with a careful classification. Children learn more from each other than from the teacher, and in the ungraded school the opportunities for this kind of tuition are the very best. But the schools must go through this process of gradation to a better condition of things. Although along with this grading come many objectionable features, minor considerations may be made too prominent, and the schools may become excessively mechanical. Through mechanism to spirituality is the law of progress. Heretofore methods have passed for all they were worth, but the time has come when scholarship is more highly regarded, and the rural teachers follow higher ideals than they did a generation ago.

MR. GARRETT: The committee has gained what it desired from the discussion. We desire to incorporate Dr. Walton's paper in the report, and ask permission to consider the subject further, and to report again next year.

The request to incorporate was granted, and the subject was recommitted for a report at the next meeting of the Council.

REPORT OF ROUND-TABLE DISCUSSION ON "PROMOTIONS IN CITY SCHOOLS."*

[REPORTED BY N. C. DOUGHERTY.]

SIX years since, President Eliot, at the meeting of the Department of Superintendents, at Washington, presented a paper on shortening and enriching the program in the elementary schools. The discussion of the paper was opened by Dr. Harris, who, in his remarks, strongly urged the need and desirability of irregular promotions, in order that the bright boy might be able to find full employment in his school work, and that the dull boy should not be so hurried as not to do the work thoroughly. This paper and its discussion formed for the ensuing year the basis of other discussions in many county, district, and State associations—particularly in the West and the Northwest. Out of it there has grown up, particularly in these sections, a system of flexible or loose promotions, as distinguished from the more rigid system of annual or semi-annual promotion which had formerly existed, and which still obtains almost exclusively in the East. The committee thought the time had come to examine the results obtained by the flexible system, and to this end they held a round-table conference in Congress Hall, at which were present some of the leading superintendents of the country; they selected Chicago as the city in which it had had the longest trial. The facts were given by A. R. Sabin, one of the superintendents of the Chicago schools, and are as follows:

The number of promotions during the year ending June, 1892, of pupils of all grades to the next higher grade were, in

September	578	March	7,745
October	1,141	April	13,989
November	1,282	May	6,675
December	8,923	June	56,156
January	5,112		
February	2,809		104,410

The average daily membership during the year was 127,000.

In Chicago pupils are admitted to school membership every day in the

* This report and the following ones were not subject to discussion in the Council.

year; hence it naturally follows that there should be promotions every month in the year.

The graded course provides for a year's work for each grade. Probably eighty per cent. of the pupils require a year in which to do the work of a grade. But there are some hundreds of pupils who can do the work of four grades in three years or less. Perhaps an equal number require five years for the same work.

The Chicago or flexible system of promotion favors each individual. Pupils need not be hurried faster than they can go, nor held back a month longer than necessary.

Many hundreds of pupils enter the Chicago schools each year directly from Europe—the children of immigrants. They are generally without a word of English. Many of them give evidence of careful instruction before coming to this country. They are as far as possible placed in a room together and taught the language and reading till they are able to take their place in the third, fourth, and even fifth grade. The flexible system of grading and promotions provides for the welfare of all such children. It also provides that pupils who fail of promotion with their class need not fail a half year or a year, but generally for a month or half term.

This plan of promotion of pupils whenever a class has satisfactorily completed the work of a grade, draws a sharp line between the work of a successful teacher, as compared with the work of an ordinary one. There are teachers who will accomplish as much with a class in three months as others can in four months. Pupils should have all the benefits that accrue from a good teacher. This flexible system puts a bounty on the work of the good teachers.

REPORT OF ROUND-TABLE DISCUSSION ON "THE USES OF LITERATURE IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION."

[REPORTED BY L. H. JONES.]

To the National Council of Education:

Your committee on elementary education held a Round Table meeting at the time appointed by the Council. The subject was that upon which the committee had just made its report to the Council. The discussion was spirited and profitable, but lay mainly along lines already emphasized in the report of the committee.

It was insisted that the true use of literature for children is to give to them early, true views of institutional life, rather than the filling of the mind with isolated facts, or even information.

If the literature deal at all with nature, it should present the poet's view rather than that of the utilitarian gatherer of details. It was freely recommended that the literature be selected which idealizes the relationship of the family, and later those of the state, the church, and especially of general social life.

References were made to many contributions to periodicals bearing upon this use of literature in early school training; and it was agreed to call attention in this report to articles found in the *Atlantic Monthly*, and the *Popular Science Monthly*. The former is an article by Miss Mary E. Burt, in the issue for April, 1891.

REPORT OF ROUND-TABLE DISCUSSION ON "APPERCEPTION."

[REPORTED BY CHAS. DE GARMO.]

THE range of exposition and discussion in this Round Table conference was substantially as follows: The old empirical psychology was inclined to stop at the stage of classification, so that the doctrine of separate and distinct faculties grew up. The memory, for instance, was thought to be an organ of mind, and to need cultivating by appropriate exercise. The tendency was to reduce all knowledge to lowest terms in the form of rules, definitions, abstracts, etc., and to present it to the mind for storage. So of other faculties, like imagination and reason. A subject matter supposed to be appropriate, was proposed and given to the mind for the training of the appropriate faculties. The point of view was, therefore, external to the mind. The standpoint was not at the true center, but reminds us of the Ptolemaic astronomy, which found the center of the system at the earth. Now, just as Copernicus corrected this view by taking his position at the sun as the center, so the doctrine of apperception corrects the old pedagogical view by finding the educational center *in* rather than *outside of* the mind itself. It is the merit of the Herbartian psychology, that it shows how new experience is colored, and even determined, by experience already obtained by the mind. Kant showed the *a priori* conditions of experience, by showing that certain things must be presupposed in order to have a mind capable of any perception at all, but Herbart showed that our present experience is the *a posteriori* determination of what effect a new experience shall have upon us. This is preëminently the teacher's point of view, for in knowledge, what we *have* determines in large measure what we *get* from a new experience.

Our methods of teaching are, therefore, to be largely deduced from this psychological view of the acquisition of knowledge. Furthermore, the subjects of study must be governed by this idea of apperception. Thus, for instance, we want to know what the best order of parts is for each study. Shall we be governed by the logical order of the developed whole, or by the psychological needs, interests and knowledge of the pupil? If by the former, then we must take every step in logical order, omitting none; if by the latter, we may omit many things, and take an order that appeals most forcibly to the interests and abilities of the growing child.

We must examine carefully, too, how rapidly we may with safety proceed, after the order of steps is determined. This will depend largely upon the child's growing power of grasping abstract statements, in the form of condensations of knowledge, such as rules, principles, and definitions. If these are presented too fast, the mind is dazed; if they increase too rapidly in difficulty, it is confused and discouraged. The whole thing is to be governed by the power of apperception in each mind.

In like manner, the coördination of studies depends upon this same standpoint of apperception in the child.

In brief, it may be said that skill in methods of teaching, arrangement of the parts of a study, the rate of progress in each, and the coördination of all, depend closely upon psychology from the standpoint of apperception.

ANNUAL MEMBERSHIP

FOR THE

YEAR ENDING JULY 1, 1893.

ANNUAL MEMBERSHIP FOR THE YEAR ENDING JULY 1, 1893.*

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—*Alabama, 51.*

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—*Arizona, 2.*

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—*Arkansas, 33.*

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—*California, 10.*

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—*Colorado, 59.*

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—*Connecticut, 63.*

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Kelly, Ina, Monticello.
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Mozley, Pearl, Atlanta.
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O'Keefe, Maude, Atlanta.
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Smith, Mrs. E. B., La Grange.
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—*Georgia, 163.*

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Barbour, O. F., Rockford.
Barbour, Mrs. O. F., Rockford.
Bardwell, C. M., Canton.
Barker, Carrie L., Gardner.
Bates, Mrs. A. E., Chicago.

ILLINOIS—CONTINUED.

Bay, Geo. P., Chicago.
Beatty, Miss M. E., Quincy.
Bigelow, Millie, Davis Junction.
Blanchard, Mrs. S. B., Minonk.
Blanchard, Irene M., Minonk.
Blanchard, Jeannette. Minonk.
Blanchard, Julia E., Wheaton.
Bonney, C. C., Chicago.
Brewer, Kate, Springfield.
Brown, J. W., Quincy.
Brown, G. W., Jacksonville.
Brown. James A., Quincy.
Brua, Minnie, Belleville.
Brua, Ida, Belleville.
Bryant, H. W., Chicago.
Cahow, Anna, Kewanee.
Campbell, Mrs. E. A., Chicago.
Chacksfield, G., Chicago.
Chacksfield, M., Chicago.
Charles, Thomas, Chicago.
Chamberlin, W. H., Chicago.
Chamberlin, Mrs. W. H., Chicago.
Chace, F. H., Winnebago.
Cheney, A. J., Oak Park.
Clancey, A. W., Chicago.
Clark, Maria, Chicago.
Cobbs, T. H., Roodhouse.
Collins, J. H., Springfield.
Collins, Mrs. J. H., Springfield.
Collins, Lida M., Quincy.
Cook, John W., Normal.
Cowan, A. T., Milledgeville.
Crain, Ethel G., Freeport.
Crockett, May M., Quincy.
Davis, M. E., Freeport.
Decker, A. M., Dixon.
Dement, Isaac S., Chicago.
Diehl, S. A., Kent.
Dinoon, L. A , Chicago.
Dougherty, N. C., Peoria.
Drummet. William, Eureka.
Eastabrook, Harriet, Milledgeville.
Eaton, Ira F., Chicago.
Edwards, W. A., Rockford.
Edwards, Mrs. W. A., Rockford.
Farris, Mrs. Mary C., Galesburg.
Fifield, Mary, Dwight.
Filmore, Emily E., Belleville.
Fisher, Anna W., Springfield.
Fischer, F. L., Wheaton.
Fischer, P. B., Wheaton.
Fischer, Mrs. Julia W., Wheaton.
Fischer, H. A., Wheaton.
Fisk, H. F., Evanston.
Fitzer, Levi R., Belvidere.
FitzPatrick, Hattie L., Dixon.
Flower, Alice, Springfield.
Foresman, Robert, Chicago.
Foley, Lillie C., Springfield.
Ford, Emma A., Aurora.
French, C. H., Chicago.
Furbeck, W. F., Oak Park.
Geer, D. S., Chicago.
Gettemy, Mrs. Mary E., Galesburg.
Glasheen, Mary, Delavan.
Glasheen, Gretta, Delavan.
Gibson, John, Oregon.
Grant, H. L., Peoria.
Grassart, Bena, Belleville.
Grass, Josie E., Belleville.
Greunan, A. V., Aurora.
Griggsby, Mrs. S., Pittsfield.
Grote, Caroline, Augusta.
Hale, Mrs. Maria R., Chrystal Lake.
Hampton, Eleanor, Illiopolis.
Hannay, Jessie, Peoria.
Hannon, Anna R., Springfield.
Hanstein, Neunann, Chicago.
Harding, F. F., Rogers Park.
Harris, L. E., Chicago.
Harris, Miss K. E., Chicago.
Harrison, Elizabeth, Chicago.
Hatch, Henry D., Chicago.
Hayden, P. C., Quincy.
Heidler, S. H., Springfield.
Hemle, Wm., Springfield.
Heywood, Richard, Creston.
Hofer, A., Chicago.
Hofer, Andrew, Chicago.
Hofer, Miss B., Chicago.
Hofer, Miss M., Chicago.
Howland, Geo., Chicago.
Huling, Mrs. E. J., Chicago.
Hull, John, Carbondale.
Jenkins, Williams, Mendota.
Jenks, Ella L., Rockford.
Jocelyn, J. E., Peoria.
Jones, Emma Frances, Springfield.
Kendrick, A. A., Alton.
Kendrick, Mrs. A. A., Alton.
Kinnie, Charles J., Rockford.
Kirby, Ed. P., Jacksonville.
Kirby, Mrs. E. P., Jacksonville.
Kirby, Edith, Jacksonville.
Kirk, Alfred, Chicago.
Kroh, C. J., Englewood.
Lane, A. G., Chicago.
Larrison, Eleanor, Ravenswood.
Lorey, Emma, Belleville.
Lorey, Joanna, Belleville.
Lukens, H. T., Chicago.
Maxwell, Eleanor, Springfield.
McBurney, Minnie, Prairie Home.
McCollum, W., Chicago.
McCord, W. E., Peoria.
McLaughlin, Ada G., Pekin.
McMurray, Normal.
Mercer, J. A., Peoria.
Merriman, A. N., Chicago.
Mettler, Edna, Creston.
Miller, J. C., Chicago.
Miller, Mrs. J. C., Chicago.
Miner, Geo. F., Edwardsville.
Morris, Harriet N., Upper Alton.
Muhling, Mrs. F. M., Braidwood.
Neely, A. C., Chicago.

ILLINOIS—Concluded.

Neil, Mary, Macon.
Nichols, F. W., South Evanston.
Nichols, Louella, Carlyle.
Nowland, E., Peoria.
Norton, James H., Chicago.
O'Brien, Mollie, Peoria.
Olmsted, F. L., Kennelworth.
Owens, Emma, Mattoon.
Owen, Edwine H., Carlinville.
Page, Mrs. C. L., Chicago.
Peabody, Selim H., Chicago.
Phelps, Laura, Malta.
Pierce, Mary E., Chicago.
Pollard, Mrs. R. S., Chicago.
Pryor, Nellie, Cissna Park.
Ramsdell, Marion, Franklin Grove.
Rice, Helen A., Chicago.
Richardson, F. M., Chenoa.
Robinson, A. R., Chicago.
Robinson, Mrs. Julia E., Chrystal Lake.
Royce, Geo. H., Chicago.
Russell, C. N., Sterling.
Russell, Mrs. C. N., Sterling.
Russell, Annie F., Sterling.
Sabin, A. R., Chicago.
Scott, Mrs. A. B., Chicago.
Seeley, L., Lake Forest.
Seeley, Mrs. L., Lake Forest.
Sellars, A. B., Mattoon.
Shawhan, G. R., Urbana.
Sims, Claribel, Carlinville
Sisson, F. M., Chicago.
Sisson, Mary E., Peoria.
Smalley, D. H., Chicago.
Smith, Ceylon, Quincy.
Smith, Mrs. Ceylon, Quincy.
Smith, E. R., Chicago.
Smith, Mrs. J. A., Braidwood.
Steele, W. L., Galesburg.
Stevenson, Albert L., Chicago.
Stipp, W. E., Bushnell.
Stiver, P. O., Free Port.
Squier, E. Clara, Chicago.
Summerfield, Edward, South Chicago.
Summerfield, Mrs. E. C., South Chicago.
Tracey, F. N., Kankakee.
Vaile, E. O., Oak Park.
Vandervort, C. R., Peoria.
Wade, I. N., Champaigne.
Walker, P. R., Rockford.
Wallen, W. L., Chicago.
Wallen, Mrs. W. L., Chicago.
Ware, J. W., Moline.
Waterman, Richard, Chicago.
Watson, Lyda, Aurora.
Weaver, Emily A., Chicago.
Webster, Ida J., Chicago.
Webster, Ida M., Chicago.
Webster, Hattie R., Peoria.
Weeks, C. W., Ottawa.
Weeks, Mrs. C. W., Ottawa.
Weldon, G. A., Shawneetown.
White, Mrs. Jean M., Elgin.
Wilcox, Ira T., Aurora.
Wilkinson, J. J., Springfield.
Wilkinson, Mrs. H. H., Chicago.
Willard, S. G., Chicago.
Willard, Mrs. S. G., Chicago.
Williams, J. M., Chicago.
Williams, Mrs. J. M., Chicago.
Williams, Frank B., Chicago.
Williams, W. H., Lake Forest.
Willsey, F. B., Gault.
Wilmarth, Mrs. H. M., Chicago.
Winchell, S. R., Evanston.
Winner, Louise C., Carine.
Winters, Bessie, Springfield.
Wood, John, Chicago.
Woods, F. M., Chicago.

—*Illinois, 214.*

INDIANA.

Allerdice, Florence L., Indianapolis.
Allerdice, Esther M., Indianapolis.
Altman, Cora, Huntington.
Ayres, Edward, Lafayette.
Bass, Florence, Indianapolis.
Boone, Richard G., Bloomington.
Brown, J. F., Spiceland.
Brown, Jessie H., Indianapolis.
Brown, Bertha M., Spiceland.
Brunton, Miss F. M., Indianapolis.
Cox, Sheridan, Kokomo.
Cropsey, Miss N., Indianapolis.
Day, Jenny, New Albany.
Dobson, Jack, Brownsburg.
Fellows, G. E., Bloomington.
Fitzgerald, Jennie, Marion.
Fredrickson, Anna E., La Porte.
Gordon, Nellie M., Bloomington.
Greene, Anna C., Danville.
Griffith, E. E., Indianapolis.
Griffith, Mrs. E. E., Indianapolis.
Hailmann, W. N., La Porte.
Hailmann, Mrs. E. L., La Porte.
Harris, Mrs. M., South Bend.
Harris, Miss S., South Bend.
Heeb, E. J., Indianapolis.
Hege, Mrs. Enos, Indianapolis.
Heneks, Miss E. L., New Albany.
Herbel, Alice, Marion.
Hornbrook, R. S., Evansville.
Hornbrook, Philip R., Evansville.
Hornbrook, Adelia, Evansville.
Houghton, Anna, Plymouth.
Idding, Lottie N., Kendallville.
Jones, Mary, Ft. Wayne.
Jones, Mary E., Ft. Wayne.
Jones, S. Ella, New Albany.
Jones, L. H., Indianapolis.
Keeney, Mrs. M. A., Danville.
McCoy, Ella, Dublin.
McCray, Lena, Kendallville.
Messmore, Mrs. M. H., Terre Haute.

