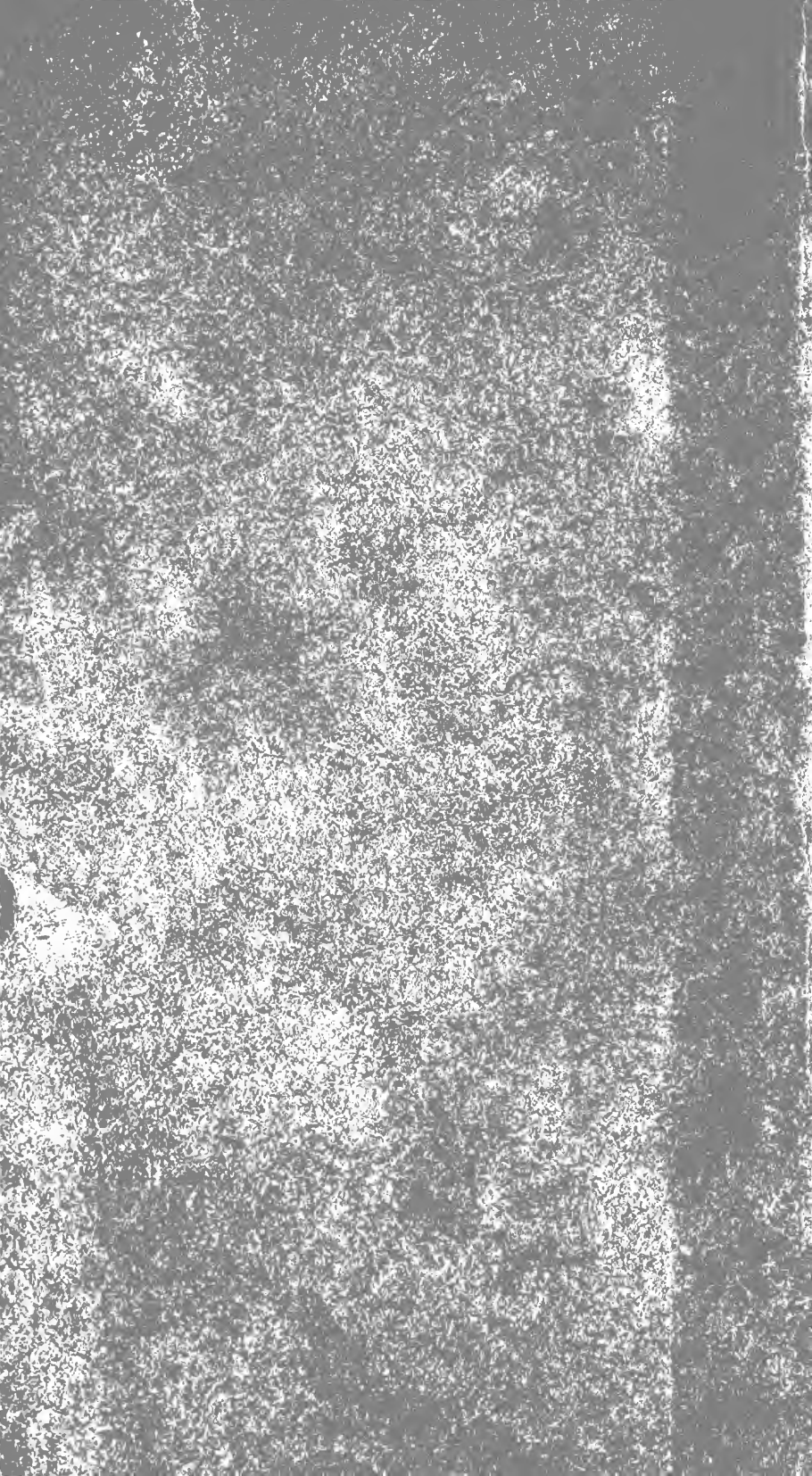




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R E P O R T

ON

ELEMENTARY PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

IN EUROPE.

DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY

PH.D. THESIS

BY

JOHN H. VAN VORN

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in the Department of Chemistry
The University of Chicago
Chicago, Illinois
1954

R E P O R T

ON

ELEMENTARY PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

I N E U R O P E ,

MADE TO THE

THIRTY-SIXTH GENERAL ASSEMBLY

OF THE

STATE OF OHIO,

DECEMBER 19, 1837.

BY C. E. STOWE.

RE-PRINTED BY ORDER OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

OF THE

LEGISLATURE OF MASSACHUSETTS,

MARCH 29, 1838.

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REPORT

ON

ELEMENTARY PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

To His Excellency the Governor, and the Honorable the General Assembly of the State of Ohio :

In March, 1836, just before I embarked for Europe, I received a communication from Governor Lucas, with the great seal of the State, enclosing the following resolves of the General Assembly, to wit :

“ Resolved by the General Assembly of the State of Ohio, That C. E. Stowe, Professor in one of the Literary Institutions of this State, be requested to collect, during the progress of his contemplated tour in Europe, such facts and information as he may deem useful to the State, in relation to the various systems of public instruction and education, which have been adopted in the several countries through which he may pass, and make report thereof, with such practical observations as he may think proper, to the next General Assembly.

“ Resolved, That His Excellency the Governor be requested to transmit a certified copy of the foregoing proceedings to Professor Stowe.”

In pursuance of the above resolutions, I communicated the intention of the General Assembly to Hon. A. Stevenson, the American Minister near the British Court, and he very readily furnished me with the credentials necessary for the most satisfactory attainment of the object of my inquiries. I am also happy to remark, that the

communication of Governor Lucas was a ready passport to my free admission to every public institution in Europe to which I applied—and that my endeavors were seconded in the most encouraging manner by all the gentlemen connected with the educational establishments in the several countries through which I passed; and the warmest expressions of approbation were elicited of the zeal manifested by so young a state as Ohio, in the great cause of general education. Particularly in some of the old communities of central Europe, where it happened to be known that I was born in the same year in which Ohio became a sovereign State, it seemed to be matter of amusement as well as gratification, that a man who was *just as old as the State in which he lived*, had come with official authority to inquire respecting the best mode of education for the growing population of his native land; and they remarked, that our Governor and Legislators must be very enlightened and highly cultivated men. When in one instance I informed them that our Governor was a plain farmer, and that a majority of our Legislators were of the same occupation, the well known line which a Latin poet applies to husbandmen was applied to us:

“O fortunatos nimium si sua bona norint.”

“Oh happy people, if they do but appreciate their own blessings.”

In the progress of my tour I visited England, Scotland, France, Prussia, and the different States of Germany; and had opportunity to see the celebrated Universities of Cambridge, Oxford, Edinburg, Glasgow, Paris, Berlin, Halle, Leipsic, Heidleberg, and some others; and I was everywhere received with the greatest kindness, and every desirable facility was afforded me for the promotion of my inquiries. But knowing that a solid foundation must be laid before a durable superstructure can be reared, and being aware that, on this principle, the chief attention of our Legislature is, and for the present must be, directed to our common schools, my investigation of the Universities was comparatively brief—and the most of my time was spent in visiting the best district schools I could hear of, and also the high schools intended for the business education of young men, and the institutions for the education of teachers.