INDIANA—Concluded.

Messmore, Elizabeth, Terre Haute.
Miller, Stella G., Marion.
Moderwill, M. J., Ft. Wayne.
Mowver, Mrs. Eugene, Warsaw.
Mustard, Mary V., Indianapolis.
Nicholson, Mary E., Indianapolis.
Newland, Robert A., Indianapolis.
Palmer, Etta, Huntington.
Pepple, Minnie, Kendallville.
Remg, E. A., Columbus.
Studebaker, Mrs. C. N., South Bend.
Suter, Anna, Aurora.
VandenBosch, J. W., South Bend.
VandenBosch, Miss A., South Bend.
Van Pelt, Geo. A., Indianapolis.
Van Pelt, Mrs. Geo., Indianapolis.
Van Pelt, Fred., Indianapolis.
Warden, J., South Bend.
Warden, Mrs. J., South Bend.
Walters, Frank M., La Porte.
Weaver, W. D., Marion.
Weaver, Grace, Marion.
Williams, W. J., Franklin.
Zeller, J. A., Lafayette.

—*Indiana, 65.*

IOWA.

Arnold, Agnes, Mt. Pleasant.
Barbour, Emily, Clinton.
Barker, Clinton.
Barnum, J. H., Lyons.
Barnum, Mrs. J. H., Lyons.
Bartlett, M. W., Cedar Falls.
Beardshear, W. M., Ames.
Beardshear, Mrs. Josie, Ames.
Blanchard, Louise, Des Moines.
Blanchard, Ella C., Des Moines.
Bostwick, O. P., Clinton.
Brackett, Chas., Mt. Vernon.
Brackett, Libbie, Mt. Vernon.
Brown, C. H., Afton.
Brown, C. H., Afton.
Brown, Laura J., Mt. Pleasant.
Brown, Lucy, Afton.
Burnham, Mary E., Clinton.
Calder, A. B., Morrison.
Calder, Mrs. A. B., Morrison.
Clark, Lillian B., Clinton.
Cleveland, H. F., Hesper.
Coleman, E. N., Lamars.
Crody, D. E., Sioux City.
Crosby, W. E., Des Moines.
Crosier, M. E., Walnut.
Crosier, Mrs. M. E., Walnut
Davis, Cora L., Lyons.
Deming, Geo. E., Shariton.
Deming, Mrs. Geo. E., Shariton.
Doolittle, Margaret. Ames.
Dwells, H. A., Northwood.
Earhart, Mabel, Ackley.
Ely, E. H., Iowa City.
Fehleisen, Bertha, Newton.
Fogg, E. P., Marshalltown.
Forde, Lillian B., Clinton.
Ford, Ella M., Cherokee.
Fullerton, Alice, Nora Springs.
Gallion, Mrs. R. E., Toledo.
Gibson, E. Grace, Rock Rapids.
Goan, B. A., Madrid.
Goyette, C. A., Des Moines.
Graham, M., Strawberry Point.
Greene, Clara, Cedar Rapids.
Gregg, Eva L., Cherokee.
Grumbling, C. M., Mt. Pleasant.
Hackworth, J. T., Ottumwa.
Hackworth, Mrs. J. T., Ottumwa.
Hammond, Luella, Cherokee.
Hennessy, Margaret, Clinton.
Hennessy, Mary E., Clinton.
Hoffman, Lou, Nora Springs.
Holt, Mrs. Edward, Marshalltown.
James, Mrs. Luette B., Des Moines.
Jeffries, J. Q., Clinton.
Jewell, C. A., Pulaski.
Kaeppler, Carrie, Lansing.
Kidder, T. B., Mason City.
King, W. F., Mt. Vernon.
King, Mrs. P. R., Des Moines.
King, Charlotte, Des Moines.
Knoepfler, J. B., Des Moines.
Larrabee, H. B , Creston.
Laylander, O. P., Cedar Rapids.
Lyon, G. W., Cedar Rapids.
Manly, Jennie M., Mechanicsville.
McBride, Miss E , Green Island.
McClain, Ellen G., Iowa City.
McKenzie, Geo W., Sioux City.
Mehan, J. M., Des Moines.
Morehouse, Emma, Council Bluffs.
Morris, R. Anna, Des Moines.
Miller, G. I., Boone.
Miles, D. R., Humboldt.
Musselman, Clara B., Red Oak.
Nash, M. D., Des Moines.
Overholtzer, Alice L., ———
Owen, Ella, Mt. Vernon.
Palmer, A. N., Cedar Rapids.
Palmer, Mrs. A. N., Cedar Rapids.
Palmer, Mary J., Lyons.
Porter, Channie, Cedar Rapids.
Plummer, Frank E., Des Moines.
Ray, D. A., Humboldt.
Perdu, Rosella, Tipton.
Robertson, Agnes, Cherokee.
Rogers, C. P., Marshalltown.
Sabin, Henry, Des Moines.
Sears, Ella E., Toledo.
Seerley, H. H., Cedar Falls.
Stafford, C. L., Mt. Pleasant.
Stiles, A. E., Rock Valley.
Stiles, Mrs. A. E., Rock Valley.
Stockey, Mrs. S. W., Cedar Rapids.
Stratton, F. E., Davenport.

IOWA—Concluded.

Sweet, Miss J. J., Clinton.
Tanner, Mary A., Ackley.
Tate, Clara L., Washington.
Taylor, A. C., Cedar Rapids.
Taylor, Mrs. A. C., Cedar Rapids.
Temple, Annie, Atlanta.
Thompson, Maude, New Providence.
Tiner, R. H., Des Moines.
Tucker, Grace, Boone.
Van Camp, Otranto.
Wallbank, Nellie, Mt. Pleasant.
Weichard, Ella C., Cherokee.
White, Mamie, Lansing.
Wilder, Carrie, Otranto.

—*Iowa, 110.*

KANSAS.

Aldrich, Alice H., Galena.
Armstrong, John, Topeka.
Bacheller, Mrs. S. B., Lyons.
Baldwin, Jessie E., Howard.
Barnes, Gertrude A., Blue Rapids.
Bates, Sara D., Ft. Scott.
Bates, Mrs. L., Concordia.
Bennett, Belle, Topeka.
Benton, Guy P., Ft. Scott.
Bikerdyke, J. R., Russell.
Bowen, Mamie, Arkansas City.
Boyce, S. B., Lawrence.
Brock, Rose, Eureka.
Broughton, Caroline, Topeka.
Broughton, Bessie, Topeka.
Brown, Anna, Ft. Scott.
Brunson, Carrie A., Solomon City.
Buck, Mrs. Anna, Sedgwick.
Bunker, Flora, Topeka.
Carney, Mollie, Galena.
Clarke, Dell, Emporia.
Clarke, Elva E., Emporia.
Coburn, Gertrude, Kansas City.
Collins, H., Cheney.
Collins, Mrs. I. M., Cheney.
Collins, Lura, Solomon City.
Cornish, Alice G., Arkansas City.
Cunningham, G. W., Arkansas City.
Cunningham, Mrs. G. W., Arkansas City.
Dana, Fenella, Topeka.
Daniels, Hattie, Udall.
Davidson, Wm., Topeka.
Davis, Lizzie, Topeka.
Dietrich, John, Emporia.
Dougherty, B. C., Wichita.
Dunham, Mrs. Lizzie, St. Clair.
Dusinberre, E. F., Howard.
Farrington, E. A., Paola.
Flint, F. L., Minneapolis.
Foster, Annice, Topeka.
Foster, Elma, Topeka.
George, Hattie, Wilson.
Giffin, Mary B., Arkansas City.
Hagar, Anna M., Topeka.
Henry, Ida M., North Topeka.
Henry, Anna, North Topeka.
Hughes, Maggie, Kansas City.
Jewett, E. V., Abilene.
Johnson, Alice, Sedgwick.
Johnson, Helen, Sedgwick.
King, Anna, Leavenworth.
Krehbiel, Susie L., Halstead.
Larimer, H. G., Topeka.
Little, E. Ada, Manhattan.
Manchester, Inez, Chiles.
Marsland, Cora, Emporia.
McDonald, John, Topeka.
McNeal, Florence, Norcatur.
Montieth, Annie R., Topeka.
Montieth, Mary, Topeka.
Morehead, Ida, Augusta.
Moser, Tillie, Halstead.
Murray, John A., Valley Falls.
Murray, Laura, Valley Falls.
Murray, Annie, Valley Falls.
Nicholson, Geo. H., Topeka.
Olin, A. S., Kansas City.
Orr, J. D., Ft. Scott.
Patterson, Lena L., Blue Rapids.
Pearce, Julia R., Marshalltown.
Pearson, M. E., Kansas City.
Pomeroy, A. B., Topeka.
Pounds, Mrs. T. E., Topeka.
Prouty, A. B., Hollenberg.
Randall, G. P., Clay Center.
Randall, Mrs. G. P., Clay Center.
Reasoner, Florence, Leavenworth.
Saunders, Florence, Topeka.
Shepard, Julia, Winfield.
Shull, W. P., Wichita.
Sims, J. J., Topeka.
Sims, E. C., Topeka.
Skinner, Mrs. L. J., Wichita.
Skinner, Mrs. L. D., Wichita.
Skinner, H. S., Wichita.
Skinner, Ida, Wichita.
Smith, Mrs. Oscar, Wichita.
Smoke, Miss D., Wichita.
Spalding, F. M., Minneapolis.
Stam, Lovie, Winfield.
Stanley, Edmund, Lawrence.
Stevenson, R. W., Wichita.
Stewart, Mary E., Topeka.
Stewart, Mrs. A. L., Ness City
Strong, Mrs. C., Winfield.
Sturgis, J. M., Topeka.
Swayze, Clarke, Topeka.
Swayze, Horace G., Topeka.
Taylor, A. R., Emporia.
Taylor, Mrs. A. R., Emporia.
Taylor, E. F., Kansas City.
Thompson, J. W., Waterville.
Thompson, N. B., Waterville.
Thompson, Mary, Waterville.
Tully, Mattie, Winfield.
Vasey, Lou, Caldwell.

KANSAS—Concluded.

Vasey, Mary, Caldwell.
Warden, Mrs. C. E., Topeka.
Ware, Lucy A., Fort Scott.
Weyeneth, Edith A., Wichita.
Wharton, Mollie, Ottawa.
Wharton, Nellie, Ottawa.
Wheeler, Clara, Lawrence.
Wilder, Kate, Lawrence.
Wilder, Mary E., Topeka.
Wilder, Anna, Lawrence.
Wilkinson, J. N., Emporia.
Williams, Martha, Topeka.
Williams, Ella, Winfield.
Williams, Charles, Arkansas City.
Williams, Margaret, Arkansas City.
Wilson, Mary, Hollenberg.
Wilson, Harry G., Topeka.
Winans, G. W., Topeka.
Winans, Mrs. G. W., Topeka.
Yater, Cora, Topeka.
Young, George C., Wichita.

—*Kansas, 127.*

KENTUCKY.

Allen, Caroline S., Louisville.
Allen, Eva, Louisville.
Arnold, Julia, Hopkinsville.
Bartholomew, W. H., Louisville.
Bartholomew, Susie M., Louisville.
Bell, Mary B., Hopkinsville.
Bell, Sarah A., Frankfort.
Bronough, Sallie, Hopkinsville.
Burdine, Lily, Paducah.
Clarke, Jennie, Louisville.
Coleman, J. D., Frankfort.
Dietrich, C. H., Hopkinsville.
Dietrich, Hattie, Hopkinsville.
Dodson, Mary F., Paducah.
Donaldson, Lida, Hopkinsville.
Dorland, J. E., Louisville.
Harbison, Martha, Shelbyville.
Hogue, Jennie W., Louisville.
Hogue, Mollie K., Louisville.
Keating, A. W., Louisville.
Keating, Miss M. K., Louisville.
Lander, Alice E., Hopkinsville.
Lewis, Margaret A., Frankfort.
Long, Elizabeth, Hopkinsville.
McBrown, G. O., Paducah.
McBrown, Mrs. G. O., Paducah.
McDonald, Annie I., Louisville.
McGill, Mamie, Louisville.
Mehan, Mamie, Louisville.
Merker, Margaret, Louisville.
Price, Lilly B., Hopkinsville.
Reese, Mattie, Hopkinsville.
Rhoads, McHenry, Frankfort.
Rogers, Fannie B., Hopkinsville.
Rutherford, Susie B., Hopkinsville.
Southworth, Mrs. J. A., Earlville.
Speed, Mrs. B. T., Louisville.
Tucker, L. B., Louisville.
Tucker, M. B., Louisville.
Wallis, Albertine, Hopkinsville.
Wybrant, Mary J., Louisville.
Young, Mattie, Hopkinsville.

—*Kentucky 42.*

LOUISIANA.

Brown, Marion, New Orleans.
Byrd, C. E., Monroe.
Chewers, John A., New Orleans.
Dixon, Biandt V. B., New Orleans.
Easton, Warren, New Orleans.
Easton, Mrs. Warren, New Orleans.
Flanagan, Mary H., New Orleans.
Gill, H. M., New Orleans.
Gunby, A. A., Monroe.
Gunby, Mrs. A. A., Monroe.
Huling, O. W., New Orleans.
Johnson, William Preston, New Orleans.
Johnson, Mrs. Margaret A., New Orleans.
Kilgrove, Nora E., New Orleans.
Koppel, Bertha, New Orleans.
McLain, Carrie, Monroe.
Ordway, John M., New Orleans.
Ramsey, George J., Clinton.
Russ, Jasper W., New Orleans.
Soule, George, New Orleans.
Stuart, Charlotte, New Orleans.

—*Louisiana, 21.*

MAINE.

Corthell, W. J., Goreham.
Emerson, Helen, North Castine.
Fernald, M. C., Orono.
Fernald, Mrs. Mary L., Orono.
Hall, D. W., Skowhegan.
Hart, James N., Orono.
Hyde, William DeW., Brunswick.
King, Emma A.
Leland, Rose, Deering Center.
Rexdale, Robert, Portland.
Snow, B. P., Yarmouth.
Stetson, W. W., Auburn.
Stuart, G. A., Lewiston.
Williams, Cornelia.

—*Maine, 10.*

MARYLAND.

Andrews, Robert, Mt. Winans.
Andrews, Mrs. Robert, Mt. Winans.
Beattey, L. L., Centerville.
Beziat, Marion E., Baltimore.
Bosley, Mary E., Philopolis.
Brewer, Fannie, Baltimore.
Brown, Mollie E., Baltimore.
Chenoworth, E. C., Baltimore.

MARYLAND—Concluded.

Chunn, Annie, Annapolis.
Cockey, Mary E., Kent Island.
Connolly, Ella E., Cockeysville.
Denny, Katie, Kent Island.
Diffenbaugh, James A., Westminster.
Gumble, Sally, Manor.
Haile, S. Cora, Jacksonville.
Hammond, William A., Baltimore.
Hilberg, Annie F., Baltimore.
Hodges, S. E., Baltimore.
Hollingshead, Mrs. L. T., Baltimore.
Jones, R. Bradley, South River.
Marburg, Charles L., Baltimore.
McCahan, John E., Baltimore.
McCoy, Pattie E., Baltimore.
Miller, Charles R., Westminster.
Molloy, Mary L., Baltimore.
Newell, M. A., Baltimore.
Newell, Mrs. Charlotte, Havre de Grace.
Perveil, W. H., Rutland.
Pietch, A. J., Baltimore.
Prettyman, E. B., Baltimore.
Price, Nannie, Kent Island.
Richmond, S. E., Baltimore.
Richmond, Sarah B., Baltimore.
Riley, Ida M., Ashland.
Rogers, Charles B., Towson.
Sadler, W. H., Baltimore.
Smyth, L. K., Baltimore.
Sumwalt, Mrs. M. H., Baltimore.
Thompson, Mary P., Kent Island.
Torsch, Sallie J., Baltimore.
Walters, Grace O., Baltimore.
Walters, Estelle S., Baltimore.
Waters, M. E., Baltimore.
Weller, Minnie, Baltimore.
Welsh, Mrs. S. L., Baltimore.
Wise, Henry A., Baltimore.
Wolf, D. Elmer, Hagerstown.
Wolf, Mrs. D. Elmer, Hagerstown.
Woodall, Lillian, Baltimore.

—*Maryland, 49.*

MASSACHUSETTS.