Before I proceed to the result of my inquiries on these topics, I

would call the attention of the Legislature to some facts of a more general nature, which strongly impressed themselves upon my mind during the progress of my tour—and which, it seems to me, have a very important bearing upon the successful maintenance, if not the very existence, of free institutions in our country. I allude particularly to the wonderful change which has taken place in the policy of monarchial governments in respect to the education of the people. Formerly it was supposed that despotism could be maintained only by a sovereign with an army devoted to his interests, and dependent only upon himself for subsistence; an aristocracy which should monopolise the wealth and the intellectual culture of the entire nation; and a mass of people held in entire ignorance of their rights and privileges as men, and condemned to drudge for life for a bare and precarious subsistence—the mere dependents and slaves of the higher orders. But what is the aspect which the sovereignties of Europe now present?—and what is the change which is forcing itself along, even into the despotisms of Asia and Africa? Ever since the revolution which separated this country from the British Empire, the idea of popular rights has been working its way irresistibly throughout the civilized world: and sovereigns who have had the sagacity to see the unavoidable results, have adapted their measures to the new aspect of the times. A new era in the history of civilization has evidently commenced. A despotic king of the Protestant faith, dreading the evils of an ignorant and unbridled democracy, such as was witnessed in the French revolution, has now for forty years been pursuing a course of instruction for his whole people, more complete, better adapted to develop every faculty of the soul, and to bring into action, every capability of every kind that may exist, even in the poorest cottage of the most obscure corner of his kingdom, than has ever before been imagined. Men of the highest order of intellect and most extensive attainments are encouraged to devote themselves to the business of teaching: the best plans for the furtherance of this object are immediately received and generously rewarded; talent and industry, wherever they exist, are sought out and promoted; and nothing is left undone that can help forward this great design.

The introduction of this system was preceded by political changes,

which, considered as emanating from the government itself, have scarcely a parallel in the history of nations. When Frederick William III. ascended the throne of Prussia in 1797, the condition of the people was in many respects truly deplorable. But immediately upon his accession he set about reforming abuses, and introducing improvements. The odious religious edict was abolished—the administration of justice was thoroughly reformed, and rigid economy introduced into the royal household. The exclusive privileges of the nobles were taken away, and their power so completely broken, that there is now no hereditary aristocracy which can interfere with the sovereign, or oppress the people.

In 1810, the peasantry, who before had no ownership in the soil which they cultivated, and consequently no independence of character, by a royal decree, became freeholders on the following terms, namely : those who held their lands on perpetual lease, by giving up one-third, and those who held them on limited or life leases, by giving up one-half, to the landlord, became the owners in fee simple of the rest. The military is now so modelled that every citizen between the ages of 18 and 21 is in actual service in the standing army, where he is instructed in all that pertains to military life, and then returns to his peaceful occupations. Thus the army is made up entirely of citizens—and every citizen is a soldier ; and there is no such thing as a standing army at the entire devotion of the sovereign, and independent of the people.

The prime minister, Hardenberg, in a circular published at the time when these reforms were in progress, declares, that “ the new system is based upon the principle, that every subject, personally free, be able to raise himself, and develop his powers freely, without let or hindrance from any other ; that the public burdens be borne in common and in just proportions ; that equality before the law, be secured to every subject ; that justice be rigidly and punctually administered ; that merit in whatever rank it may be found, be enabled to rise without obstacle ; that the government be carried on with unity, order, and power ; that, by the education of the people, and the spread of true religion, the general interests, and a national spirit be promoted, as the only secure basis of the national welfare.”

Another European king of the Roman Catholic faith, Louis of Ba-

varia, who is connected by marriage with the royal house of Prussia, moved by this example, and excited by emulation in behalf both of his church and kingdom, is now zealously pushing forward the same experiment among his own people, and already the Bavarian schools begin to rival the Prussian; and the University of Berlin finds its only equal in that of Munich. Louis has in one thing gone even beyond his brother of Prussia, in that he has granted to his people a real constitutional representation in the government, a privilege and a right which the Prussians have labored in vain to extort from Frederick William.

Even the Autocrat, Nicholas of Russia, (married to a daughter of the Prussian monarch, who inherits much of her father's spirit,) has been induced to commence a similar system throughout his vast dominions; and from the reports to the emperor of M. d'Ouvroff, the Russian Minister of Public Instruction, it appears, that already from Poland to Siberia, and from the White Sea to the regions beyond the Caucasus, including the provinces so recently wrested from Persia, there are the beginnings of a complete system of common school instruction for the whole people, to be carried into full execution as fast as it is possible to provide the requisite number of qualified teachers.

Thus three sovereigns, representing the three great divisions of Christendom, the Protestant, the Romish, and the Greek, are now zealously engaged in doing what despotic sovereigns have seldom done before—enlightening and educating their people; and that too with better plans of instruction, and a more efficient accomplishment in practice than the world has ever before witnessed. Nor is the spirit of education confined to these nations. The kingdom of Wirtemberg, and the grand duchy of Baden, are not behind Prussia or Bavaria. The smaller states of Germany, and even old Austria, are pushing forward in the same career; France is all awake; Spain and Italy are beginning to open their eyes; the government of England—which has hitherto neglected the education of the common people more than any other Protestant country of Europe—is beginning to bestir itself; and even the Sultan of Turkey, and the Pacha of Egypt, are looking around for well qualified teachers to go among their people. In London and Paris I saw Turks, and

Arabs, and Greeks, who had been sent by their respective governments to these cities, for the express purpose of being educated for teachers in their native countries, if not for the whole people, at least for the favored few. At Constantinople a society has been formed for the promotion of useful knowledge, which publishes a monthly journal edited by one of the Turks who studied in Paris; and the Sultan now employs a French teacher in his capital, whom he especially invited from France. And here too in our own country, in the movements of New England, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, and several other of the states, we are strongly reminded of the educational zeal of the age.

In short the world seems to be awake and combining in one simultaneous effort for the spread of education; and sad indeed will be the condition of that community which lags behind in this universal march.

But I wish to direct your attention to the influence which these wide spread systems of education in the sovereignties of Europe, emanating from Prussia, must exert on our own institutions. The sovereigns to whom I have alluded, are not only educating the people, but they are laying aside the pomp, the trappings, and the lavish expenses of royalty, and by simplicity, by rigid economy, by an energetic and impartial administration of the government, are endeavoring to establish their thrones in the hearts of their people.

Frederick William, in his dress, appearance, and whole deportment, is as simple and unostentatious as an Ohio farmer; and few of our wealthy merchants ride in so plain a carriage, or sleep on so homely a bed as the monarch of Prussia. After witnessing the pageantry, the pomp and ostentation of the limited monarchy of England, one is astonished at the rigid simplicity of the great military despotism of central Europe.