Armington, J. W., Weymouth.
Armington, Mrs. J. W., Weymouth.
Armington, Helen F., Weymouth.
Armstrong, G. W., Boston.
Atwood, J. H., Springfield.
Bacon, Geo. A., Boston.
Bagg, R. M., West Springfield.
Baker, O. M., Springfield.
Ballow, Cornelia C., Franklin.
Barnes, Thos. H., Boston.
Barnes, Wm. T., South Boston.
Barrell, James S., Cambridgeport.
Barrows, Cassandra M., Revere.
Barrows, Alice, Reading.
Bates, W. C., Lawrence.
Bellamy, Francis, Boston.
Bennett, Emma J., Fitchburg.
Billings, Ada D., Cambridge.
Billings, Mrs. Emma, North Adams.
Billings, Maude, Framingham.
Blake, H. W., Springfield.
Boyden, A. G., Bridgewater.
Boyden, Arthur C., Bridgewater.
Bradley, Milton, Springfield.
Bradley, Mrs. Milton, Springfield.
Brigham, S. Eliza, Marlborough.
Brigham, Hattie E., Marlborough.
Brockett, Walter F., Boston.
Brown, David H., West Medford.
Brown, Lizzie M., Wenham.
Bryant, Mrs. Jno. J., Stoneham.
Carpenter, Miss C., Auburndale.
Carrington, H. B., Hyde Park.
Carroll, Mary E. C., Worcester.
Chace, L. M., Boston.
Chapin, A. P., Rochester.
Childes, E. E., Springfield.
Childes, Mrs. E. E., Springfield.
Clark, J. S., Boston.
Comstock, Fannie A., Bridgewater.
Connell, William, Fall River.
Cook, Eliza A., Marlborough.
Costello, Miss C., Boston.
Crane, Rev. Oliver, Boston.
Crane, Mrs. Sybil B., Boston.
Cushing, J. P., Holyoke.
Dewey, Julia M., Lowell.
Dickinson, J. W., Boston.
Dunton, Larkin, Boston.
Duston, D. M., Munson.
Eaton, W. L., Concord.
Eaton, Clara W., Middleborough.
Edwards, A. M., Pittsfield.
Elder, Miss E. C., Brightwood.
Eliot, Chas. W., Cambridge.
Enebuske, C. J., Boston.
Fillebrown, Walter M., Boston.
Fisher, E. H., Boston.
Fisher, S. Lizzie, N. Weymouth.
Fisher, Miss E. C., Boston.
Fisk, Everett O., Boston.
Fiske, Mrs. Geo. W., Lowell.
Fiske, Sarah C., Lowell.
Frink, Henry A., Amherst.
Fox, Miss N. W., Springfield.
Freeman, Mary A., Newton Upper Falls.
Frothingham, Thos. G., Boston.
Frothingham, Mrs. T. G., Boston.
Fuller, M. N., Springfield.
Fuller, D. L., Springfield.
Garland, James S., Concord.
Garland, Miss M. J., Boston.
Giddings, Laura E., Somerville.
Ginn, Edwin, Boston.
Goldthwaite, A. M., Cambridgeport.
Goldthwaite, Miss A. M., Boston.
Gray, Hattie L., Palmer.
Greeley, W. H., Allston.

MASSACHUSETTS—CONCLUDED.

Greenman, W. F., Fitchburg.
Hall, Bert, Springfield.
Hall, J. Freeman, Natick.
Hall, G. Stanley, Worcester.
Hamlin, Sara A., Provincetown
Hawks, A. C., N. Hampton.
Hardy, J. C., Jackson.
Harrie, Mrs. E. C., Boston.
Hartwell, E. Adams, Fitchburg.
Harvey, E. B., West Westborough.
Hastings, H. R., Worcester.
Hayes, Catherine E., Saxonville.
Heath, D. C., Boston.
Heminway, H. L., Boston.
Hicks, Mrs. M. D., Boston.
Hill, Chas. W., Boston.
Holt, H. E., Boston.
Homans, Amy Morris, Boston.
Hopkins, Mrs. Louise T., Boston.
Hosmer, Clarissa, Fitchburg.
Huling, Ray G., New Bedford.
Hunt, Mrs. Frank, Framingham.
Hunt, Miss J. P., South Sudbury.
Huntley, Addie Dela, Gilbertville.
Hussey, Eliza M., Cambridgeport.
Ireson, J. E., Boston.
Johnson, Fanny L., Jamaica Plain.
Jones, D. W., Boston.
Jones, Mrs. D. W., Boston.
Keene, Annie N., Cohasset.
Kelly, Edward P., Auburndale.
Kemp, Myrta, N. Adams.
Kenerson, A. H., Boston.
Kenerson, Mrs. A. H., Boston.
King, C. F., Boston.
Kirby, H. Jennie, New Bedford.
Lamere, Malvina, Lowell.
Lamere, Lizzie, Lowell.
Lancaster, Mrs. E. M., Roxbury.
Lathrop, Andrew J., Waltham.
Lathrop, Mrs. A. L., Waltham.
Lewis, L. B., Malden.
Lovering, Lucia N., Marlborough.
Lowe, Mrs. E. S., Lowell.
Lyons, J. J., Boston.
Lyons, Mrs. J. J., Boston.
Maloney, Jennie, Worcester.
Marble, A. P., Worcester.
McLaughlin, L. Rena, Malden.
Metcalf, C. C., Boston.
Metcalf, Robt. C., Boston.
Messenger, Mrs. C. A., Melrose Highlands.
Mills, Mabel O., Somerville.
Miner, J. P., Boston.
Morse, Emily, Medway.
Mowry, W. A., Salem.
Nolen, A. E., Fitchburg.
Nutter, Carrie A., N. Beverly.
Osgood, Lora M., North Andover.
Packart, Anna, Hudson.
Partridge, Geo. F., Great Barrington.
Pattee, Miss, Boston.
Perry, Mrs. A. H., Springfield.
Perry, Elizabeth H., Bridgewater.
Pettey, Miss A. E., Fall River.
Pettey, Miss M. L., New Bedford.
Phillips, Miss C. H., Pittsfield.
Pichonor, B. H., Boston.
Pierce, James, Malden.
Pierce, J. M., Cambridge.
Poulsson, Emilie, Boston.
Pray, Nellie F., Weymouth.
Prescott, Wm., Cambridge.
Prince, J. T., West Newton.
Prince, Miss C. C., Bridgewater.
Pritchard, M. T., Boston.
Purgree, Miss, Boston.
Radlo, Dora, N. Adams.
Rea, A. A., Worcester.
Rice, Edna C., Lowell.
Richards, Mrs. Harriet E., Roxbury.
Robbins, Mabel S., N. Weymouth.
Rowell, H. V., Boston.
Sanborn, Benj. H., Boston.
Sawin, H. C., Newton.
Smith, Arthur P., Waltham.
Smith, Mrs. E. L., Boston.
Smith, Hamilton J., Boston.
Smith, Ida G., Cambridge.
Smith, Fannie A., Pittsfield.
Smith, Martha R., Cambridge.
Spavin, Annie M., Revere.
Stevens, Henry J., Leominster.
Street, Annie M., Cambridgeport.
Sturtevant, Miss M. E., New Bedford.
Tapley, Wm. W., Springfield.
Technor, Mrs. B. H., Boston.
Tower, Jennie B., Cohasset.
Towle, Mary E., Cambridge.
Townsend, Mary A., Cambridge.
Travis, C. B., Boston.
Trundy, Mrs. A. M., Boston.
Trybom, J. H., Boston.
Tucker, C. C., Pepperell.
Underhill, Olive E., Lowell.
Upham, J. B., Boston.
Wakefield, N. S., Boston.
Walker, Harvey W., Franklin.
Walton, G. A., West Newton.
Warden, Sarah, South Hadley.
Ware, Miss E. L., Springfield.
Washburn, K. N., Springfield.
Waterbury, Louise, East Boston.
Waterhouse, F. D., Newton.
Weeks, Mabel, Boston.
Weston, Miss R. J., Boston.
Wheeler, H. N., Boston.
Whitcomb, A. K., Lowell.
Wiggin, Mrs. G. W., Franklin.
Wiggin, Alice, Franklin.
Williams, Kate R., Taunton.
Winship, A. E., Boston.
Winship, A. E., Somerville.
Winship, Edith A., Somerville.

—*Massachusetts, 212*

MICHIGAN.

Abernathy, E. F., Iron Mountain.
Abernathy, Mrs. E. F., Iron Mountain.
Alford, Miss C. P., Detroit.
Allen, Camille, Saginaw.
Allen, Cora L., Coldwater.
Anderson, Mrs. T. F., Flint.
Armstrong, R. F., Reed City.
Armstrong, Mrs. R. F., Reed City.
Babcock, S. S., Detroit.
Babcock, Mrs. S. S., Detroit.
Bailey, Cora, Pontiac.
Baird, Agie M., Bay City.
Baldwin, Clarke, Adrian.
Baldwin, Mrs. M. E., Hillsdale.
Baldwin, Helen, Detroit.
Ball, Millie M., Marquette.
Barck, Emilie, W. Saginaw.
Barnard, Mary E., Grand Rapids.
Bean, Lulu J., Adrian.
Bennett, Jennie E., Detroit.
Bethopiece, Laura E., Bay City.
Bird, Alice J., Detroit.
Black, E. S., Yale.
Blackmore, Ella, Fenton.
Brackett, Anna, Petersburg.
Brackett, M. Ellen, Petersburg.
Brown, Elmer E., Ann Arbor.
Brown, Mrs. Elmer E., Ann Arbor.
Brown, Margaret, Detroit.
Burgess, Vida A., Adrian.
Burus, M. D., St. Clair.
Carleton, Jennie, Marysville.
Carleton, Helen, Marysville.
Chandler, Anna M., Marquette.
Chapman, Mrs. C. X., St. Mary.
Chase, Nellie, Detroit.
Chittenden, H. B., Petersburg.
Coffin, Mathilde E., Detroit.
Colby, F. L., Dowagiac.
Colby, Mrs. F. L., Dowagiac.
Coleman, Mrs. M. P., Detroit.
Converse, Mrs. J. S., W. Saginaw.
Converse, Miss M. L., W. Saginaw.
Convoy, W. E., Saginaw.
Convoy, Mrs. W. E., Saginaw.
Cook, Alma D., Detroit.
Carstens, H., Detroit.
Considine, L. A., Detroit.
Crane, Harold G., Adrian.
Crane, Mrs. E. W., Adrian.
Crosman, Caroline, Detroit.
Cronk, Carrie, Flint.
Cummings, Mrs. E. S. P., Centerville.
Curtis, A. E., Adrian.
Curtis, Mrs. A. E., Adrian.
Curtis, Caroline, Adrian.
Dalrymple, A. J., Detroit.
Danear, Clara, Fenton.
Davenport, Lura, Grand Rapids.
Davis, J. Amanda, Coldwater.
Davy, Edith M., Detroit.
Delaney, D. A., Detroit.
Dessotell, Mrs. C. H., Detroit.
Dessotell, Ella S., Detroit.
Dewey, John, Ann Arbor.
Dickson, Florence, Detroit.
Doyle, A. F., Elsie.
Doyle, Mrs. A. F., Elsie.
Drake, Hattie C., Detroit.
Ducey, Alice T., Muskegon.
Dumphy, M. A., Detroit.
Dumphy, M. E., Detroit.
Durkee, B. K., Lawton.
Duncan, Mrs. Elizabeth, Detroit.
Duncan, H. Adaline, Detroit.
Eby, Emma, Detroit.
Edison, Elnora, Detroit.
Ellis, Geo. N., Olivet College.
Ellis, W. A., Detroit.
Estabrook, J. B., Petoskey.
Euveard, E. J., Detroit.
Ewer, Lizzie, Battle Creek.
Ewer, Addie, Battle Creek.
Finn, Alice, Grand Rapids.
Fitch, F. S., Pontiac.
Fitch, Mrs. F. S., Pontiac.
Fisher, Sarah T., Grosse Point.
Flagler, Floy, Ortonville.
Flagler, Myrtle, Ortonville.
Fletcher, Mabel A., Detroit.
Foot, Anna M., Centerville.
Gaffney, Mary, Auburn.
Gardinier, Cora, Grand Rapids.
Garman, L. B., Centerville.
Gorton, L. G., Detroit.
Garvey, Katie, Capac.
German, Littie, St. Clair.
Gilliland, Maria, Adrian.
Gilliland, Donna, Adrian.
Godfrey, Mellie, Owosso.
Goffney, Nellie S., Negaunee.
Goff, Mrs. Geo., Byron.
Graham, H. A., Calumet.
Gray, E. A., Detroit.
Green, Mrs. Emma E., Detroit.
Greene, Jennie B., Lansing.
Greenwood, L. M., Muir.
Griel, Katherine A., Detroit.
Hagerty, E. J., Detroit.
Hall, James H., Port Austin.
Hall, Jessie E., Port Austin.
Hall, C. B., Detroit.
Hall, Miss L. G., Detroit.
Hall, Miss A. G., Detroit.
Halloran, Mary E., Detroit.
Hamilton, Mrs. A. G., Detroit
Hamet, Amanda M., Bay City
Hammond, J. E., Hillsdale.
Heffron, M. C., Detroit.
Hessler, Marie, W. Saginaw.
Hewitt, W. C., Lansing.
Holt, Jennie E., Corunna.
Horton, E. D., Grand Rapids.
Horton, Mrs. E. D., Grand Rapids.
Howe, Sarah, Detroit.
Humphrey, Henry, Lansing.

MICHIGAN—CONTINUED.

Humphrey, Mrs. H., Lansing.
Hunt, Lillian, Grand Rapids.
Hutchins, Adella, Detroit.
Hutchinson, Mabel, Detroit.
Johnson, May I., Lansing.
Jones, Myra, Detroit.
Joyce, Miss A. M., Detroit.
Kelly, Miss C. E., Grand Rapids.
Kennedy, M., Jackson.
Kennedy, Lucy, Jackson.
Kimball, Harriet, Adrian.
Kingsley, J. R., Ypsilanti.
Kirtland, Ella, Ann Arbor.
Kline, Emma, Grand Rapids.
Kobe, May, Muskegon.
Lamb, Ida A., W. Saginaw.
Lane, V. H., Adrian.
Lane, Mrs. V. H., Adrian.
Larkin, Ella, Detroit.
Layle, F. Rena, St. Claire.
Lee, L. B., Ann Arbor.
Lester, Miss E. M., Detroit.
Lester, Josephine, Detroit.
Liddle, Ramson G., Tustin.
Littell, Mary E., Muskegon.
Long, M. L., Detroit.
Longyear, C. H., Lansing.
Lovejoy, Lena, Muskegon.
Lyon, W. F., Detroit.
Mackenzie, David, Muskegon.
Marsh, Mrs. E. F., Jackson.
Martin, Mrs. A. C., Paw Paw.
Marshall, Miss M., Detroit.
Marquardt, Carl, Mount Clemens.
Marquardt, Helena, Mount Clemens.
Mason, Mrs. W. H., Battle Creek.
Mason, Cora B., Battle Creek.
Mauck, S. W., Houghton.
Mayrowitz, Olga, Detroit.
McCune, Miss E., Detroit.
McElroy, May, Adrian.
McMahon, L. A., Ypsilanti.
McMillen, Olive, Detroit.
Milligan, Anna, Detroit.
Mixter, Tillie, Williamston.
Mixter, M. R., Williamston.
Mixter, K. A., Williamston.
Mixter, Louis C., Williamston.
Monroe, Alice L., Detroit.
Morrice, Bessie, Morrice.
Morrice, Matie, Morrice.
Munroe, Mary F., Detroit.
Murphy, Maggie, Detroit.
Murphy, Nellie, Detroit.
Murray, Alice, Champion.
Norton, Ada P., Ypsilanti.
Note, Edna J., Pontiac.
Nykirk, J. B., Holland.
O'Brien, N. E., Detroit.
Overton, W. H., Saginaw.
Owen, Geo. A., Detroit.
Owen, Mrs., Detroit.
Palmerlee, C. E., Lapeer.
Palmerlee, M. L., Lapeer.
Parker, Miss M. F., Essexville.
Pattengill, H. R., Lansing.
Pearce, Abbie, Ypsilanti.
Peer, Minnie, Cooper.
Pennycook, Miss A. M., Detroit.
Percey, F. A., St. Johns.
Perry, W. S., Ann Arbor.
Pitts, James L., Grand Rapids.
Pitts, Mrs. J. L., Grand Rapids.
Phillips, J. B., Mason.
Poncher, W. R., Morenci.
Prentiss, Sarah, Bay City.
Probasco, H. O., Muir.
Proctor, C. S., Romeo.
Rebec, Geo., Ann Arbor.
Replogle, I. Bernice, Cadillac.
Rice, J., Saginaw.
Rigley, Louis E., Owosso.
Rigley, Chas. E., Owosso.
Ring, Mara E., Saginaw.
Ripley, Anna, W. Saginaw.
Rivers, W. W., Columbia.
Roberts, A. C., Ann Arbor.
Roberts, Mrs. A. C., Ann Arbor.
Roberts, Libbie, Owosso.
Robinson, Mrs. W. D., Detroit,
Rodgers, R. M., Adrian.
Rohnert, L. E., Detroit.
Romaine, S. E., Detroit.
Roat, Miss C. M., Detroit.
Rose, Anna, W. Saginaw.
Rosenberry, Chas. C., Bay City.
Sales, Miss, Detroit.
Saunders, Belle, Detroit.
Schafer, W. C., Baraga.
Schafer, Mrs. W. C., Baraga.
Scheffield, J. H., Muskegon.
Schenck, Geo. H., Elsie.
Schenck, Mrs. M. E., Elsie.
Schroepple, E. H., South Haven.
Scott, Chas., Holland.
Scott, H. M., Detroit.
Siggins, Mrs. Wm., Detroit.
Skinner, Miss N. M., Detroit.
Skinner, Mrs. E. C., Detroit.
Skinner, Genie, Detroit.
Slayton, Mrs. M. F., Grand Haven.
Slayton, Florence M., Grand Haven.
Slocum, Gaylord, Kalamazoo.
Smith, Ella, Fenton.
Stebbins, Carrie, Cooper.
Stevenson, Miss L. A., Detroit.
Stewart, Frances L., Ypsilanti.
Stewart, J. A., Port Huron.
Stickney, Alary, Marshall.
Stopleton, J. L., Detroit.
Stringham, Nellie, Battle Creek.
Strong, E. A., Ypsilanti.
Tillotson, Mrs. C. J., Hillsdale.
Tobey, Miss N. M., Battle Creek.
Thomas, M. E., Lansing.
Thompson, O. D., Romeo.

MICHIGAN—Concluded.

Thompson, Emma, Detroit.
Tressler, A. W., Marine City.
Tumer, May, Saginaw.
Van Deusen, R. H., Elsie.
Van Deusen, R. G., Elsie.
Van Warner, L. H., Elsie.
Walker, E. V., Adrian.
Walker, Jessie L., Adrian.
Walkins, A. L., Detroit.
Watts, R. A., Adrian.
Watts, Mrs. R. A., Adrian.
Watson, Nellie, Detroit.
Wells, C. J., Battle Creek.
Wheelock, Mrs. Sarah B., St. Johns.
Wheelock, Ellen B., St. Johns.
Whitney, M. A., Ypsilanti.
Wilcox, Carrie L., Detroit.
Wilkins, Sarah S., Bay City.
Willets, C. J., St. Louis.
Willets, Mrs. C. J., St. Louis.
Williams, Emma, Detroit.
Williams, May, Detroit.
Wilson, Miss Lois, Paw Paw.
Wilson, Jennie C., Atlas.
Wilson, Mary E., Flint.
Wines, L. D., Ann Arbor.
Wines, Mrs. L. D., Ann Arbor—2.
Winter, Jessie, Detroit.
Witter, Mrs. Frank, Lawrence.
Wood, Miss M. E., Detroit.
Yerkes, Mellie D., Ypsilanti.
Young, C., Detroit.

—*Michigan, 285.*

MINNESOTA.

Bradley, Jno. E., Minneapolis.
Campbell, E. E., Spring Valley.
Carman, G. N., St. Paul.
Carman, Mrs. G. N., St. Paul.
Carvill, R. D., Minneapolis.
Carvill, Mrs. R. D., Minneapolis.
Cranston, J. A., Wadena.
Cranston, Mrs. J. A., Wadena.
Cross, C. H., Albert Lea.
Curtis, C. C., Minneapolis.
DeCouisins, Mrs., St. Cloud.
Denfeld, R. E., Duluth.
Dolan, Chas., Redwing.
Ellis, Marguerite, Austin.
Elmer, E. S., Winona.
Elmer, Frances, Winona.
Faddis, P. P., Minneapolis.
Falconer, J. W., Minneapolis.
Falconer, Mrs. J. W., Minneapolis.
Farr, Sarah, Minneapolis.
Fife, D. L., Minneapolis.
Fife, Mrs. Mary E., Minneapolis.
Furrow, S. M., Minneapolis.
Galbreath, L. H., Winona.
Gaylord, Mary, Stillwater.
Giesse, M., Winona.
Harrington, W. H., Winona.
Harris, Ada V., Duluth.
Hartigan, Jno. A., St. Paul.
Inglis, M. F., Winona.
Jones, L. H., Indianapolis.
Keys, Miss M., Winona.
Kiehle, D. L., St. Paul.
Knott, Laura A., St. Cloud.
McCutchen, May R., Winona.
Morgan, France E., Winona.
Morgan, S. W., Winona.
Muckey, Mrs. F. S., Minneapolis.
Needham, M., St. Paul.
Pringle, Wm. J., Northfield.
Ross, Fred. C., Winona.
Searing, Edward, Mankato.
Shepard, Irwin, Winona.
Sould, Maude, Stillwater.
Strayer, Emma, Winona.
Swain, Mrs. S. G., Winona.
Swain, Josephine, Winona.
Thompson, Hugh, Winona.
Thompson, Miss N., St. Cloud.
Trevett, Emma L., Minneapolis.
Wagner, C. W., Madison.
Wasson, V. R., Wells.
White, Floy, Sabula.
Wilkins, Frankie A., St. Cloud.
Willis, Jennie, Winona.

—*Minnesota, 54.*

MISSISSIPPI.

Archer, S., Greenville.
Archer, Alice, Greenville.
Bardwell, Carrie, Starkville.
Barksdale, Stella, Coffeeville.
Bixby, Joseph P., Vicksburg.
Buckley, Anna, Jackson.
Campbell, Mrs. C. C., Jackson.
Coman, Rebecca, Iuka.
Frazer, Robert, Columbus.
Frazer, Mrs. Robert, Columbus.
Fry, H. J., Canton.
Garner, Miss C. H., Canton.
Govan, Elsie, Macomb City.
Gwinner, H., Starkville.
Hairston, Pattie, Columbus.
Harris, Laura, Columbus.
Hogan, F. L., Starkville.
Hunter, Idalette, Jackson.
Johnson, O. M., Clinton.
Lampkin, Evans E., Starkville
Lake, R. P., Jackson.
Lewis, Mrs. M. A., Jackson.
Lipscomb, Dabney, Starkville.
Lipscomb, Mrs. Dabney, Starkville.
Mims, Mrs. R. B., Chrystal Springs.
Mims, Anna J., Chrystal Springs.
Montgomery, Evelyn, Starkville.
Preston, J. R., Jackson.

MISSISSIPPI—CONCLUDED.

Riley, F. L., Hebron.
Sherrod, Ella, Columbus.
Sherrod, Sarah, Columbus.
Terrell, C. D., Chrystal Springs.
Terrall, Lala, Chrystal Springs.
Tucker, Rosa Lee, Jackson.
Wiens, Mrs. A. G., Meridian.
Williams, Mrs. C. C., Meridian.
—*Mississippi, 36.*

MISSOURI.

Alden, Jennie, Kidder.
Armstrong, Irene, Kansas City.
Arnold, Denham, St. Louis.
Bahlmann, W. F., Independence.
Baker, Miss N., Cameron.
Bannon, Sue O., Jefferson City.
Barnes, Josephine, Memphis.
Beckwith, Lillie, Charleston.
Beckwith, Ollie, Charleston.
Beery, Mrs. A. F., Kansas City.
Behan, Julia M., Kansas City.
Bernard, Fanny, Richmond.
Billmeyer, G. M., Chillicothe.
Booth, Mrs. R. T., Jefferson City.
Blanton, J. P., Columbia.
Blanton, Mrs. J. P., Columbia.
Blow, Susan E., St. Louis.
Bridgeford, Mrs. C. G., Kansas City.
Bridwell, Ida, Charleston.
Brouster, Annie, St. Louis.
Brown, Mrs. Amanda J., Kansas City.
Bryan, Ethel, Carthage.
Bryant, Wm. M., Webster Grove.
Buchanan, Jno. T., Kansas City.
Buchanan, Mrs. J. T., Kansas City.
Buchanan, R. R., Kansas City.
Buchanan, Mrs. R. R., Kansas City.
Carter, Maude, Appleton City.
Caster, Adele, Memphis.
Cave, Lutie, Mexico.
Connoway, J. W., Columbia.
Clark, Anna L., Nevada.
Clay, Maggie, Pleasant Hill.
Clements, W. R., Louisiana.
Cliff, Fannie H., St. Joseph.
Crouch, Sallie E., La Grange.
Cunningham, Inez, Memphis.
Curtis, Nellie, St. Louis.
Cutler, Mollie, Warrensburg.
Dailey, Mollie, Columbia.
Davis, J. W., Kansas City.
Davis, Kate, Richmond.
Dodd, E. E., Carthage.
Douglas, Belle, Windsor.
Deal, E. J., Charleston.
Deal, Mrs. E. J., Charleston.
DeMasters, Effie, Richmond.
Detterbeck, Laura T., St. Louis.
Estes, Fannie, Columbia.
Ferguson, Marie, Fayette.
Fisher, Laura, St. Louis.
Fletcher, Fannie, Webster Grove.
Fox, Ellen, Kansas City.
Frouchte, A. C., St. Louis.
Garth, Mary, Columbia.
Gass, Alma, Jefferson City.
Gibbs, Delia, St. Louis.
Gilchrist, Maggie H., Kansas City.
Gill, Bevie, Kansas City.
Gill, Eliza C., Kansas City.
Greenwood, J. M., Kansas City.
Greenwood, Mrs. J. M., Kansas City.
Guitar, W. H., Columbia.
Hackett, Ellen, Kansas City.
Hackett, Jennie, Kansas City.
Hamilton, Nannie O., Columbia.
Hanaday, W. F., Chillicothe.
Harris, Belle, Chillicothe.
Harvey, N. A., Kansas City.
Hastain, Cecelia, Appleton City.
Hawk, Allie, Lucerne.
Hayes, Almira, Kansas City.
Heermans, Josephine, Kansas City.
Henry, Carrie, Independence.
Henry, Mattie, Hamilton.
Hillrouse, Nellie, Warrensburg.
Hitch, R. M., Kansas City.
Hoffmann, B. F., Columbia.
Hoffmann, Mrs. Charlotte, St. Louis.
Hoffman, Jennie, Sedalia.
Horton, J. C., Kansas City.
Horton, Mrs. J. C., Kansas City.
Houston, Geo. M., Harrisonville.
Houston, Anna, Harrisonville.
Howe, Geo. H., Warrensburg.
Hunter, Alma, Gallatin.
Hurt, H. H., Kansas City.
Jackson, Fannie J., Kansas City.
Jaudon, Thomas P., Kansas City.
Jesse, R. H., Columbia.
Johnson, Fannie, Mexico.
Jones, Jas. W., Liberty.
Kelley, Birdie, Carollton.
Klein, Jas., Appleton City.
Lee, Lillian, St. Louis.
Leslie, J. G., Jefferson City.
Lobb, Gertrude, Kansas City.
Long, E. H., St. Louis.
Long, Mrs. E. H., St. Louis.
Lorton, R., Kansas City.
Mann, Miss S. R., Jefferson City.
Mathews, Laura, Columbia.
Mathews, Lucy, Columbia.
McCullough, Mary C., St. Louis.
McIntire, Mrs. Sarah, St. Louis.
McIntyre, Nellie, St. Louis.
McKinney, J. J., High Point.
McNeeley, T. E., Shawneetown.
McNeill, I. C., Kansas City.
McNeill, Mrs I. C., Kansas City.
Medbury, Alice, Kansas City.
Michael, Max M., Louisiana.

MISSOURI—CONCLUDED.

Milligan, Miss S. J., Webster Grove.
Mitchell, Maria, Kansas City.
Morehead, Sallie, Salisbury.
Morgan, A. R., Memphis.
Murphey, Geo. T., St. Louis
Murphy, Mary E., St. Louis.
Myers, Stella, Carthage.
Northcutt, Mary L., Kansas City.
Norton, R. C., Cape Girardeau.
Orr, H. C., St. Louis.
Outen, J. T., Morrisville.
Osborn, Geo. L., Warrensburg.
Page, Sulta, Richmond.
Parks, E. A., Louisiana.
Parks, Mrs. E. A., Louisiana.
Parks, Lily I., St. Louis.
Patton, Lucy, Richmond.
Patton, Jennie, Richmond.
Phillips, Ella, Kansas City.
Poorman, Mrs. J. B., St. Louis.
Prather, P. D., Columbia.
Prentis, H. W., St. Louis.
Pritchard, Mattie, Jamison.
Purcell, Helena, Kansas City.
Ramey, Maria, Kansas City.
Ramey, Mildred, Kansas City.
Richmond, H. M., St. Joseph.
Riley, Mrs. T. E., St. Louis.
Ritcher, Frances, St. Joseph.
Rives, Juanita, Columbia.
Robbins, D. S., Chillicothe.
Robbins, C. W., Sedalia.
Robins, Mrs. D. S., Sedalia.
Robinson, Temple B., Paris.
Root, Mary, St. Louis.
Rule, Sue Eva, Louisiana.
Russell, Belle G., Charleston.
Shackleford, B. G., Richmond.
Sheetz, Ed. R., Chillicothe.
Smith, Annie L., Jefferson City.
Smith, Bettie, Fayette.
Spalding, Frank C., Kansas City.
Spencer, Kate, Kansas City.
Stark, Mrs. W. P., Louisiana.
Stecher, Wm. A., St. Louis.
Steele, E. K., Holden.
Steele, S. E., Westport.
Steinberg, Eva Z., Kansas City.
Stokes, J. S., Columbia.
Stone, Sallie C., Chillicothe.
Stosberg, Emma, Sedalia.
Strong, F., St. Joseph.
Stumberg, Chas. H., St. Charles.
Tharpe, F. D., Kansas City.
Theilman, Louis, Appleton City.
Theilman, G. A., Appleton City.
Theilman, Emil, Appleton City.
Theilman, Bertha, Kingston.
Thompson, M. E., St. Louis.
Tichenor, John, Kansas City.
Tinsley, Mattie, Louisiana.
Toms, Laura E., St. Louis.
Tumbaugh, J. O., Liberty.
Turner, Marie T., St. Louis.
Van Arsdale, Mrs. M. E., St. Louis.
Van Meter, Sadie, Kansas City.
Victor, Adolph, Columbia.
Vivion, Ada C., Columbia.
Walker, Bettie, Kansas City.
Ware, Mary E., Kansas City.
Warner, Mary E., Kansas City.
Welles, Anna A., St. Joseph.
Whitaker, Elizabeth, Marshall.
White, J. N., Jefferson City.
Wiggenhorn, Mrs. C. P., St. Louis.
Wilderman, Etta, Minden Mines.
Witten, Tompie, Chillicothe.
Wolfe, L. E., Jefferson City.
Woodress, Kate, Edinburgh.

—*Missouri, 189.*

MONTANA.

Danks, C. W., Great Falls.
Fowles, F. H., Helena.
Gilchrist, Mary P., Great Falls.
Harley, Miss M. E., Helena.
Harmon, W. E., Bozeman.
Ladd, Miss N. M., Great Falls.
Paxton, E. E., Butte.
Priestley, Emily, Ft. Benton.
Young, R. G., Helena.

—*Montana, 9.*

NEBRASKA.

Adams, Edna, Plattsmouth.
Alden, Mrs. Mary L., Aurora.
Allison, Hattie, Beatrice.
Andrews, C., Nebraska City.
Arnot, S. P., Sterling.
Ayres, A. T., Omaha.
Banker, Lizzie L., Omaha.
Barnes, Myrtle, Weeping Water.
Barr, Robert J., Grand Island.
Bateman, S. J., Grand Island.
Birss, M. Evelyn, Peru.
Bischof, Eda, Nebraska City.
Bronner, J. L., Palmer.
Brooks, Etta, Lincoln.
Brown, Adaline L., Fremont.
Buncher, Kate M., Lincoln.
Bunconson, H. B., Lincoln.
Canfield, J. H., Lincoln.
Cary, C. P., Fairbury.
Case, F. B., Grand Island.
Chaplin, H. L., Geneva.
Cole, E. E., Grand Island.
Coleman, Adele, Lincoln.
Corbett, Henry R., York.
Corbett, Virginia, York.
Cornell, A. H., Lincoln.
Cornell, N. M., Lincoln.
Cook, Andrew, Tecumseh.

NEBRASKA—CONCLUDED.