In every stage of instruction it is made a prominent object, and one which is repeatedly and strenuously insisted on in all the laws pertaining to education, to awaken a *national spirit*—to create in the youthful mind a warm attachment to his native land, and its institutions, and to fix in his affections a decided preference for the peculiarities of his own country. Indeed the whole plan (which is well understood to have originated in Prussia, when the rapid spread of republican principles first began to threaten the thrones of Europe,)

evidently is to unite with the military force which always attends a despotism, a strong moral power over the understanding and affections of the people. In view of this fact, an able English writer denominates the modern kingdom of Prussia, “that wonderful machine of state-craft—as a mere machine the most remarkable in existence—on the model of which most European governments are gradually proceeding to reform themselves.” Already has this plan so far succeeded, that there is evidently in these countries a growing disregard for the *forms* of free government, provided the *substance* be enjoyed in the security and prosperity of the people.

Republicanism can be maintained only by universal intelligence and virtue among the people, and disinterestedness and fidelity in the rulers. Republics are considered the natural foes to monarchies; and where both start up side by side, it is taken for granted that the one must supplant the other. Hence their watchful jealousy of each other. Now when we see monarchies strengthening themselves in the manner described, are not republics exposed to double danger from vice, and neglect of education within themselves? And do not patriotism and the necessity of self-preservation, call upon us to do more and better for the education of our whole people, than any despotic sovereign can do for his? Did we stand alone—were there no rival governments on earth—or if we were surrounded by despotisms of degraded and ignorant slaves, like those of the ancient oriental world; *even then*, without intelligence and virtue in the great mass of the people, our liberties would pass from us. How emphatically must this be the case *now*, when the whole aspect of things is changed, and monarchies have actually stolen a march upon republics in the promotion of popular intelligence?

EFFORTS FOR EDUCATION IN RUSSIA.

In a former report, which was printed by order of the Legislature in 1836, I gave a synopsis of the governmental regulations in Prussia respecting education, and I have not found by investigations on the spot, that the statements then made require any essential modifica-

tion. [See Appendix A.] I will here, however, take the liberty of stating some facts respecting the governmental efforts recently made in *RUSSIA*, to establish a system of popular education throughout that vast empire. These cannot but be deeply interesting to us, since *Russia* has so many points of resemblance, and of striking contrast to our own country. Like the United States, her dominion extends over an immense territory, comprising almost every variety of soil, climate, productions, and national character. Like ours, her educational institutions are comparatively new, and almost everything is to be begun in its elements; and, like us, she has received great accessions to her population by immigrants from almost every nation of *Europe*. *Russia* is unquestionably the largest and most powerful of despotisms; as the United States is the largest and most powerful of republics: and, while we enjoy the greatest political freedom that any government has ever permitted, she is held fast by the bonds of a severe autocracy. Add to this, *Russia* is the only *European* government, with the exception of *Great Britain*, whose territories border on our own. The fact, then, that a system of public instruction has been established in the *Russian* empire, is one of deep interest to us; and no less interesting will it be for us to know something of the nature of the system and of the means by which it is carried into operation.

The general system is that of *Prussia*, with such modifications as are necessary to adapt it to that widely extended, and, in some parts, semi-barbarous empire. For example, the whole empire is divided into provinces, each of which has a university—these provinces into academic districts, which are provided with their gymnasia for classical learning, and academies for the higher branches of a business education; and these academic districts are again subdivided into school districts, each with its elementary school. As the heart of the whole system, there is at *St. Petersburg* a model school for the education of teachers of every grade, for all parts of the empire. Of the Universities, six had already gone into operation in 1835, namely: one at *St. Petersburg*, one at *Moscow*, one at *Dorpat*, in *Livonia*, one at *Charkow*, east of the river *Dnieper*, one at *Kasan*, on the *Wolga*, and one at *Kiew*. At other points *Lyceums* are established, with courses of study more limited than that of the

Universities ; and there is an institution at Moscow, especially for the education of the nobility. Of course, I shall not be understood as recommending for adoption by us whatever I speak of with approbation in reference to foreign lands ; for the different circumstances of nations require entirely different systems. It is the part of a wise legislator to examine all the improvements within his reach, and from the whole, to select those parts only which are adapted to the peculiar circumstances of the people for whom he legislates.

The different institutions in Russia are established as fast as the circumstances of the people admit ; and as teachers can be found to supply them. At the date of the last report of the Minister of Public Instruction, the number of elementary and parish schools was about 12,000—of private schools, 430—and of gymnasia, 57.

The governmental regulations for cherishing in the people a desire for education, and directing them in the attainment of it, are wisely adapted to the purpose. The Minister of Public Instruction publishes a regular periodical journal, in which he gathers up all the facts, information and arguments, to which his official station gives him access, and circulates them extensively through the nation. To illustrate the good faith, diligence and liberal-mindedness with which he executes this part of his office, I would refer to the number of his journal for August, 1835, in which he notices, with great approbation, the efforts of tract societies for the diffusion of moral and religious sentiments among the people, and mentions by name several publications of the American Tract Society, which have been translated into Russian, as having reached a third edition, and as being happily calculated to enlighten the intellect, and elevate the character of the people among whom they circulate. If the Minister of the Emperor Nicholas shows so much readiness to receive a good thing even from Democratic America, we surely will not be so narrow-minded as to spurn a good idea because it happened first to develop itself in Autocratic Russia. As a farther means of promoting education, every school director and examiner undergoes a rigid scrutiny as to his intellectual and moral fitness for those important trusts ; and every candidate for civil office is strictly examined as to his attainments in those branches of learning requisite to the right performance of the official duties to which he aspires. As

common schools are new in the Russian Empire, and as school-houses are to be built in every part of it, the government, knowing the importance of having these houses well planned and put up, has appointed an architect, with a salary of 1000 rubles a year, for every academic district, whose whole business it is to superintend the erecting and fitting up of the district school-houses in his particular province. When we recollect how many of the evils of our district schools result from the bad construction and wretched furniture of our school-houses, how completely, by these defects, the efforts of the best teachers may be nullified, and the minds and health of children, as well as their comfort, destroyed, we cannot but acknowledge this to be, for a country where every thing is to be begun from its foundation, a most judicious arrangement.

Canals, and other public improvements of this kind, are now in great demand, and, to further them, an institution has been established for the express purpose of teaching the arts requisite in their construction ; and young men who intend to devote themselves to this business, are taken from the other schools and placed in this institution at the public expense. Special provision, also, is made for instruction in agriculture, and all the kindred arts, in order that the natural resources of the country may be fully developed. That religious instruction may be efficient, and, at the same time, the rights of conscience remain inviolate, clergymen of different christian denominations, where the circumstances of the people require it, are employed as religious teachers in the schools, their services compensated by government, and their families provided for, if necessary. The importance of female teachers is recognized, and every encouragement is held out to young ladies to engage in this work. Private teachers are subject to the same rules, and the same strict inspection, as the teachers of public schools ; and, what is an improvement on the Prussian plan, if the teacher of a private school becomes superannuated, or dies, in the service, his family are entitled to the same privileges as that of a public teacher, and receive pensions from the government adequate to their support and education. Thus all classes of faithful teachers are regarded and treated as public benefactors, and considered as entitled, not merely to a bare support while toiling and wearing themselves out in the public service, but to national remembrance and gratitude after their work is done.