Copson, R. E., Omaha.
Cowles, Mrs. F. W., Nebraska City.
Currier, A. T., Crete.
Currier, Mrs. A. T., Crete.
Currier, Eva M., Crete.
Currier, Ora B., Crete.
Cushman, Charles H., Omaha.
Daniels, Edward, Omaha.
Donaldson, J. C., Beatrice.
Duffett, Mrs. F., Beatrice.
Fair, Jennie E., Omaha.
Farnham, George L., Peru.
Finnegan, Ella, Eldorado.
Finney, Minnie L., Fairbury.
Fitzpatrick, Frank A., Omaha.
Flor, E. S., Valley.
Flor, Mrs. E. S., Valley.
Fowler, W. R., Scribner.
Fowler, Mrs. W. K., Scribner.
Franklin, E. S., York.
Franklin, Mrs. E. S., York.
Francis, John, Omaha.
Frice, C. H., Omaha.
Gere, Laura, Beatrice.
Gleason, Mrs. J. F., Holmesville.
Hall, Jennie, Beatrice.
Harris, Miss H. L., Central City.
Hoag, Katie, Grand Island.
Hogan, Mrs. Nannie, Ainsworth.
Hopkins, Miss, Crete,
Hurford, Maud, Grand Island.
James, Henry M., Omaha.
Jones, Mrs. Kate, Pawnee City.
Lee, Kittie, Eldorado.
Lemon, Daisy, Omaha.
Lemon, Minnie, Omaha.
Lewis, Homer P., Omaha.
Lewis, Mrs. Homer P., Omaha.
Mathew, John, Grand Island.
McBren, J. L., Tecumseh.
McCarthy, Margaret, Omaha.
McCheane, Sarah M., Omaha.
McClelland, M., Plattsburgh.
McClelland, F. C., Plattsburgh.
Merrill, Mrs. B. M., Nebraska City.
Miller, H. C., Grand Island.
Miller, Mrs. H. C., Grand Island.
Miller, Hudson, Fullerton.
Miller, Mrs. Hudson, Fullerton.
Miller, J. H., Lincoln.
Morgan, Eliza C., Peru.
Murke, Henry, Nebraska City.
Nettleton, Mrs. E. G., McCook.
Okey, Maria, Omaha.
Palmer, Allene, Lincoln.
Pearse, C. G., Beatrice.
Peckham, Mrs. N. T., Pawnee City.
Peckham, Emma, Pawnee City.
Pentzer, J. C., Lincoln.
Pentzer, Jennie, Lincoln.
Pfeiffer, Laura, York.
Quackenbush, Miss M. E., Omaha.
Rakestraw, C. D., Nebraska City.
Rakestraw, Mrs. C. D., Nebraska City.
Rea, H. D., Holdredge.
Richardson, J. P., Grand Island.
Robertson, Mary, Beatrice.
Rolph, S. F., Fullerton.
Rolph, Mrs. S. F., Fullerton.
Roys, Lucy J., Omaha.
Schrader, Lottie, Holmesville.
Shepherd, J. E., Omaha.
Shepherd, Mrs. J. E., Omaha.
Skinner, W. H., Crete.
Smalley, Edith, Beatrice.
Smith, Miss, Crete.
Spink, Maynard, Grand Island.
Sprague, E., Orleans.
Stobbton, J. K., Lexington.
Strock, Anna K., Peru.
Strong, I. L., Holdredge.
Sudborough, Mrs. Grace C., Omaha.
Thompson, E. E., Grand Island.
Thompson, Ida L., Grand Island.
Tibbetts, Emma, Lincoln.
Webster, O. E., Beatrice.
Webster, Mrs. M. E., Beatrice.
Wheatley, Emma, Omaha.
Whitman, Helen L., Lincoln.
Wieferich, Fred., Hickman.
Wightman, A. R., University Place.
Wirt, G. W., York.
Wirt, Mary E., York.
Wirt, Lulu E., York.
Withnell, R. N., Omaha.
Withnell, Mrs. R. N., Omaha.
Withnell, Libbie, Omaha.
Wolfe, Thomas, David City.

—*Nebraska, 126.*

NEW BRUNSWICK.

Inch, J. R., Fredericton.

—*New Brunswick, 1.*

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Cook, Ella M., Nashua.
Hooper, Mrs. Emily J., Exeter.
Rounds, C. C., Plymouth.
Rounds, Mrs. C. C., Plymouth.
Wentworth, Geo. A., Exeter.

—*New Hampshire, 5.*

NEW JERSEY.

Allen, Milton H., Medford.
Augustus, J., Elizabeth.
Benard, Rosalie, Manasquan.
Benard, Ada, Manasquan.
Bosworth, Miss M. A., Trenton.
Bulkley, Miss J. E., Plainfield.
Butler, Nicholas M., Paterson.
Butler, Mrs. N. M., Paterson.

NEW JERSEY—Concluded.

Carr, Elias F., Trenton.
Chandler, F., Asbury Park.
Davey, V. L., East Orange.
Davis, E. R., Jersey City.
Denison, Sadie, Lyndhurst.
Dunnell, Anna C., Bloomfield.
Ely, Sarah Y., Trenton.
Farley, D. H., Clinton.
Farley, Mrs. D. H., Clinton.
Farley, M. M., Clinton.
Farley, R. B., Clinton.
Green, J. M., Trenton.
Green, Mrs. J. M., Trenton.
Hewling, Mary L., Marlton.
Holloway, M. E., Camden.
Hutton, H. H., Passaic.
MacVicker, J. G., Montclair.
McCallum, Christine, Clarendon.
Mathews, D. H., Orange.
Mathews, B. C., Newark.
Matlack, Anna H., Moorestown.
Matthews, H. M., Orange.
Matthews, M. Alice, Orange.
Maxson, H. M., Plainfield.
Messler, Frances, ———
Minihan, Julia A., Jersey City.
Moore, D. Wilson, Clayton.
Oborski, Florian, Paterson.
Paddock, M. H., Jersey City.
Perdue, Mary E., East Orange.
Poland, A. B., Trenton.
Powell, E. M., Camden.
Powell, W. F., Camden.
Price, P. S., Hackettstown.
Pullen, Blanch, Trenton.
Pullen, Isabell, Trenton.
Ralston, J. M., Asbury Park.
Ramsdice, W. C., Jersey City.
Ryan, G. G., New Brunswick.
Scarlett, Aug., Newark.
Scarlett, Mrs. S. B., Newark.
Scarlett, Anna, Newark.
Searle, Emma, ———
Skinner, A. H., Hackettstown.
Slattery, W. J., Paterson.
Southard, Elizabeth A., Griggstown.
Spaulding, Randall, Montclair.
Spaulding, Mrs. R., Montclair.
Stephens, G. H., Princeton.
Stiger, Louise W., Asbury Park.
Stoley, Jno. M., New Brunswick.
Sweeney, W. S., Jersey City.
Twichell, W. S., Paterson.
Wakeman, Jotham W., Jersey City.
Wilbur, Lloyd, Hightstown.
Williamson, Mrs. B., Elizabeth.
Wright, Wm. R., Trenton.

—New Jersey, 65.

NEW MEXICO.

Driscoll, W. M., Socorro.
Hadley, Hiram, Las Cruces.
Jones, Ida M., Las Cruces.
Mallette, J. R., Albuquerque.
Mallette, Mrs. J. R., Albuquerque.

—New Mexico, 5.

NEW YORK.

Abbott, Kittie F., Johnstown.
Abernathy, J. W., Brooklyn.
Adams, Anna H., Clifton Springs.
Adams, Miss M. J., W. Alma.
Adams, C. Gussie, Saratoga.
Ahearn, Maggie, Saratoga.
Alcott, Alice, Port Chester.
Aldridge, Belle V., Flatbush.
Aldridge, Vincent, Brooklyn.
Allen, C. E., Marion.
Allen, Jno. E., Saratoga.
Allen, Jno. G., Rochester.
Allen, Mrs. E. N., Brooklyn.
Ames, D. T., New York.
Amigh, Henry, New York.
Anderson, Jno. J., Brooklyn.
Andrews, Oren, Townsend.
Andrus, Jessie, Saratoga.
Angell, Helen E., Frankfort.
Ashley, E. E., Troy.
Ashley, E. D., Troy.
Ashley, H., Saratoga.
Archer, Mrs. John, Rome.
Armaynce, A., New York.
Armstrong, Geo. P., Bay Shore.
Armstrong, Ella, Shushan.
Atwood, Geo. P., Tarrytown.
Atwood, Mrs. G. E., Tarrytown.
Axtell, F. Josephine, Middleburg.
Babcock, Miss I. M., Lawrence.
Backus, L. G., Rome.
Bacon, E. A., Oneonta.
Bagg, Hattie C., Bemis Heights.
Bailey, Mary E., Ft. Ann.
Balch, Geo. T., New York.
Baldwin, W. A., Ithaca.
Ball, Martha A., Cooperstown.
Ballard, W. J., Jamaica.
Banks, C. M., Sea Cliff.
Barber, L. B., Dormansville.
Barbour, Sara C., Ballston Spa.
Bardeen, C. W., Syracuse.
Bardwell, Darwin L., Cortland.
Barhit, Jared, Long Island.
Barnes, C. T., Sauquoit.
Barr, W. J., Batavia.
Barron, Maud K., Johnstown.
Barrows, Marion E. H., Flushing.
Bartlett, E. Seely, Kendaia.
Bartlett, A. A., Warsaw.
Bassett, J. Anthony, Richfield Springs.
Bates, I. H., New York.
Bavalt, L. A., New York.
Beals, Frederick, Oneonta.

NEW YORK—CONTINUED.

Beals, E. E., Oneonta.
Beals, Mrs. E. E., Oneonta.
Beardsley, E. J., Elmira.
Beardsley, Mrs. E. J., Elmira.
Beathup, Frank D., N. Y.
Beattie, Carrie A., Salem.
Beauchamp, Ellen, Baldwinsville.
Beaudry, Miss P. E., Lansingburgh.
Becker, Maria T., Poughkeepsie.
Beeher, John R., Richmondville.
Beers, Jessica E., Buffalo.
Begley, Maggie G., Brooklyn.
Belknap, Emmet, Lockport.
Benedict, W. H., Elmira.
Benedict, A. G., Clinton.
Benham, N. L., Niagara Falls.
Benjamin, Geo. H., Albany.
Bennett, Delia M., Tarrytown.
Bergen, Kate A., Jamaica.
Bermingham, Jennie, N. Y.
Bigelow, J. D., Moravia.
Blackwell, C. G., N. Y.
Blodgett, A. B., Syracuse.
Blodgett, Mrs. F. E., Syracuse.
Blood, Anna P., Mt. Vernon.
Bobrick, G. A., N. Y.
Bogert, Clara I., Albany.
Bonta, I. L., Amsterdam.
Bosworth, Wm. S., N. Y.
Bourne, Abbie A., Spencerport.
Boyton, F. D., Webster.
Boyton, Mrs. F. D., Webster.
Brace, Chas. T., LeRoy.
Briggs, Ella M., N. Y.
Brook, Jennie B., Elmira.
Brooks, Miss A., N. Y.
Brooks, Jennie B., Elmira.
Brower, C. G., W. New Brighton.
Brower, Mrs. C. G., W. New Brighton.
Brown, S. Reed, St. Johnsville.
Brown, Mrs. L. I., Syracuse.
Brown, M. Augusta, N. Y.
Brown, Eunice H., Verona Mills.
Brownell, Harriet, Shushan.
Brua, Helen, Rushford.
Brust, Laura J., Center Brunswick.
Buell, Mary L., Schenectady.
Bugbe, P. T., Oneonta.
Buker, Eva F., Flushing.
Bull, N. N., Oneonta.
Bull, Harriet E., Buffalo.
Burdick, A. Hall, Stapleton.
Burdick, Miss M. L., Albany.
Burnett, C. R., N. Y.
Burnett, Sarah F., Tarrytown.
Burritt, D. H., Rochester.
Bushnell, Harriet, Bath.
Butler, Hattie E., Albany.
Burnz, Eliza B., N. Y.
Callahan, Julia A., Saratoga Springs.
Callahan, Mary E., Charlton.
Cammeron, Lucy E., Warsaw.
Campbell, Miss E., Caledonia.
Campbell, Miss F. A., Caledonia.
Capen, Frank S., New Paltz.
Carlton, Martha L., W. Chazy.
Carmel, Lottie, Attica.
Carmer, W. G., Lyons.
Carnell, Jno. R., Albany.
Carr, W. H., Madrid.
Carter, Mary A. E., N. Y.
Carter, Fannie, Troy.
Cary, J. H., Richfield Springs.
Carvey, D. C., Montgomery.
Cass, Levi, Albany.
Cass, Mrs. L., Albany.
Cass, Miss A. L., Schenectady.
Cassatt, G. M., N. Y.
Cassety, James M., Buffalo.
Chalmers, Frances, Perth.
Chalmers, Mary J., Perth.
Chamberlain, Nina, Saratoga.
Chamberlain, Kate, Sandy Creek.
Chamberlain, Lottie, Jonesville.
Chandler, Jno. W., Jordan.
Cheetham, J. E., Canton.
Cheney, F. J., Cortland.
Cheney, Mrs. F. J., Cortland.
Cheney, Lyman A., N. Y.
Christie, S. N., Poughkeepsie.
Clancy, Mary, Schuylerville.
Clapp, B. G., Fulton.
Clark, Sophia A., Syracuse.
Clark, Sarah, Perry.
Clark, E. M. H., W. Chazy.
Cline, C. M., Amenia.
Clute, Mary E., Fullers.
Cobb, Chas. N., Oneonta.
Coburn, Mrs. Parley, Elmira.
Cocks, Mary A., Cornwall.
Colby, Eugene C., Rochester.
Colden, Miss E. C., Newburgh.
Cole, J. W., Troy.
Cole, Chas. W., Albany.
Cole, Frances A., Albany.
Coley, Sarah E., N. Y.
Comings, Fannie S., Brooklyn.
Consalus, M. E., W. Charlton.
Cook, E. H., Flushing.
Cook, Mattie J., Waterford.
Coons, C., Binghamton.
Cory, L. B., N. Y.
Coswell, T. A., Little Falls.
Cotton, Mary E., Perry.
Cover, B. F., Saratoga.
Coyriere, Mrs. E. Miriam, N. Y.
Cramer, A. W., Cazenovia.
Crane, Adella E., Elmira.
Crane, Julia Etta, Potsdam.
Crawford, E. J., N. Y.
Crawford, A. E., N. Y.
Crawford, Frances M., Cohoes.
Crisp, Henry M., N. Y.
Crombie, Jno. S., Brooklyn.
Cross, E. B., Syracuse.
Cullen, James, Middle Village.

NEW YORK—CONTINUED.

Cullen, Jeanie F., Albany.
Curtis, Clara E., Camden.
Cussack, James, Brooklyn.
Daily, Mrs. F. S., Adams.
Daley, Helen A., N. Y.
Daley, Charlotte F., N. Y.
Dandaran, Mrs. M., Greenbush.
Danforth, Halsey J., N. Y.
Davies, Mrs. Clara, N. Y.
Davis, Miss M. J., Albany.
Davy, Minnie, North Bay.
Denton, Elizabeth B., N. Y.
Dewey, Chas. O., Binghamton.
Dewey, Melvil, Albany.
Dewey, Mary Beaufort, Saratoga Springs.
De Voy, M. E., Camden.
Dickson, Myrtie M., Jamestown.
Dolph, J. M., Port Jervis.
Dolphin, John, Auburn.
Dolphin, Mrs. J., Auburn.
Dolphin, Lora A., Auburn.
Dommick, D. C., Walden.
Doolittle, Mabel, Schuylersville.
Douglas, Henry, Norwood.
Downing, A. S., Palmyra.
Downer, Mrs. F. W., N. Y.
Dumond, N. H., N. Tarrytown.
Dumond, Mrs. N. H., N. Tarrytown.
Dunham, Mrs. Geo. H., N. Y.
Dunham, Helen, N. Y.
Dunston, Nellie T., Buffalo.
Dunston, Helen L., Buffalo.
Dunston, Lucy, Buffalo.
Dwyer, Jno., N. Y.
Dwyer, Mrs. Jno., N. Y.
Dyer, Mary J., Rochester.
Eggenberger, James, Dolgeville.
Eggenberger, Mrs. James, Dolgeville.
Elgas, Mathew J., N. Y.
Eldredge, Helen M., Johnstown.
Ellis, M. H., Brooklyn.
Emerson, Helen, Saratoga.
Erwin, Kate A., N. Y.
Erwin, Anna, Albany.
Esselstyn, Miss F. C., Mellenville.
Estee, J. A., Gloversville.
Ettis, James P., Rochester.
Evans, Mrs. M., N. Y.
Fairchild, Jennie, Oneonta.
Falconer, Alexander, Stillwell.
Farrell, E. D., New York.
Farrell, Elizabeth L., N. Y.
Farlless, Adeline W., N. Y.
Fenn, Ida J., Schenectady.
Fenton, Geo., Broadalbin.
Fenton, Mrs. Geo., Broadalbin.
Ferguson, A. C., Saratoga.
Ferguson, Mrs. A. C., Saratoga.
Ferguson, Mrs. Clara, Brooklyn.
Ferguson, Anna, Schenectady.
Filkins, Carrie E., Burn.
Fitzgerald, Alice, Brooklyn.
Fitzgerald, Eugenia, Brooklyn.
Fitzgibbons, W. L., Brooklyn.
Fleming, Mary A., Buffalo.
Flynn, Alice, Clyde.
Foley, E. H., Louisville.
Foote, W. Y., Syracuse.
Forbes, Susie, Waterford.
Forbes, Harriet, Liberty.
Ford, P. C., Saratoga.
Ford, Agnes H., Syracuse.
Ford, Celia, Syracuse.
Forward, Emma E., Blossvale.
Forward, Emma, Blossvale.
Fosdick, F. S., Buffalo.
Foster, S. C., Ithaca.
Foster, Charlotte, Ithaca.
Foster, Miss M. M., N. Y.
Foster, Nettie S., Warsaw.
Freeman, A. A., Cortland.
French, H. B., Albany.
French, Geo. W., Brooklyn.
French, Mrs. Geo. W., Brooklyn.
Friedburg, Wm. B., New York.
Fuller, Alma A., N. Y.
Gaines, C. C., Poughkeepsie.
Gardner, Emma J., Camden.
Gardner, L., N. Y.
Gardnier, Sarah, Charlton.
Galusha, Fannie M., Cortland.
Galusha, Annie M., Cortland.
Gibbs, M. L., N. Y.
Gibson, Sarah E., Albany.
Gick, Frank, Saratoga Springs.
Gick, Jolin, Saratoga Springs.
Gifford, Europa D., Johnsonville.
Gildersleeve, R. B., Stapleton.
Gilgore, Mary, Perth Center.
Glennie, A. J., Bolivar.
Goddard, Caroline J., Cohoes.
Gordon, W. E., Patchogue.
Gorton, Chas. E., Yonkers.
Graybiel, Sara N., Buffalo.
Graybiel, Adelide, Buffalo.
Greene, J. A., N. Y.
Gunnison, W. B., Brooklyn.
Guylford, J. B., Elmira.
Hall, Mary F., Spencer.
Hall, Esther S., Elmira.
Hallenbeck, Wm. S., Hudson.
Halpen, Anna M., Albany.
Halsted, O. W., Lockport.
Hamilton, E. J., Oswego.
Haney, Emma J., Seneca Falls.
Hardy, Geo. E., N. Y.
Harrington, Miss M. L., Troy.
Harris, Edwin S., Catskill.
Harris, Mabel L., Schuylersville.
Harris, Wm. N., Gansevoort.
Harrison, H. B., Borden.
Harrison, W. B., N. Y.
Harrison, Mrs. W. B., N. Y.
Harrison, M. Beatrice, Brooklyn.
Hartnett, Nora, Waterford.
Hasbrook, E. P., Syracuse.

NEW YORK—CONTINUED.

Hasbrook, Mrs. E. P., Syracuse.
Haskin, A. R., Poughkeepsie.
Hathaway, Clara R., Yonkers.
Haven, Miss C. T., N. Y.
Hawkins, Eugene P., E. Setauket.
Hawkins, E. J., Buffalo.
Hawkins, Geo. W., E. Setauket.
Hayes, H. E., N. Y.
Hayes, Frances C., Albany.
Haynes, Edna A., Rome.
Haynes, C. H., N. Y.
Hayward, Edward, Lockport.
Hendrik, Willard, Cortland.
Hendry, Victoria, Jamaica.
Henry, Ida M., Cambridge.
Hervey, W. L., N. Y.
Hickey, Kate M., Brooklyn.
Higgins, Eliza, Elmira.
Hillary, Mary, Buffalo.
Hilliard, Helen J., Utica.
Hilliard, Maudane, Utica.
Hodges, Florence E., Saratoga.
Hodges, Clara B., Kings Station.
Hoffley, N. P., Brooklyn.
Hoffman, Paul, N. Y.
Hoffman, Alice E., Buffalo.
Hoffman, Mary W., Buffalo.
Hogan, Susie B., Albany.
Holder, Henrietta, Buffalo.
Hollenbeck, Jessie, Syracuse.
Holmes, Myra, Saratoga.
Holmes, Mary, Saratoga.
Holmes, Frances A., Saratoga Springs.
Holton, Miss M. A., Eaton.
Homer, Mary, Brooklyn.
Homer, Florence, Brooklyn.
Horton, Helen M., Buffalo.
Howard, Miss J. I., N. Y.
Howe, E. J., Pittsford.
Howe, Mary S., Flushing.
Howe, Laura, Maple Valley.
Howland, E. W., Felts Mills.
Howland, Emily, Sherwood.
Howley, Mary A., Buffalo.
Hubbell, C. B., N. Y.
Hueston, Jessie E., Flushing.
Hull, Elizabeth R., Oneonta.
Hulse, P. B., N. Y.
Humphrey, Hattie E., Saratoga Springs.
Hunt, Grace L., Ketchum's Corners.
Hurd, Frances A., Oneonta.
Husted, A. N., Albany.
Hyde, Mary F., Albany.
Hyde, Fanny M., Albany.
Ingalsbe, Myra, Hartford.
Isdell, Ida M., Albany.
Jacobson, M. E., Jamestown.
Jackson, Louise, Marlborough.
Jaques, Lucia A., Ticonderoga.
Jenkins, Lillian M., Saratoga.
Jessel, Henry R., Buffalo.
Jewell, Eva, Deposit.
Jewell, Anna, Deposit.
Johnson, W. D., Morris.
Jones, C. W., N. Y.
Jones, W. V., Albany.
Jones, E. N., Saratoga Springs.
Jones, Anna M., Saratoga.
Jones, Nellie, Albany.
Kane, T. F., Ithaca.
Kellogg, Brainard, Brooklyn.
Kellogg, Amos M., N. Y.
Kellogg, Frances D., Oneonta.
Kellogg, Sarah F., Gansevoort.
Kellogg, Ida M., Elmira.
Kellogg, Antoinette M., Elmira.
Kellogg, Lillian R., Fulton.
Kelsey, D. M., Saratoga.
Kennedy, Wm. F., Rome.
Kennedy, John, Batavia.
Kent, Mary E., Rome.
Keyser, Roland S., Middleburg.
Kilgen, Geo. J., N. Y.
King, J. E., Rochester.
King, Fred D. L., Lawrence Station.
King, Emma A., Ithaca.
King, Alice C., Trumansburg.
Kinne, Candace M., Ilion.
Kinney, W. S., Lyons.
Kinskem, J. W., Deposit.
Kinsley, M. H., Massena.
Kinsley, Alice, Chazy.
Kipp, Oliver B., Saratoga Springs.
Kirkpatrick, Mrs. D. E., Saratoga Springs.
Kittenger, Jennie, Ransomville.
Klein, Alice, Flatbush.
Knapp, F. W., Ithaca.
Kneil, T. R., Saratoga.
Knowles, Miss L. E., Chittenango.
Knox, M. L., N. Y.
Lacey, Hattie A., W. Troy.
Lane, F. H., Babylon.
Lane, Anna, Oneonta.
Lane, Anna, Schenevus.
Lane, Fred. H., Babylon.
Lang, Ossian H., Buffalo.
Langford, Rebecca, Jamestown.
Larkins, Chas. D., Brooklyn.
Larkins, Mrs. C. D., Brooklyn.
Lathrop, N. C., Rochester.
Lawton, I. H., Nyack.
Leach, Orlando, N. Y.
Leach, Mrs. O., N. Y.
Leipziger, Henry M., N. Y.
Leonard, Albert, Dunkirk.
Lester, O. A., Brooklyn.
Lewis, G. A., Syracuse.
Lincoln, S. E., Syracuse.
Littaye, Florence, Booneville.
Littaye, N. J., Booneville.
Livingston, H. W., N. Y.
Lockwood, James B., White Plains.
Lockwood, Mrs. Cora E., White Plains.
Lockwood, Ruth F., Buffalo.
Longstreet, Geo. B., Auburn.
Longstreet, Edith, Auburn.

NEW YORK—CONTINUED.

Loomis, H. H., Waterford.
Lottridge, Silas A., New Berlin.
Lounsbery, Louise A., Randall.
Love, Wm. H., Buffalo.
Lovell, A., N. Y.
Lovell, Thos. B., Attica.
Loveridge, Ruth M., Cuba.
Lukens, M. Frances, Lansingburg.
Lummis, William, New York.
Lyman, Mary, Hume.
Lynch, Nellie A., Elmira.
Lyon, Nettie, W. Troy.
Macdonald, Mason A., New Brighton.
Madden, M. L., Rochester.
Magovere, Mary A., N. Y.
Maguire, Edward, Rushford.
Mainwaring, May, N. Y.
Maitland, Susie F., Cohoes.
Manderville, F. E., Oleon.
Manro, W. D., Fairport.
Marburg, Theodore, Saratoga.
Massee, J. Edward, N. Y.
Matteson, Florence M., Oneonta.
Maxwell, F. B., Ithaca.
Maxwell, Wm. H., Brooklyn.
Mayhew, Caroline, Marcy.
Mayhew, Laura F., Marcy.
McBride, Elizabeth, Geneseo.
McClaskey, Alice G., Saratoga Springs.
McDonald, E. F., Norwood.
McFalls, Alida, Gouverneur.
McFarland, Margaret, Salem.
McHench, Mrs. J., Cobleskill.
McKee, J. M., Silver Creek.
McKee, Jennie T., Silver Creek.
McKenna, Isabel, Buffalo.
McLean, C. D., Brockport.
McMillan, A., Utica.
McMonagle, Carrie E., Montgomery.
McMurray, J. B., Margaretville.
McNeill, Sallie L., Montgomery.
McRae, Mary S., Saratoga.
Mead, Linda V., Oneonta.
Meineke, Miss E. M., N. Y.
Meredith, Kate, Vernon.
Meredith, Frankie, Vernon.
Miller, Chas. M., N. Y.
Miller, Margaret, Montgomery.
Miles, Helen A., Brooklyn.
Miles, Ida L., Greenbush.
Milliken, A. E., Port Henry.
Milne, W. J., Albany.
Milne, John M., Geneseo.
Milne, James M., Oneonta.
Miner, Sara B., Chazy.
Mitchell, Mary, Adams.
Mitchell, Mary A. G., New Rochelle.
Mitchell, C. Estelle, North Bay.
Monks, Elizabeth, Elmira.
Montfort, R. V. K., Newburg.
Mooney, Mrs. M. S., Albany.
Moore, Mrs. Mary Davis, Oswego.
Moore, Lucy P., Lansingburg.
Moore, Clara L., Cobleskill.
Moran, John J., Kingston.
More, Frances C., Salem.
Morehouse, H. L., N. Y.
Morey, Clayton L., Greenwich.
Morgan, May B., Avon.
Morgan, Ruth, Cuba.
Morrissey, Sarah, Dunkirk.
Moss, J. C., Buffalo.
Moss, Mrs. J. C., Buffalo.
Mumford, A. W., Utica.
Mumford, Mrs. A. W., Utica.
Myers, Ada, Adams.
Napier, Mrs. C. F., Brooklyn.
Nelson, Clara A., Auburn.
Nelson, Lillian, Saratoga Springs.
Newbury, M. Louise, Cropseyville.
Newland, Libbie, Stillwater.
Newman, Miss E. A., Buffalo.
Newson, H. D., N. Y.
Nichols, A. P., Adams Center.
North, Edward, Clinton.
North, Mary H., Clinton.
Norton, A. W., Oswego.
Norton, Carrie, Sandy Creek.
Nostrand, N. M., Flushing.
Oakley, Miss M. R., Buffalo.
Oatman, Etta C., Adams.
O'Brien, Miss C. E., N. Y.
O'Connor, Grace, Buffalo.
Olcott, J. M., N. Y.
Olmstead, E. G., Potsdam.
O'Neil, Hugh P., N. Y.
O'Neil, Henry P., N. Y.
O'Neil, Rose M., N. Y.
O'Neill, Kate M., N. Y.
Orr, Miss M. E., N. Y.
Osborn, A. S., Rochester.
Osborn, Abbie, Oswego.
Osborn, Abbie P., Saratoga Springs.
O'Shea, M. V., Leroy.
Osincup, Lena K., Vestal Center.
Overacker, M. L., Syracuse.
Owen, E. J., Ticonderoga.
Packer, E. L., Albany.
Packard, S. S., N. Y.
Packard, Mrs. S. S., N. Y.
Palmer, F. B., Fredonia.
Palmer, Mrs. S. G., Fredonia.
Palmerton, Wilhelmina S., Mamaroneck
Pardee, Sheldon J., Long Island.
Pardo, Carlos, N. Y.
Parks, S. A., Glens Falls.
Parsells, Isabelle, N. Y.
Parsons, J. R., Albany.
Pascal, Miss M., N. Y.
Pateman, Edna E., Brooklyn.
Patton, C. L., N. Y.
Patton, Anna M., Troy.
Payne, Emma H., Brooklyn.
Peabody, Laura J., Holland Patent.
Peabody, Elizabeth G., Palmyra.
Peck, J. W., Fairport.

NEW YORK—CONTINUED.

Peckham, Miss J. E., Chittenango.
Perry, Mrs. A. H., Chittenango.
Perry, Louisa A., Elizabethtown.
Perkins, A. D., Syracuse.
Pierce, W. M., Mayville.
Pierce, E. J., Saratoga.
Pinks, M. E., Port Chester.
Place, F. R., Caledonia.
Plank, C. S., Waddington.
Plimpton, George A., N. Y.
Plough, M. C., North Cohocton.
Pool, Adelaide, Adams.
Post, A. E., Durhamville.
Potter, Belle, Conklingville.
Poulson, Elmer, Brooklyn.
Powers, Elizabeth M., Saratoga Springs.
Powers, Gussie, Hudson.
Pratt, William O., Brooklyn.
Price, Hattie E., Cornwall-on-the-Hudson.
Prote, Anna M., Jonesville.
Pulsifer, W. E., N. Y.
Purdy, Henry S., Brewster.
Purdy, Mattie E., Brewster.
Pye, George W., Palmyra.
Quay, George H., Bath-on-the-Hudson.
Radcliff, Emily H., Oswego.
Ranney, William C., Elbridge.
Ranney, Mrs. W. C., Elbridge.
Reed, A., N. Y.
Reed, Mrs. A., N. Y.
Reese, Cora, Westmoreland.
Reese, Lizzie A., Westmoreland.
Reeve, Charlotte E., Greenport.
Regan, Mrs. E., N. Y.
Remmell, Mrs. G. L., Johnstown.
Rennek, M. B., Geneva.
Rice, J. M., N. Y.
Rice, G. L., Buffalo.
Rice, Emily A., N. Y.
Rich, F. F., LeRoy.
Richardbach, F. A., Rochester.
Richardson, A. S., N. Y.
Richardson, Ella, N. Y.
Rickoff, Mrs. Rebecca D., N. Y.
Ridell, R. R., Hamilton.
Ridell, Mrs. R. R., Hamilton.
Riggs, Miss R. J., Troy.
Riggs, Edith T., Elmira.
Ring, B., N. Y.
Roberts, D., Greene.
Roberts, H. H., Binghamton.
Roberts, Louise, Syracuse.
Robins, L. F., East Albany.
Robinson, Miss S. C., N. Y.
Robinson, Ella, Chittenango.
Robinson, Ida L., South Glens Falls.
Robinson, O. D., Albany.
Roblee, Marion, Canister.
Roblee, Stella, Canister.
Root, Jeanette, Schuylerville.
Rorick, Lizzie M., Middleburg.
Roth, Alice A., Buffalo.
Round, R. J., Elmira.
Rourk, Anna L., Albany.
Rowley, Hattie E., Ketchum's Corners.
Rusk, Rebecca, Marlborough.
Russell, James E., Ithaca.
Russell, Frank D., Ilion.
Russell, Theresa A., Belgium.
Ryan, Fanny M., Fortsville.
Ryan, Isabelle M., Buffalo.
Ryon, Charles M., Kingston.
Sage, A. H., Waterville.
Sage, L. Belle, Norwich.
Sagomarsino, C., N. Y.
Sanders, Ardilla, Albany.
Sandford, Jared, Albany.
Sandford, Mrs. J., Albany.
Salisbury, Mary, Sandy Creek.
Satterlee, E. E., Elmira.
Sawyer, G. F., Carthage.
Sawyer, E. E., Saratoga.
Sawyer, Mrs. E. E., Saratoga.
Schiller, Lina, Flushing.
Schiller, Bianca. Flushing.
Schoonmaker, Kate, Kingston.
Scott, M. W., Binghamton.
Scribner, Julia, Fairport.
Sears, Anna Bess, Montgomery.
Seeley, Mrs. G. B., Rochester.
Seeley, Jessie A., Ballston Spa.
Seely, Chas. D., Brockport.
Sexton, Chandler, N. Y.
Shaffer, M. D., Albany.
Shanley, Anna M., Camden.
Shaw, W. B., Albany.
Shear, S. R., Pulaski.
Shearer, Flora A., N. Y.
Sheldon, Helen M., Ft. Ann.
Sheldon, E. A., Oswego.
Sheldon, Frances A. B., Oswego.
Sheldon, Laura A., Oswego.
Sheldon, Dorliska E., Oswego.
Shepherd, Carrie, Saratoga.
Shepherd, Jennie R., Saratoga.
Sherley, Frederick, Albany.
Shields, Nellie F., Rochester.
Shotwell, W. J., Skaneateles.
Slaught, Mrs. Beatrice H., Brooklyn.
Smith, S. E., Sherrill.
Smith, J. M., S. Glens Falls.
Smith, A. W., Dolgeville.
Smith, Frederick R., Norwood.
Smith, F. E., Sandy Creek.
Smith, H. P., Brooklyn.
Smith, Edward, Syracuse.
Smith, Chas. Sprague, N. Y.
Smith, Ida M., S. Corinth.
Smith, Esther J., Saratoga.
Smith, Olive, Albany.
Smith, S. Ellida, Verona.
Smith, Margaret K., Oswego.
Smyth, Mary Frances, Albany.
Snyder, G. E., E. Carleton.
Speare, Georgina, Johnstown.
Spence, Eliza, Saratoga Springs.

NEW YORK—Concluded.