Though the emperor of Russia is justly accused of unpardonable oppression in respect to Poland, yet he does not carry his oppression so far as to deprive the poor Poles of the benefits of education, but is exerting the same laudable zeal to provide teachers for Poland as for any other part of his dominions. It has been found exceedingly difficult to obtain teachers who are willing to exercise their calling in the cold and inhospitable regions of Siberia. To facilitate this object, special privileges have been granted to Siberian teachers. Siberian young men are admitted to the university of Kasan free of expense, on condition that they devote a certain number of years to the business of school-keeping in Siberia. To forward the same object, a Siberian gentleman, by the name of Ponomarew, gives 6000 rubles a year for the support of the parish schools of Irkutsk, quite to the north-eastern extremity of Siberia, and has obligated himself, for ten years, to pay 500 rubles a year more, for the encouragement of the pupils of those schools.

Teachers from foreign countries are welcomed, and special provision is made that their religious sentiments be not interfered with, as well as that they do not impose their peculiar religious notions on their pupils. For the perfecting of teachers in certain branches, they are often sent abroad, at the public expense, to study in the institutions of other countries, where these branches are most successfully taught. Of these, there were in 1835, thirteen in Berlin—several in Vienna—and one in Oxford, England. School examiners and school committees, as well as school teachers, are required to hold frequent meetings for discussion, and for mutual instruction and encouragement.

It is the policy of the Minister of Public Instruction, not to crowd the schools with too many pupils—but to furnish as many teachers as possible, particularly in the higher institutions, that each individual scholar may receive a due share of attention. As an illustration, I will refer to some of the universities. The university of St. Petersburg has two hundred and thirty pupils, and fifty-two officers and teachers, or one teacher to every four or five students. At Moscow, four hundred and fifty-six students, one hundred and sixty-eight teachers and officers, or one to every two or three students. That of Kasan, seventy officers and teachers, to two hundred and thirty-

eight students, or one to every three of four students. That at Kiew, forty-three officers and teachers, to sixty-two students, or nearly as many of the one as the other. I would remark, however, that some of the teachers are merely lecturers on particular branches, and take no active part in the discipline or instruction of the institution, and a few attend only to its business concerns. Some of the universities, also, are not full, the institutions being new, and a full corps of teachers being appointed at the commencement. With all these allowances, however, we may set it down as a principle, that in the universities it is intended that there shall be one teacher at least to every eight or ten students. This may be going to excess, but it is certain that the ambition to multiply students beyond all the means of teaching, has been a great injury to education in American institutions. Education can never be what it is capable of being, unless the teacher can command time to become familiar with each individual mind under his care, and to adapt his mode of teaching to its peculiarities. To instruct only in masses, and to apply the same methods of instruction to all, is like throwing the drugs of an apothecary's shop into one great caldron—stirring them together, and giving every patient in the hospital a portion of the mixture.

It is peculiarly interesting in noticing the efforts of Russia, to observe, that the blessings of a good common school education are now extended to tribes which from time immemorial have been in a state of barbarism. In the wild regions, beyond mount Caucasus, comprising the provinces recently acquired from Persia, the system of district schools is efficiently carried out. As early as 1835, there were already established in those parts of the empire, fifteen schools, with sixty teachers, and about one thousand three hundred children under instruction; so that in the common schools of this new and uncultivated region, one teacher is provided for every twenty scholars. Besides this, there is a gymnasium at Tiffis, in which Asiatic lads are fitted to enter the European universities.

All teachers throughout the empire, according to an ordinance of February 26, 1835, receive their salaries *monthly*, that their attention may not be distracted by family cares. For the encouragement of entire devotedness on the part of teachers, and to prevent all solicitude for the maintenance of their families, the minister of public in-

struction is authorized to grant, to the widows and orphans of those teachers who have particularly distinguished themselves, not only the usual pension, but a gratuity equal in amount to an entire salary of two years.

The officers of government employed in the distant provinces of the empire, in the distant parts of Siberia, and on the borders of Persia, complained, that their remote location deprived their children of the advantages of the gymnasia and universities, which others enjoyed. To obviate this inconvenience, and to equalize as far as possible the advantages of education, the children of these officers are taken to the nearest gymnasium or university, and their travelling expenses defrayed by government. All the institutions of education are subject to the same rigorous examination as in Prussia, and the minister of public instruction is, *ex officio*, chairman of the board of examiners for the universities. As the duties of this office have become very laborious, the government, in addition to a liberal supply of other helps, in 1835 appointed General Count Protassow, who had for some time acted as a school director, assistant minister of public instruction.

I have already mentioned the model institution for teachers at St. Petersburg. In 1835, seventy-six teachers were graduated, and the number is every year increasing. Under the influence of this school, and other governmental arrangements, the methods of teaching are continually improving; and, in his report for 1835, the Minister observes, that the moral improvement of both teachers and pupils is such as to encourage the most pleasing hopes, that within the last two years, the national interest in the subject of education has very greatly increased, and that it has now become a matter of the deepest interest to the whole people; and that as to the methods of instruction, the old mechanical *memoriter* mode is continually giving way to the system of *developing the faculties*. Many facts are stated in the report, which confirm the Minister's remark, in respect to the growing interest in the minds of the Russian people, on the subject of education, illustrating the important fact, that among whatever people a good system of instruction is efficiently carried out, a deep and general interest will be excited. The nobles and the commons appear to emulate each other in the advancement of this cause. The

nobility of Novgorod voluntarily contribute more than twelve thousand rubles a year for the Gymnasium in that place, and at Wologda the nobility contribute for a similar object nine thousand a year. At Cronstadt, the citizens volunteered to sustain a school at their own expense. At another place on the shores of the White Sea, the citizens have not only volunteered to maintain the school, but have also, of their own accord, entered into an obligation to erect a large and handsome stone building for the accommodation of the teachers and scholars. This was brought about by the zeal and activity of a single individual, whose name, though a barbarous one, ought here to be mentioned—Wassiligi Kologriew. This gentleman volunteered as an agent to promote the cause of education in the place of his residence, and besides giving his time and efforts, bore an equal share in all the expenses, and in addition, made a distinct donation of 2500 rubles for the advancement of the cause.