Spence, Annie M., Saratoga Springs.
Spencer, H. A., N. Y.
Spencer, Carrie, Ithaca.
Spoonmaker, Mary, Newburgh.
Sprague, Josie, S. Butler.
Sprague, Sarah E., Gouverneur.
Sprole, S. E., Syracuse.
Squire, Mary V., Buffalo.
Stearns, W. E., Mohawk.
Stearns, Mrs. W. E., Mohawk.
Steffy, W. K., Elmira.
Steffy, W. K., Elmira.
Stephens, Esther, Mt. Vision.
Stephens, Harriet E., Mt. Vision.
Stetson, Arthur D., Brooklyn.
Stevens, H. E., Bergen.
Stevenson, M. C., N. Y.
Stewart, Clara, Oneonta.
Still, Mrs. M. C., Syracuse.
Stockwell, A. P., Brooklyn.
Stoddard, Ella M., Buffalo.
Stout, I. H., Geneva.
Stout, Mrs. I. H., Geneva.
Stowell, T. B., Potsdam.
Stowits, G. H., Buffalo.
Strachan, Grace C., Buffalo.
Stratton, Geo. H., Arcade.
Stratton, Mrs. Geo. H., Arcade.
Strout, Emma, Brooklyn.
Strong, Otis, Auburn.
Strong, Mrs. C. W., Oneonta.
Strough, P. A., Lafargeville.
Sullivan, Ellen, Albany.
Swartwood, Elizabeth W., Elmira.
Sweet, Mrs. N., Ballston.
Sykes, E. Louise, Ballston.
Taber, Miss S., Buffalo.
Taft, G. A., Potsdam.
Talcott, Ella J., Silver Creek.
Tawson, Anna F., Montgomery.
Taylor, H. L., Canandaigua.
Taylor, Mrs. H. L., Canandaigua.
Taylor, A. J., Rochester.
Taylor, A. N., Westfield.
Taylor, Musette, Adams.
Tebbits, Nellie K., Camden.
Thatcher, Eleanor T., E. Albany.
Thayer, Minnie M., Burnsides.
Thomas, Nancy R., Bath.
Thompson, Sue, Elmira.
Thomson, W. P., Auburn.
Thurston, M. B. H., Buffalo.
Tichenor, M. N., S. Lansing.
Tierney, Agnes L., Sherwood.
Tiffany, M. J., N. Cohocton.
Tifft, W. C., Sandy Creek.
Tilden, F. W., Albion.
Todd, Augusta, Fairport.
Tompkins, Mrs. C. F., Utica.
Tompkins, Lily M., Sidney.
Torrey, Mrs. E., N. Y.
Tracy, Helen A., Elmira.
Trainor, Mary A., W. Troy.
Traut, Miss A. E., Buffalo.
Tryon, H. I., Winthrop.
Tucker, Ella, Stillwater.
Turner, Geo. M., Auburn.
Tusbrick, W. W., Buffalo.
Unger, Anna H., Greenbush.
Van Akers, Mrs. G., N. Y.
Van Allen, D. D., Camden.
Van Antweep, Syracuse.
Van Norden, Ada, Waterford.
Van Tuyle, C. H., Hamilton.
Vanderpool, Edwin C., Newburgh.
Valkenburg, I. D., W. Troy.
Van Vorhes, Mrs. C. W., Saratoga.
Van Wagener, Mary L., N. Y.
Wagar, H. File, Brooklyn.
Waglum, Sarah A., Oneida.
Waite, Henry R., N. Y.
Waite, Mrs. H. R., N. Y.
Walker, Agnes M., Brooklyn.
Walker, Mary E., Brooklyn.
Walker, Elizabeth H., Saratoga.
Walker, Ettie D., Saratoga.
Warde, A. D., E. Syracuse.
Weast, Jno. C., S. Schenectady.
West, Geo. H., Galway.
Weymeth, Grace M., Utica.
Whalen, E. S., Rochester.
Wheeler, Minnie P., Center Creek.
Wheelock, Chas. F., Canajoharie.
Whitcomb, J. A., Brooklyn.
White, Andrew D., Ithaca.
White, Mrs. A. D., Ithaca.
Whitney, Wm., Athens.
Wilkins, A. E., Flushing.
Wilkinson, Ara, Caledonia.
Williams, L. L., Rochester.
Williams, Mrs. Jno. F., Rome.
Williams, Sherman, Glens Falls.
Williams, C. L., N. Y.
Williams, S. G., Ithaca.
Williams, Cornelia, Ithaca.
Wilson, W. S., Farmer.
Winne, James, Poughkeepsie.
Witherbee, G. P., Port Henry.
Wood, Judson I., Ilion.
Woodard, May, North Bay.
Wright, A. M., Waterville.
Wright, Jennie L., Baldwinsville.
Wright, Grace, Grahamsville.
Wright, Carrie, Grahamsville.
Wright, Julia A., Oneonta.
Wright, Abbie A., N. Y.
Yager, Adele, Oneonta.
Youmans, Lydia D., Winterford.
Young, I. E., New Rochelle.
Young, Miss Frank, Montgomery.
Zuber, Paul, N. Y.

—*New York, 611.*

NORTH CAROLINA.

Alexander, Nannie L., Concord.
Caldwell, A. E., Statesville.
Chapman, S. E., Concord.
Chapman, M. E., Concord.
Daney, Charlotte E., Tarborough.
Davis, A. C., Winston.
Farinholt, Mrs. L. A., Asheville.
Foust, J. J., Wilson.
Halyburton, Minnie, Asheville.
Hanss, J. W., Statesville.
Horner, J. M., Oxford.
Hume, Thos., Chapel Hill.
Hutton, Belle, Greensborough.
Long, Lorena, Graham.
McArn, A. H., Wilson.
Millard, Katie, Asheville.
White, Annie, Greensborough.

—*North Carolina, 17.*

NORTH DAKOTA.

Barnum, Anna L., Mayville.
Bemus, Carrie E., Mayville.
Cathro, F. R., Bottineau.
Cathro, F. W., Bismarck.
Cathro, Mrs. F. W.. Bismarck.
Davis, Mrs. Mattie M., Casselton.
Helfuty, Frances, Ellendale.
Helfuty, Grace, Ellendale.
Kundson, R. S., Grand Forks.
McMillan, Harlon, Milnor.
McNaughton, James, Mayville.
Milne, Jennie, Grand Forks.
Phelps, H. W., Grafton.
Phelps, Mrs. H. W., Grafton.
Ruring, G., Durbin.
Ruring, Mrs. G., Durbin.

—*North Dakota, 16.*

OHIO.

Abraham, V., Cincinnati.
Andrews, Idelette, Dayton.
Baker, J. H., Boulder.
Baker, Lewis A., Fayette.
Baker, Mrs. Mary, Fayette.
Baldwin, N. Dora, Urbana.
Beaver, Ida D., Cleveland.
Belles, Eva, Cleveland.
Beltz, W. H., Alliance.
Bennett, C. W., Piqua.
Bennett, Mrs. C. W., Piqua.
Bennett, Frank, Piqua.
Bennett, Mrs. F., New Lisbon.
Bennett, B. S., Milford Center.
Bennett, Orpha, Milford Center.
Bennett, Harriet, Milford Center.
Benson, Fannie E., Cleveland.
Bonebrake, Lewis D., Mt. Vernon.
Boyd, A. A., Cincinnati.
Bradbury, E. P., Cleveland.
Brennan, K. S., Cleveland.
Brown, Frances, Cleveland.
Buoton, Sarah, Chagrin Falls.
Burns, J. J., Canton.
Burns, Mrs. Kate E., Canton.
Burns, Lizzie S. E., Toledo.
Butler, Alice M., Columbus.
Campion, Kate, Cleveland.
Campton, H. W., Toledo.
Campton, Mrs. H. W., Toledo.
Cleveland, Charlotte, Washington.
Corson, O. T., Columbus.
Cox, E. B., Xenia.
Cox, Mrs. E. B., Xenia.
Cox, C. B., Xenia.
Cunningham, Susan, Columbus.
Cunningham, Mary, Columbus.
Dana, Mrs. H. C., Oberlin.
Dana, Lucy H., Oberlin.
Davis, Nellie, Norwalk.
Deaver, Clara O., Cleveland.
Draper, Andrew S., Cleveland.
Dutton, Kate E., Cleveland.
Dutton, Bettie A., Cleveland.
Dyer, Frank R., Salem.
Dyke, F. L., Cleveland.
Dyke, Mrs. F. L., Cleveland.
Espleman, N. V., Cleveland.
Foster, Mary V. A., Norwalk.
Fraser, Helen, Columbus.
Gantvoort, A. J., Piqua.
Gerlaugh, J. A., Harshman.
Gerlaugh, Mrs. Bertha, Harshman.
Gerkins, Irma C., Dayton.
Gladding, Alfred E., E. Liverpool.
Glover, N. L., Akron.
Gotwald, Fred., Springfield.
Gray, Jennie L., Wauseon.
Gregg, F. M., Nevada.
Griffith, J. W., Tiffin.
Griffith, Rose, Tiffin.
Haile, Jane T., Cincinnati.
Hand, M. J., Xenia.
Hanes, J. C., Mansfield.
Harding, S. C., Oberlin.
Harding, Mrs. S. C., Oberlin.
Henderson, G. W., De Graff.
Hickox, Chas., Cleveland.
Hickox, Frank F., Cleveland.
Hickox, Annie B., Cleveland.
Hippard, Minette, Dayton.
Horsley, Louise D., Cincinnati.
Howard, Mrs. T. F., Oberlin.
Hubbell, G. A., Fairfield.
Huddleston, Ida, St. Paris.
Jacobs, Norma, Toledo.
Jones, E. A., Massillon.
Jones, A. O., Cincinnati.
Kaedel, Jennie C., Canton.
Kaedel, Clara E., Waynesburg.
Kelley, Eva M., Cleveland.
Kelley, Lucy A.. Cleveland.
Kelty, Cornelia, Youngstown.
Kennan, Jairus R., Medina.

OHIO—Concluded.

Kennan, Cora E., Medina.
Kimball, Mary L., Medina.
King, H. C., Oberlin.
Kuleman, Agnes, Akron.
Lair, Mrs. L. B., Dayton.
Laird, Mrs. Ida E., Cleveland.
Lawrence, Edith, Akron.
Laws, Annie, Cincinnati.
Laws, Alice, Cincinnati.
Leathly, Ella, St. Paris.
Lee, S. J., Columbus.
Lee, Jennie A., Columbus.
Leiter, Mrs. Frances W., Mansfield.
Lewis, Elizabeth, Urbana.
Lofferty, L. L., Akron.
Loomis, H. T., Cleveland.
Loomis, Mrs. H. T., Cleveland.
Lowes, Lottie, Dayton.
Lowes, Blanche, Dayton.
Marsh, Mrs. Geo. H., Van Wert.
McClelland, R. G., Austinburg.
McFarland, Wm. H., Columbus.
McGee, Mrs., Sandusky.
McGraw, Mrs. A. H., Cleveland.
McVance, W., Urbana.
Meyer, Ida, Cleveland.
Meyer, Mrs. Viola, Tiffin.
Miller, C. C., Hamilton.
Miller, Mrs. C. C., Hamilton.
Miller, Elizabeth, Columbus.
Miller, Mary, Columbus.
Mitchell, T. J., Cleveland.
Morrey, W. T., Columbus.
Morse, L. I., St. Paris.
Morse, Mrs. L. I., St. Paris.
Mosford, Curtis R., S. New Lyme.
Mulford, J. M., Mechanicsburg.
Mulford, Mrs. J. M., Mechanicsburg.
Murray, Annie, Cincinnati.
Myers, P. V., Cincinnati.
Myers, Ida C., Cincinnati.
Northrop, Calvin T., Garrettsville.
Orth, Flora C., Canton.
Orton, Clara G., Columbus.
Osgood, Anna M., Columbus.
Patterson, C. C., Springfield.
Pelton, Ella M., Cleveland.
Perteson, Mary L., Cleveland.
Price, Nettie, Columbus.
Rankin, Stanley, Columbus.
Rankin, Belle, Columbus.
Reveley, Ellen G., Cleveland.
Richardson, Wm., Cleveland.
Riordan, Anna E., Columbus.
Scott, Jessie J., Canton.
Shawan, J. A., Columbus.
Sked, Miss C. P., Cleveland.
Smalley, Elizabeth A., Ashtabula Harbor.
Snyder, Linda L., Columbus.
Spooner, Mrs. Nora, Cincinnati.
Stevenson, Mary H., Cincinnati.
Stewart, N. Coe, Cleveland.
Stone, F. S., Cleveland.
Storrs, Mrs. E. A., Plainsville.
Storrs, Hattie, Plainsville.
Sullivan, Christine, Cincinnati.
Supee, Chas. W., Athens.
Tagg, Clara G., Cleveland.
Terrel, Harriet E., Cleveland.
Trendley, F., Youngstown.
Turnbull, Lillie, Canton.
Turnbull, Mary, Canton.
Umbstaetter, Clara M., Cleveland.
Vance, Sophia, Van Wert.
Vogel, Wm. H., Cincinnati.
Wade, Mrs. M. C., Dayton.
Walke, Matilda L., Cincinnati.
Walker, Mrs. A. B., Canton.
Ward, A. L., Cleveland.
Warner, Frank C., Plainsville.
Warner, Mrs. F. G. L., Plainsville.
White, E. E., Cincinnati.
White, Mrs. E. E., Cincinnati.
White, W. J., Dayton.
White, Mrs. W. J., Dayton.
White, Mira, Dayton.
Williams, W. G., Delaware.
Williams, Mrs. D. L., Delaware.
Wilmot, Julia, Cleveland.
Wilson, Miss S. J., Chardon.
Wilt, A. D., Dayton.
Wood, Elizabeth A., Columbus.
Wood, Linnie S., Columbus.
Yarnell, M. A., Sidney.

—*Ohio, 178.*

OKLAHOMA.

Boyd, D. R., Norman.
Boyd, Mrs. D. R., Norman.
Harvey, Flora E., Norman.
Smoke, Della M., Kingfisher.

—*Oklahoma, 4.*

ONTARIO.

Baird, Hester, Toronto.
Baird, R. S., Toronto.
Ballard, W. H., Hamilton.
Bowron, Minnie, Toronto.
Currie, Louise M., Toronto.
Deawn, Geo., Toronto.
Gallagher, R. E., Hamilton.
Gray, Alice, Toronto.
Grigg, Miss E. J., Toronto.
Grigg, May, Toronto.
Harton, A. M., Toronto.
Hogarth, E. S., Woodstock.
Hogarth, Mrs., Woodstock.
Holton, C., Toronto.
Hughes, James L., Toronto.
Hughes, Mrs. J. L., Toronto.
Hughes, Helen M., Toronto.
Hyves, James S., Toronto.

ONTARIO—Concluded.

Johnston, Geo. L., Hamilton.
Kerr, Chas. W., Toronto.
Mackenzie, Grace, Stratford.
McCabe, Wm., Toronto.
McCabe, Clara, Toronto.
Maunell, Lorena, Toronto.
Newcomb, Mrs. Leontine F., Hamilton.
Ritchie, M. S., Brampton.
Ritchie, Geo. M., Toronto.
Sanderson, A. L., Toronto.
Semple, Jessie, Toronto.
Sinclair, S. B., Hamilton.
Smith, Byron, Hamilton.
Stoddard, A., Toronto.
Stoddard, Miss E., Toronto.
Taylor, Miss S. L., Toronto.
Walker, Maggie, Toronto.
Wilkinson, W. C., Toronto.
Wilkinson, Ida, Toronto.
Wilson, E. B., Harriston.
Wylie, Mary J. B., Brantford.

—*Ontario, 39.*

OREGON.

Craine, Annie, Junction City.
McElroy, E. B., Salem.
McElroy, Mrs. E. B., Salem.
Slatten, Lillian E., Portland.
Wallace, Grace I., Portland.

—*Oregon, 5.*

PENNSYLVANIA.

Albro, S. H., Mansfield.
Amet, Mrs. R. W., Philadelphia.
Anthony, Anna, Philadelphia.
Baer, Samuel A., Reading.
Behm, Mary E., Reading.
Birdsall, W. W., Germantown.
Bishop, Eliza A., Harrisburg.
Boger, Cyrus, Lebanon.
Boone, J. W., E. Downingtown.
Boughton, Willis, Philadelphia.
Braden, Ella S., Philadelphia.
Bradshaw, Sarah E., Philadelphia.
Brelsford, Chas. H., Philadelphia.
Brooks, H. Maria, Philadelphia.
Brooks, Edward, Philadelphia.
Buchel, R. R., Lancaster.
Burke, E., Philadelphia.
Canning, Ella, Philadelphia.
Cargo, R. M., Pittsburg.
Cargo, Gertrude, Pittsburg.
Chew, Miss S. H., Philadelphia.
Cleaver, K., Hawley.
Coburn, E. J., Erie.
Cordery, Sara M., Philadelphia.
Cornell, Watson, Philadelphia.
Cornell, Mrs. W., Philadelphia.
Dagers, M., Ambler.
Dagers, Anna E., Ambler.
Davis, Annie, Conshohocken.
Deatrick, W. W., Kutztown.
DeGarmo, Chas., Swarthmore.
Deyoe, Mrs. R. E., South Oil City.
Du Bois, W. F., Coudersport.
Dunn, Miss M. B., Philadelphia.
Dunne, Miss M. H., Philadelphia.
Eagle, May, Bristol.
Eckhardt, Miss A. R., Philadelphia.
Elliott, Florence A., Philadelphia.
Eugard, L., Philadelphia.
Evans, Sarah A., Philadelphia.
Fichthorn, Clara C., Reading.
Fichthorn, Hannah E., Reading.
Fisher, H. W., Pittsburg.
Fisher, Mrs. H. W., Pittsburg.
Foster, Roland H., Chester.
Foster, C. F., Chester.
Fox, Miss H. A., Philadelphia.
Gabrylwitz, M. M., Philadelphia.
Garrett, Mrs. M., Philadelphia.
Gibson, T. W., Philadelphia.
Gressly, Mrs. S. S., McKeesport.
Gross, H. L. W., Hartford.
Gussly, S. S., McKeesport.
Haggenbotham, Miss M., Philadelphia.
Hayden, Anna F., Wawa.
Heerman, David A., Hazleton.
Heins, Mary, Eshbach.
Higham, I. W., Philadelphia.
Houck, Henry, Harrisburg.
Irwin, Sara M., Philadelphia.
Jacob, Louisa M., West Grove.
James, S. M., Philadelphia.
Jardley, Chas., Reading.
Johnson, Maria L., Philadelphia.
Jones, M. G., Philadelphia.
Jones, A. L., Philadelphia.
Jones, Addison, West Chester.
Jude, G. W., Sugar Grove.
Kinsman, Winnie, Sugar Grove.
Kitner, Lotta, Wyalusing.
Kleisz, C. V., Philadelphia.
Kline, Jas. G., Philadelphia.
Lamberton, Miss M. J., Philadelphia.
Lewis, Lizzie J., Avondale.
Lighty, W. H., Mulberry.
Lipsett, J. W., Philadelphia.
Lipsett, W. J., Philadelphia.
Lipsett, Mrs. J. W., Philadelphia.
Lloyd, Elizabeth, Newtown Square.
Lukens, Ella, Philadelphia.
Lyte, E. O., Millersville.
MacAlister, James, Philadelphia.
Mackenzie, Constance, Philadelphia.
Mackenzie, Adelle, Philadelphia.
Mackey, E., Butler.
McCaskey, J. P., Lancaster.
McFarland, Mary P., Linwood.
Malin, Nettie S., Coatesville.
Maltby, Albert E., Slippery Rock.
Maris, Geo. L., Philadelphia.