Another gentleman at Archangel, by the name of Kowalewsky, made a journey to a distant neighborhood inhabited by Samoiedes, Sirianes and other half barbarous tribes, to explain to them the advantages of education, and endeavor to establish a school among them. In this he was warmly seconded by the clergyman of the place, and, as the result of it, a single peasant or farmer, by the name of Anuphriew, engaged to support the school entirely for two years, and after that to contribute 300 rubles a year for five years longer, and in addition to this he contributed 1500 rubles for the erection of a school-house. The chief magistrate of the place also contributed, and allured by these examples the Sirianes put down nearly 15,000 rubles ; and as soon as the requisite preparations could be made, the school was opened with great solemnity and appropriate ceremonies, in the midst of an immense concourse of intensely interested spectators. I shall be greatly disappointed if we cannot find in Ohio, enlightened men in our cities, and farmers in the country, willing to do as much for education as the gentleman of Archangel, and the hard-working peasant of the frozen regions of northern Russia.

A merchant by the name of Pluessin in Liask, made a donation of 10,000 rubles for the foundation of a district school in that place, and offered in addition, to have the school kept in his own house, and to furnish it with firewood for three years. Tschistow, a citi-

zen of Moscow, gave 2300 rubles for the purchase of school books, to be distributed among the poor children of the first school district in that city.

Numerous other instances might be mentioned of donations from persons in all ranks in society—in money, books, houses, fuel, or whatever they had it in their power to give for the support of schools; but the above may be sufficient to show the spirit of the people and excite us to emulation.

It must be observed that the government makes provision for the maintenance of all the district schools, gymnasia and Universities; and that this liberality of private citizens arises from pure zeal for the cause, and is applied to the extending and increasing the advantages derived from governmental patronage, to the purchase of books and clothing for the poorer children, the establishment of school libraries, and the providing of suitable rewards for meritorious teachers and pupils, and securing the means of access to the school-house, and proper furniture for it. Every effort is made to provide a plentiful supply of good school books, and to establish suitable libraries for the use of teachers. Quite recently, a Russian lady, a Miss Darzoff, received from the government a premium of 2500 rubles for compiling a little work, entitled “Useful Readings for Children.”

In view of such facts as these, who is not ready to exclaim: “Well done, cold, semi-barbarous, despotic Russia!—may other nations more favored by nature and Providence emulate thy example!”

INTERNAL ARRANGEMENTS OF THE PRUSSIAN SCHOOLS.

I will now ask your attention to a few facts respecting the internal management of the schools in Prussia and some other parts of Germany, which were impressed on my mind by a personal inspection of those establishments.

One of the circumstances that interested me most was the excellent order and rigid economy with which all the Prussian institutions are conducted. Particularly in large boarding schools, where hundreds, and sometimes thousands of youth are collected together, the

benefits of the system are strikingly manifest. Every boy is taught to wait upon himself—to keep his person, clothing, furniture, and books, in perfect order and neatness ; and no extravagance in dress, and no waste of fuel or food, or property of any kind is permitted. Each student has his own single bed, which is generally a light mattress, laid upon a frame of slender bars of iron, because such bedsteads are not likely to be infested by insects, and each one makes his own bed and keeps it in order. In the house, there is a place for every thing and every thing must be in its place. In one closet are the shoe-brushes and blacking, in another the lamps and oil, in another the fuel. At the doors are good mats and scrapers, and every thing of the kind necessary for neatness and comfort, and every student is taught, as carefully as he is taught any other lesson, to make a proper use of all these articles at the right time, and then to leave them in good order at their proper places. Every instance of neglect is sure to receive its appropriate reprimand, and if necessary, severe punishment. I know of nothing that can benefit us more than the introduction of such oft-repeated lessons on carefulness and frugality into all our educational establishments ; for the contrary habits of carelessness and wastefulness, notwithstanding all the advantages which we enjoy, have already done us immense mischief. Very many of our families waste and throw away nearly as much as they use ; and one third of the expenses of housekeeping might be saved by system and frugality. It is true, we have such an abundance of every thing that this enormous waste is not so sensibly felt as it would be in a more densely populated region ; but it is not *always* to be so with us. The productions of our country for some years past have by no means kept pace with the increase of consumption, and many an American family during the last season has felt a hard pressure, where they never expected to feel one.

Especially should this be made a branch of female education, and studied faithfully and perseveringly by all who are to be wives and mothers, and have the care of families.

The universal success also and very beneficial results, with which the arts of drawing and designing, vocal and instrumental music, moral instruction and the Bible, have been introduced into schools, was another fact peculiarly interesting to me. I asked all the teach-

ers with whom I conversed, whether they did not sometimes find children who were actually incapable of learning to draw and to sing. I have had but one reply, and that was, that they found the same diversity of natural talent in regard to these as in regard to reading, writing, and the other branches of education ; but they had never seen a child who was capable of learning to read and write, who could not be taught to sing well and draw neatly, and that too without taking any time which would at all interfere with, indeed which would not actually promote his progress in other studies. In regard to the necessity of moral instruction and the beneficial influence of the Bible in schools, the testimony was no less explicit and uniform. I inquired of all classes of teachers, and men of every grade of religious faith, instructors in common schools, high schools, and schools of art, of professors in colleges, universities and professional seminaries, in cities and in the country, in places where there was a uniformity and in places where was a diversity of creeds, of believers and unbelievers, of rationalists and enthusiasts, of Catholics and Protestants ; and I never found but one reply, and that was, that to leave the moral faculty uninstructed was to leave the most important part of the human mind undeveloped, and to strip education of almost every thing that can make it valuable ; and that the Bible, independently of the interest attending it, as containing the most ancient and influential writings ever recorded by human hands, and comprising the religious system of almost the whole of the civilized world, is in itself the best book that can be put into the hands of children to interest, to exercise, and to unfold their intellectual and moral powers. Every teacher whom I consulted, repelled with indignation the idea that moral instruction is not proper for schools ; and spurned with contempt the allegation, that the Bible cannot be introduced into common schools without encouraging a sectarian bias in the matter of teaching ; an indignation and contempt which I believe will be fully participated in by every high-minded teacher in christendom.

A few instances, to illustrate the above mentioned general statements, I here subjoin :—Early in September I visited the Orphan House at Halle, an institution founded by the benevolence of Franke, about the year 1700, and which has been an object of special favor

with the present king of Prussia. It now contains from 2700 to 3000 boys, most of them orphans sustained by charity. After examining its extensive grounds, its commodious and neat buildings, its large book store, its noble printing establishment, for printing the Bible in the oriental and modern languages, its large apothecary's shop, for the dispensation of medicine to the poor, and the exquisitely beautiful statue of its founder, erected by Frederic William III; I was invited by Drs. Guerike and Netto to go into the dining-hall and see the boys partake of their supper. The hall is a very long and narrow room, and furnished the whole length of each side with short tables like the mess tables on board a man of war, each table accommodating about twelve boys. The tables were without cloths, but very clean, and were provided with little pewter basins of warm soup, and just as many pieces of dark and coarse, but very wholesome, bread, as there were to be boys at the table. When the bell rang, the boys entered in a very quiet and orderly manner, each with a little pewter spoon in his hand. When they had arranged themselves at table, at a signal from the teacher one of the boys ascended a pulpit near the centre of the hall, and in the most appropriate manner supplicated the blessing of God upon their frugal repast. The boys then each took his bit of bread in one hand, and with his spoon in the other, made a very quiet and healthful meal. They then united in singing two or three verses of a hymn, and retired in the same quiet and orderly manner in which they had entered. It being warm weather, they were dressed in jackets and trowsers of clean, coarse brown linen; and a more cheerful, healthy, intelligent set of youthful faces and glistening eyes I never saw before; and notwithstanding the gravity with which they partook of their supper and left the hall, when fairly in the yard, there was such a pattering of little feet, such a chattering of German, and such skipping and playing, as satisfied me that none of their boyish spirits had been broken by the discipline of the school.

At Weisenfels, near Lutzen where the great battle was fought in the thirty years' war, there is a collection of various schools, under the superintendence of Dr. Harnisch, in what was formerly a large convent. Among the rest there is one of those institutions peculiar to Prussia, in which the children of very destitute families are taken

and educated at the public expense, to become teachers in poor villages where they can never expect to receive a large compensation ; institutions of a class which we do not *need here*, because no villages in this country *need* be poor. Of course, though they have all the advantages of scientific advancement enjoyed in the most favored schools, frugality and self-denial form an important part of their education. Dr. Harnisch invited me to this part of the establishment to see these boys dine. When I came to the room, they were sitting at their writing tables, engaged in their studies as usual. At the ringing of the bell they arose. Some of the boys left the room, and the others removed the papers and books from the tables, and laid them away in their places. Some of the boys who had gone out, then re-entered with clean, coarse table cloths in their hands, which they spread over their writing tables. These were followed by others with loaves of brown bread, and plates provided with cold meat and sausages, neatly cut in slices, and jars of water, which they arranged on the table. Of these materials, after a short religious service, they made a cheerful and hearty meal ; then arose, cleared away their tables, swept their room, and after a suitable season of recreation, resumed their studies. They are taught to take care of themselves, independent of any help, and their only luxuries are the fruits and plants which they cultivate with their own hands, and which grow abundantly in the gardens of the institution.

INSTITUTIONS FOR REFORMATION.

At Berlin, I visited an establishment for the reformation of youthful offenders. Here boys are placed, who have committed offences that bring them under the supervision of the police, to be instructed, and rescued from vice, instead of being hardened in iniquity, by living in the common prison with old offenders. It is under the care of Dr. Kopf, a most simple-hearted, excellent old gentleman ; just such an one as reminds us of the ancient christians, who lived in the times of the persecution, simplicity and purity of the christian church. He has^{been} very successful in reclaiming the young offender, and many an one, who would otherwise have been forever lost, has, by the influence of this institution, been saved to himself—to his country—

and to God. It is a manual labor school ; and to a judicious intermingling of study and labor, religious instruction, kind treatment and necessary severity, it has owed its success. When I was there, most of the boys were employed in cutting screws for the rail-road which the government was then constructing between Berlin and Leipsic ; and there were but few who could not maintain themselves by their labor. As I was passing with Dr. K. from room to room, I heard some beautiful voices singing in an adjoining apartment, and on entering I found about twenty of the boys, sitting at a long table, making clothes for the establishment, and singing at their work. The Dr. enjoyed my surprise, and on going out, remarked—" I always keep these little rogues singing at their work, for while the children sing, the devil cannot come among them at all ; he can only sit out doors there and growl ; but if they stop singing, in the devil comes."—The Bible and the singing of religious hymns, are among the most efficient instruments which he employs for softening the hardened heart, and bringing the vicious and stubborn will to docility.

A similar establishment in the neighborhood of Hamburg, to which I was introduced by Dr. Julius, who is known to many of our citizens, afforded striking examples of the happy influence of moral and religious instruction, in reclaiming the vicious and saving the lost. Hamburg is the largest commercial city of Germany, and its population is extremely crowded. Though it is highly distinguished for its benevolent institutions, and for the hospitality and integrity of its citizens, yet the very circumstances in which it is placed, produce among the lowest class of its population, habits of degradation and beastliness, of which we have but few examples on this side the Atlantic. The children, therefore, received into this institution, are often of the very worst and most hopeless character. Not only are their *minds* most thoroughly depraved, but their very senses and bodily organization seem to partake in the viciousness and degradation of their hearts. Their appetites are so perverted, that sometimes the most loathsome and disgusting substances are preferred to wholesome food. The Superintendent, Mr. Wichern, states, that though plentifully supplied with provisions, yet when first received, some of them will steal and eat soap, rancid grease that has been laid aside for the purpose of greasing shoes, and even catch

May-bugs and devour them ; and it is with the utmost difficulty that these disgusting habits are broken up. An ordinary man might suppose that the task of restoring such poor creatures to decency and good morals was entirely hopeless. Not so with Mr. Wichern. He took hold with the firm hope that the moral power of the word of God is competent even to such a task. His means are prayer, the Bible, singing, affectionate conversation, severe punishment when unavoidable, and constant steady employment, in useful labor. On one occasion, when every other means seemed to fail, he collected the children together, and read to them, in the words of the New Testament, the simple narrative of the sufferings and death of Christ, with some remarks on the design and object of his mission to this world. The effect was wonderful. They burst into tears of contrition, and during the whole of that term, from June till October, the influence of this scene was visible in all their conduct. The idea that takes so strong a hold when the character of Christ is exhibited to such poor creatures, is, that *they are objects of affection* ; miserable, wicked, despised as they are, yet Christ, the son of God, loved them, and loved them enough to suffer and to die for them—and still loves them. The thought that *they can yet be loved*, melts the heart, and gives them hope, and is a strong incentive to reformation.

On another occasion, when considerable progress had been made in their moral education, the Superintendent discovered that some of them had taken nails from the premises, and applied them to their own use, without permission. He called them together, expressed his great disappointment and sorrow that they had profited so little by the instructions which had been given them, and told them that till he had evidence of their sincere repentance, he could not admit them to the morning and evening religious exercises of his family. With expressions of deep regret for their sin, and with promises, entreaties, and tears, they begged to have this privilege restored to them ; but he was firm in his refusal. A few evenings afterward, while walking in the garden, he heard youthful voices among the shrubbery ; and drawing near unperceived, he found that the boys had formed themselves into little companies of seven or eight each, and met morning and evening in different retired spots in the garden, to sing, read the Bible and pray among themselves ; to ask God to

forgive them the sins they had committed, and to give them strength to resist temptation in future. With such evidence of repentance he soon restored to them the privilege of attending morning and evening prayers with his family.—One morning soon after, on entering his study, he found it all adorned with wreaths of the most beautiful flowers, which the boys had arranged there at early day-break, in testimony of their joy and gratitude for his kindness. Thus rapidly had these poor creatures advanced in moral feeling, religious sensibility, and good taste.