PENNSYLVANIA—Concluded.

Markley, Minerva, Schwenksville.
Martin, Agnes, Philadelphia.
Maxwell, Isabelle, Philadelphia.
Maxwell, Mary, Philadelphia.
Michener, J. H., Wissinoming, Phila.
Michener, Alice B., Wissinoming, Phila.
Mickleback, L., Philadelphia.
Mickleback, Clara. Philadelphia.
Miller, L. D., Philadelphia.
Miller, Jno. M., Philadelphia.
Miller, Mrs. J. A., Philadelphia.
Moffett, Elizabeth N., Philadelphia.
Moffett, Martha, Philadelphia.
Morrison, Andrew J., Philadelphia.
Moyer, Nora C., Reading.
Nelson, Miss A. L., Taylorsville.
Neville, Margaret J., Philadelphia.
Neville, Agnes G., Philadelphia.
Noss, H. B., California.
Nyce, Olivia, Norristown.
Osler, Miriam R., Philadelphia.
Osler, Mrs. L. A., Philadelphia.
Parry, Kate, Philadelphia.
Pasmore, Jno. A. M., Philadelphia.
Passmore, Jno., Philadelphia.
Passmore, Anna B., Philadelphia.
Passmore, Edith D., Philadelphia.
Patten, Simon N., Philadelphia.
Pepper, Wm., Philadelphia.
Phillips, F. J., McKeesport.
Phillips, Mrs. F. J., McKeesport.
Phillips, G. W., Scranton.
Pike, L. May, Linwood.
Piper, Virginia C., Philadelphia.
Prowell, Elizabeth, Yocumtown.
Pyle, L. M., Philadelphia.
Randall, Chas. A., Philadelphia.
Randall, Elizabeth N., Philadelphia.
Rementer, Katie L., Philadelphia.
Roland, Lina M., Reading.
Ross, Mattie A., Collamer.
Rowell, F. C., Factoryville.
Ryan, A. M., Philadelphia.
Saidler, Mrs. E., Philadelphia.
Schaeffer, N. C., Kutztown.
Schaeffer, Mrs. N. C., Kutztown.
Schmucker, S. C., Indiana.
Seegmiller, Miss W., Allegheny.
Silliman, Phœbe C., Philadelphia.
Silliman, Irene, Mt. Carmel.
Smith, A. G. C., Media.
Smith, Mrs. A. G. C., Media.
Smithson, Edith, Pittsburg.
Snyder, J. L., Alleghany.
Snyder, Frank, Point Marion.
Snyder, Happy L., Point Marion.
Snyder, Clara M., Alleghany City.
Spayd, H. H., Minersville.
Spayd, Mrs. H. H., Minersville.
Stephens, A. M., Philadelphia.
Sterling, S. H., Philadelphia.
Sterling, Mary, Philadelphia.
Stewart, T. S., Philadelphia.
Stewart, Mrs. T. S., Philadelphia.
Stewart, Ralph C., Philadelphia.
Stewart, Jno. L., Harrisburg.
Stewart, Sarah A., Philadelphia.
Stiles, Gertrude, Erie.
Stiles, Netta, Erie.
Stout, Geo. H., Philadelphia.
Tadd, J. Liberty, Philadelphia.
Talbot, Henry, Philadelphia.
Thomas, E. L. G., Philadelphia.
Tilney, Mrs. Anna L., Philadelphia.
Townsend, Geo. W., Philadelphia.
Treanor, Anna B., Philadelphia.
Twitmyer, Geo. W., Honesdale.
Van Gunten, Mary, Philadelphia.
Wallace, Ella J., Philadelphia.
Waller, D. J., Bloomsburg.
Waller, Mrs. D. J., Bloomsburg.
Walton, R. S., Philadelphia.
Walton, Joseph S., Ercildoun.
Welsh, J. P., Bloomsburg.
Welsh, Mrs. J. P., Bloomsburg.
Wilde, Sarah E., Chester.
Wilkinson, Mary, Bristol.
Williams, Anna W., Philadelphia.
Williamson, L. J., Philadelphia.

—*Pennsylvania, 178.*

QUEBEC.

Mitchell, S. A., Sherbrooke.
Murray, J. Clark, Montreal.
Temple, E. M., Quebec.
Rexford, E. I., Montreal.
Rexford, Mrs. E. I., Montreal.
Rinfret, Raoul, St. Stanislas.
Simpson, Mrs. Margaret, Montreal.
Walbridge, Mabel, St. John's.

—*Quebec, 8.*

RHODE ISLAND.

Baker, Benj., Newport.
Barrows, A. C., Providence.
Barrows, Ella, Providence.
Bellows, Annie, Ashton.
Bellows, Carrie, Ashton.
Collins, Ada M., Warring.
Fisher, G. C., Pawtucket.
Guilbert, J. F., Providence.
Hall, Mrs., Providence.
Hall, Amy, Providence.
Harris, Miss E. G., Woonsocket.
Kelliher, M. W., Pawtucket.
Ketchum, Mrs. E., Providence.
Littlefield, Geo. A., Providence.
Marble, Sarah, Woonsocket.
Matteson, Hortense A., Allenton.
Matteson, Anna S., Allenton.
Schaffer, Emma, Providence.

RHODE ISLAND—Concluded.

Schaffer, Helena, Providence.
Stockwell, T. B., Providence.
Strout, Susan L., Wakefield.
Tarbell, H. S., Providence.
Wilson, W. E., Providence.
—*Rhode Island, 23.*

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Brown, V. D., Anderson.
Bulkley, W. L., Orangeburg.
Cater, Miss L. C., Charleston.
Gist, Maggie, Yorkville.
Laniel, W. V., Brunson.
Lucas, Rosa, Parksville.
Lynch, A. W., Johnson.
McCants, Fannie C., Columbia.
McCaslan, Eliza, Laurens.
Roach, Emma, Rock Hill.
Rowell, P. E., Lexington.
Rowell, Mrs. P. E., Lexington.
Stonley, J. C., Columbia.
Stonley, Mrs. E. D., Columbia.
—*South Carolina, 14.*

SOUTH DAKOTA.

Dinsmore, R. M., Aberdeen.
Duncan, T. A., Mitchell.
Ericson, Sylvia A., Elk Point.
Ericson, E. C., Elk Point.
Free, A. T., Yankton.
Jones, John, Chamberlain.
King, C. L., Milbank.
King, Mrs. C. L., Milbank.
Lovejoy, E. M., Aberdeen.
Mauck, J. W., Vermilion
Noble, Dell, Mitchell.
Shuckman, P., Charleston.
Shuckman, Mrs. P., Charleston.
Spencer, C. A. M., Bismarck.
Stay, J. D., Yankton.
Talcott, J. S., Elk Point.
Talcott, Mrs. Susan, Elk Point.
Talcott, Will C., Elk Point.
Thomas, Mrs. Lizzie, Sioux Falls.
Whipple, H. J., Sioux Falls.
—*South Dakota, 20.*

TENNESSEE.

Bailey, Miss L. B., Jackson.
Boone, J. L., Hartsville.
Boower, Mrs. Z. H., Nashville.
Boyd, Miss C. I., Nashville.
Boyd, S. B., Nashville.
Boyer, M. R., Nashville.
Brandon, Geo. W., Nashville.
Bush, Maggie, Chattanooga.
Champlin, H., Nashville.
Childers, J. S., Pulaski.
Childers, Mrs. J. S., Pulaski.
Crosthwait, Eliza, Nashville.
Davis, Miss R., Knoxville.
Dick, Nellie H., Knoxville.
Duncan, Callie, Nashville.
Garrett, W. R., Nashville.
Goodman, Frank, Nashville.
Goodrich, Mary, Nashville.
Goodrich, Belle, Nashville.
Grant, S. L., Chattanooga.
Haynes, Manda, Nashville.
Hubbard, G. W., Nashville.
Huffaker, H. D., Chattanooga.
Johnson, Mrs. J. W., Franklin.
Jones, W. S., Memphis.
Jones, Mrs. C. S., Memphis.
Kerley, T. A., Nashville.
Lanter, Mrs. Sarah, Chattanooga.
Lanter, Katie, Chattanooga.
Lichtenwanger, Minnie, Knoxville.
Lichtenwanger, Anna, Knoxville.
Litton, Mattie, Nashville.
Manning, P. H., Nashville.
McCallie, J. H., Knoxville.
McCallie, J. M., Knoxville.
March, Mariana, Jackson.
Monroe, W. T., Nashville.
Muse, W. A., Rutherford.
Odell, Mary, Knoxville.
Payne, W. H., Nashville.
Pryor, J. C., Nashville.
Randle, Lulu, Nashville.
Reynolds, Pauline, Nashville.
Sneed, J. R., Nashville.
Sneed, Mrs. J. R., Nashville.
Sneed, Mrs. E. G., Brentwood.
Sneed, Annie L., Nashville.
Spurlock, Sara, Nashville.
Sullivan, Irene, Tracy City.
Swift, Mrs., Knoxville.
Tate, James A., Fayetteville.
Turner, Frank, Nashville.
Wagner, Miss G. A., Chattanooga.
White, W. T., Knoxville.
Winstead, Walter, Nashville.
Winstead, Mrs. Walter, Nashville.
Wyatt, H. D., Chattanooga.
—*Tennessee, 57.*

TEXAS.

Baldwin, Joseph, Austin.
Boyd, Miss M. V., Pearsall.
Chrisman, Oscar, Gonzales.
Halsted, Geo., Austin.
Lacefield, W. R., Waco.
Lipscomb, Maude, Luling.
Maney, Bessie, Pearsall.
Pritchett, H. C., Huntsville.
Robinson, Maud, Gonzales.
—*Texas, 9.*

UTAH.

Angsburg, R., Salt Lake City.
Barton, W. W., Salt Lake City.
Brown, Antoinette, Salt Lake City.
Chadwick, Blanche, Salt Lake City.
Malone, W. R., Salt Lake City.
Marlatt, Abby L., Logan.
Millspaugh, J. F., Salt Lake City.
Work, Frank B., Salt Lake City.

—*Utah, 8.*

VERMONT.

Baker, Henry S., Danby.
Beard, Geo. P., St. Albans.
Camp, Ellen, South Barre.
Campbell, John, Barre.
Carpenter, Maude, North Bennington.
Cleveland, Sinnie, Ludlow.
Cleveland, Carrie, Ludlow.
Davis, Chas. S., Bennington.
Ferrin, A. C., Manchester.
Fisk, Amy B., Montpelier.
Fisk, Hattie C., Montpelier.
Gordon, Minerva, Grand Isle.
Hazen, Irwing A., Windsor.
Kamp, Don, Barry.
Kennedy, G. W., Fair Haven.
Rogers, Anna, Bennington.
Rogers, Helen O., Bennington.
Sibley, M. Blanche, Bennington.
Waldleigh, Edna, Berkshire.
Wheeler, Mary L., Fairfax.
White, Julia A., Bennington.

—*Vermont, 20.*

VIRGINIA.

Farmer, Minnie, News Terry.
Smithdeal, G. M., Richmond.

—*Virginia, 2.*

WASHINGTON.

Barnard, F. J., Seattle.

WEST VIRGINIA.

Anderson, E. S., Wheeling.
Anderson, W. H., Wheeling.
Bullerman, Bird, Charlestown.
Campbell, C. N., Charlestown.
Campbell, Miss F. S., Wheeling.
Chaplin, Amy, Wheeling.
Frasher, J. M., Wheeling.
Gibson, Mrs. Geo. H., Wheeling.
Hamilton, Mrs. M. V., Wheeling.
Hamilton, Miss L. D., Wheeling.
Matthews, Mrs. Geo., Wheeling.
Matthews, Edith, Wheeling.
McCurdy, Martha, Wheeling.
Norton, Virginia, Wheeling.
Ogden, H. N., Morgantown.
Prillerman, Byrd, Charleston.
Schmiedt, Oscar, Bethany.
Shriver, N., Wheeling.
Tucker, Mac C., Parkersburg.
Turner, E. M., Morgantown.

—*West Virginia, 20.*

WISCONSIN.

Bailey, F. J., Janesville.
Bailey, Mrs. F. J., Janesville.
Barrett, Carrie F., Milwaukee.
Benton, W. W., Galesville.
Bonfoey, Jennie, Milwaukee.
Bryan, Alexander, Milwaukee.
Bushnell, Nellie, Warsaw.
Case, L., Prairie Du Chien.
Case, Laura, Prairie Du Chien.
Chapin, Ellen F., Beloit.
Chapin, R. C., Beloit.
Christie, Jessie, Milwaukee.
Colman, Mrs. Henry, Milwaukee.
Colman, Anna L., Milwaukee.
Comstock, Mrs. J. T., Milwaukee.
Comstock, Jessie, Milwaukee.
Cooley, Frank W., Janesville.
Cunningham, M. A., Dayton.
Davis, Nancy M., Oshkosh.
Dopp, Cora, Warsaw.
Felker, L. M., Oshkosh.
Graham, Robert, Oshkosh.
Graham, Adda, Milwaukee.
Hanson, Mary, Beloit.
Hardy, Albert, Lacrosse.
Hoyt, Judson E., Menomonee.
Hoyt, Mrs. J. E., Menomonee.
Hughes, Jennie, Cambria.
Humphrey, J. N., Whitewater.
Humphrey, Mrs. J. N., Whitewater.
Kaunhenner, Wm., Milwaukee
Kratsch, Wm., Milwaukee.
Lammers, H. C., Milwaukee.
Littell, Anna H., Milwaukee.
Lloyd, Anna C., Milwaukee.
Maloney, Alice M., Milwaukee.
Mapell, J. J., Milwaukee.
Marvin, Jennie G., Oshkosh.
Mayer, Chas., Oshkosh.
Olcott, Miss A., Oshkosh.
Ostrom, Henry, Milwaukee.
Ostrom, Mrs. H., Milwaukee.
Passmore, Wm., Milwaukee.
Passmore, Jane B., Milwaukee.
Pease, Lynn S., Janesville.
Pennell, Miss E. J., Milwaukee.

WISCONSIN—CONCLUDED.

Pierce, Marion, Milwaukee.
Pringle, Tom, Milwaukee.
Pringle, Mrs. Tom, Milwaukee.
Radford, Elizabeth, Oshkosh.
Read, Harriet A. M., Lake Geneva.
Roberts, Wm. P., Evansville.
Rogers, A. J., Milwaukee.
Sabin, Alice A., Windham.
Sabin, Miss E. C., Fox Lake.
Salisbury, Albert, Whitewater.
Sarles, Deborah, Racine.
Sechler, Grace, Sechlerville.
Showalter, Clyde R., Plattsville.
Slightam, Geo., Janesville.
Slightam, Mrs. Henrietta, Janesville.
Smith, Hattie E., Milwaukee.
Spencer, R. C., Milwaukee.
Swart, Rose C., Oshkosh.
Terry, H. L., Lake Mills.
Terry, D. C., Lake Mills.
Travers, Lewis C., Two Rivers.
Travers, Mrs. L. C., Two Rivers.
Trowbridge, Mrs. H. E., Milwaukee.
Van Tassel, Mrs. J. E., Milwaukee.
Wells, O. E., Madison.
Wright, Janette, Milwaukee.

—*Wisconsin, 72.*

WYOMING.

Ingersol, Belle, Laramie.
Marquardt, W., Laramie.
Whiting, Mrs. B., Laramie.
Whiting, Mary A., Laramie.

—*Wyoming, 4.*

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