In the spring, Mr. Wichern gives to each boy a patch of ground in the garden, which he is to call his own, and cultivate as he pleases. One of the boys began to erect a little hut of sticks and earth upon his plot, in which he might rest during the heat of the day, and to which he might retire when he wished to be alone. When it was all finished, it occurred to him to dedicate it to its use by religious ceremonies. Accordingly, he collected the boys together. The hut was adorned with wreaths of flowers, a little table was placed in the centre on which lay the open Bible, ornamented in the same manner. He then read with great seriousness the 14th, 15, and 24th verses of the cxviii. Psalm :

“ The Lord is my strength and my song, and is become my salvation.”

“ The voice of rejoicing and salvation is heard in the tabernacles of the righteous.”

“ This is the day which the Lord hath made. We will rejoice and be glad in it.”

After this, the exercises were concluded by singing and prayer. Another boy afterwards built him a hut, which was to be dedicated in a similar way ; but when the boys came together, they saw in it a piece of timber which belonged to the establishment, and ascertaining that it had been taken without permission, they at once demolished the whole edifice, and restored the timber to its place. At the time of harvest, when they first entered the field to gather the potatoes, before commencing the work, they formed into a circle, and much to the surprise of the Superintendent, broke out together into the harvest hymn :

“ Now let us all thank God.”

After singing this, they fell to their work with great cheerfulness and vigor.

I mention these instances, from numerous others which might be produced, to show how much may be done in reclaiming the most hopeless youthful offenders by a judicious application of the right means of moral influence. How short-sighted and destructive, then, is the policy which would exclude such influence from our public institutions! The same effects have been produced by houses of reformation in our own country. I would mention, as one instance, the institution of Mr. Welles in Massachusetts.

Now, laying aside all considerations of benevolence and of religious obligation, is it not for the highest good of the State, that these minds should be withdrawn from vice and trained up to be enlightened and useful citizens, contributing a large share to the public wealth, virtue and happiness; rather than that they should come forward in life miserable criminals, of no use to themselves or the public, depredating on the property and violating the rights of the industrious citizens, increasing the public burdens by their crimes, endangering the well being of society, and undermining our liberties! They can be either the one or the other, according as we choose to educate them ourselves in the right way, or leave them to be educated by the thieves and drunkards in our streets, or the convicts in our prisons. The efforts made by some foreign nations to educate this part of their population, is a good lesson for us. All the schools and houses of reformation in Prussia, do not cost the government so much as old England is obliged to expend in prisons and constables for the regulation of that part of her population, for which the government provides no schools but the hulks and the jails; and I leave it to any one to say which arrangement produces the greatest amount of public happiness.

When I was in Berlin I went into the public prison, and visited every part of the establishment. At last I was introduced to a very large hall which was full of children, with their books and teachers, and having all the appearance of a common Prussian school-room. "What, said I, is it possible that all these children are imprisoned here for crime?" "Oh no," said my conductor, smiling at my simplicity, "but if a parent is imprisoned for crime, and on that account his children are left destitute of the means of education, and liable to grow up in ignorance and crime, the government has them

taken here, and maintained and educated for useful employment." The thought brought tears to my eyes. This was a new idea to me. I know not that it has ever been suggested in the United States ; but surely it is the duty of government, as well as its highest interest, when a man is paying the penalty of his crime in a public prison, to see that his unoffending children are not left to suffer, and to inherit their father's vices. Surely it would be better for the child, and *cheaper* as well as better, for the State. Let it not be supposed that a man would go to prison for the sake of having his children taken care of, for they who go to prison usually have little regard for their children ; and if they had, discipline like that of the Berlin prison would soon sicken them of such a bargain.

Where education is estimated according to its real value, people are willing to expend money for the support of schools ; and if necessary, to deny themselves some physical advantages for the sake of giving their children the blessings of moral and intellectual culture. In the government of Baden, four per cent of all the public expense is for education—they have a school with an average of two or three well qualified teachers to every three miles of territory, and every one hundred children ; and that too, when the people are so poor that they can seldom afford any other food than dry barley-bread, and a farmer considers it a luxury to be able to allow his family the use of butter-milk three or four times a year. In Prussia, palaces and convents are every where turned into houses of education ; and accommodations originally provided for princes and bishops are not considered too good for the schoolmaster and his pupils. But, though occupying palaces, they have no opportunity to be idle or luxurious. Hard labor and frugal living are every where the indispensable conditions to a teacher's life, and I must say, that I have no particular wish that it should be otherwise ; for it is only those who are willing to work hard and live frugally, that ever do much good in such a world as this.

I pass now to the consideration of a question of the deepest interest to us all, and that is, can the common schools in our State be made adequate to the wants of our population ? I do not hesitate to answer this question decidedly in the affirmative ; and to show that I give this answer on good grounds, I need only to state the

proper object of education, and lay before you what is actually now done towards accomplishing this object in the common schools of Prussia and Wirtemberg.

What is the proper object of education? The proper object of education is a thorough development of all the intellectual and moral powers—the awakening and calling forth of every talent that may exist, even in the remotest and obscurest corner of the State, and giving it a useful direction. A system that will do this, and such a system only, do I consider adequate to the wants of our population ; such a system, and such a system only, can avert all the evils and produce all the benefits which our common schools were designed to avert and produce. True, such a system must be far more extensive and complete than any now in operation among us—teachers must be more numerous, skilful, persevering, and self-denying—parents must take greater interest in the schools and do more for their support—and the children must attend punctually and regularly, till the whole prescribed course is completed. All this can be done, and I hope will be done ; and to show that the thing is really practicable, I now ask your attention to the course of instruction in the common schools of Prussia and Wirtemberg, and other European States, which have done the most in the matter of public instruction.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IN THE COMMON SCHOOLS OF PRUSSIA AND WIRTEMBERG.

The whole course comprises eight years, and includes children from the ages of six till fourteen ; and it is divided into four parts, of two years each. It is a first principle, that the children be well accommodated as to house and furniture. The school-room must be well constructed, the seats convenient, and the scholars made comfortable, and kept interested. The younger pupils are kept at school but four hours in the day—two in the morning and two in the evening, with a recess at the close of each hour. The older, six hours, broken by recesses as often as is necessary. Most of the school-houses have a bathing place, a garden and a mechanics' shop attached to them, to promote the cleanliness and health of the children, and to aid in mechanical and agricultural instruction. It will be seen by

the schedule which follows, that a vast amount of instruction is given during these eight years—and, lest it should seem that so many branches must confuse the young mind, and that they must necessarily be but partially taught, I will say in the outset, that the industry, skill and energy of teachers regularly trained to their business, and depending entirely upon it ; the modes of teaching ; the habit of always finishing whatever is begun ; the perfect method which is preserved ; the entire punctuality and regularity of attendance on the part of the scholars ; and other things of this kind, facilitate a rapidity and exactness of acquisition and discipline, which may well seem incredible to those who have never witnessed it.

The greatest care is taken that acquisition does not go beyond discipline ; and that the taxation of mind be kept entirely and clearly within the constitutional capacity of mental and physical endurance. The studies must never weary, but always interest—the appetite for knowledge must never be cloyed, but be kept always sharp and eager. These purposes are greatly aided by the frequent interchange of topics, and by lively conversational exercises. Before the child is even permitted to learn his letters, he is under conversational instruction, frequently for six months or a year ; and then a single week is sufficient to introduce him into intelligible and accurate plain reading.

Every week is systematically divided, and every hour appropriated. The scheme for the week is written on a large sheet of paper, and fixed in a prominent part of the school-room, so that every scholar knows what his business will be for every hour in the week ; and the plan thus marked out is rigidly followed. As a specimen I present the following study sheet given me by Dr. Diesterweg, of Berlin, and which was the plan for his school when I visited it in September, 1836.

WEEKLY COURSE OF STUDY

In the Teachers' Seminary and Boys' School, under the care of Dr. Diesterweg, at Berlin, in the summer term, 1836.

The Teachers' Seminary is divided into three classes, which are designated by the Roman numerals on the left hand of the columns, and the Boys' School into six, designated by the Arabic figures in the same column. The students in the Teachers' Seminary are employed as instructors in the Boys' School, under the inspection of their teachers. The capital letters at the right hand of the columns are the initials of the teachers who superintend the class in the particular branch mentioned. The whole number of instructors, exclusive of the pupils in the teachers' department, is six.

| Hours. | MONDAY. | TUESDAY. | WEDNESDAY. | THURSDAY. | FRIDAY. | SATURDAY. |
|--------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|
| 8 | II. Arithmetic - R. | II. Religion - B. | II. Theory of Music E. | II. Botany - - - G. | II. Religion - - - B. | II. Arithmetic - B. |
| 9 | III. Theory of Music E. | III. Botany - - - G. | III. Religion - - - B. | III. Geometry - - - S. | III. Arithmetic - - - G. | III. Religion - B. |
| 10 | I. Arithmetic - G. | I. Latin - - - Q. | I. Arithmetic - G. | I. German - - - R. | I. Latin - - - Q. | I. Arithmetic - G. |
| | 2. } Latin D. and R. | 2. } Religion - - - B. | 2. } Latin - J. and R. | 2. } Latin - - - Q. and R. | 2. } Religion - - - B. | 2. } Latin Q. and R. |
| | 3. } | 3. } | 3. } | 3. } | 3. } | 3. } |
| 11 | II. Drawing - - F. | II. School keeping - B. | II. German - - - B. | II. Botany - - - G. | II. School keeping - B. | II. German - - B. |
| 12 | III. Arithmetic - G. | III. Botany - - - G. | III. Violin - - - E. | III. Singing - - - E. | III. Singing - - - E. | III. Singing - - E. |
| 1 | I. Latin - - - R. | I. Religion - - - B. | I. Latin - - - Q. | I. Latin - - - Q. | I. Religion - - - B. | I. Latin - - - Q. |
| 2 | History - - - R. | 2. German - - - R. | 2. German - - - R. | 2. History - - - R. | 2. Geography - - - G. | 2. } Arith. B. and S. |
| 3 | Singing - - - E. | 3. French - - - B. | 3. German - - - B. | 3. Arithmetic - - - S. | 3. French - - - B. | 3. } Arith. B. and S. |
| 4 | Latin - - - R. | 4. Latin - - - S. | 4. Latin - - - R. | 4. Latin - - - R. | 4. Religion - - - S. | 4. } Religion - G. |
| 5 | Arithmetic - S. | 5. } Singing - E. and D. | 5. Religion - - - G. | 5. Arithmetic - - - S. | 5. Arithmetic - S. and R. | 5. } Religion - G. |
| 6 | Religion - - D. | 6. } Singing - E. and D. | 6. German - - - S. | 6. Religion - - - D. | 6. } Arithmetic - S. and R. | 6. } Arithmetic - R. |
| 7 | II. Drawing - - F. | II. Arithmetic - - R. | II. Singing - - - E. | II. Arithmetic - - - R. | II. Ornamental Writing M. | II. Singing - - E. |
| 8 | III. Singing - - E. | III. German - - - B. | III. History - - - B. | III. Geography - - - B. | III. Religion - - - B. | III. History - - B. |
| 9 | I. German - - - R. | I. French - - - B. | I. German - - - R. | I. Singing - - - E. | I. French - - - R. | I. German - - R. |
| 10 | 2. French - - - B. | 2. } Arithmetic - B. and S. | 2. French - - - B. | 2. Arithmetic - - - B. | 2. German - - - R. | 2. French - - B. |
| 11 | 3. Geography - S. | 3. } Singing - - - E. | 3. Geography - - - S. | 3. Geography - - - S. | 3. } Singing - E. and S. | 3. German - - B. |
| 12 | 4. German - - - S. | 4. } Singing - - - E. | 4. German - - - S. | 4. German - - - S. | 4. } Singing - E. and S. | 4. German - - S. |
| 1 | 5. German - - - D. | 5. } Singing - - - E. | 5. German - - - D. | 5. German - - - D. | 5. } German - - - D. | 5. } Reading D. & G. |
| 2 | 6. Reading - - G. | 6. } Singing - - - E. | 6. Reading - - - G. | 6. Reading - - - D. and G. | 6. } Reading - G. and S. | 6. } Reading D. & G. |

| Hours. | MONDAY. | TUESDAY. | WEDNESDAY. | THURSDAY. | FRIDAY. | SATURDAY. |
|-----------|---|--|--|---|--|--|
| 10 to 11. | II. Geometry - D. III. Drawing - E. I. Singing - F. 2. Geography - G. 3. German - B. and S. 4. Reading - S. 5. Writing - D. 6. Arithmetic - R. | II. School keeping - D. III. Violin - E. 1. } 2. } 3. } 4. } 5. } 6. } Reading - D. Arithmetic - R. | II. Geography - B. III. Arithmetic - G. I. French - E. 2. Singing - B. 3. Writing - S. 4. Reading - S. 5. Arithmetic - R. 6. Reading - R. | II. Theory of Arithmetic D III. Piano - S. 1. Geography - G. 2. German - R and B. 3. Arithmetic - S. 4. Writing - D. 5. German - S. 6. German - S. | II. School keeping - D. III. Ornamental Writing M. 1. Geography - G. 2. Singing - E. 3. Geometry G. D. and B. 4. Reading - D. 5. Writing - R. 6. Writing - R. | II. History - B. III. Reading - D. I. Geography - G. 2. Singing - E. 3. } 4. } 5. } 6. } Writing B. S. D. and R. |
| 11 to 12 | II. Natural Philos. D. III. Drawing - F. | II. Singing - C. III. German - D. | II. Violin - E. III. Ornamental Writing M. | II. Natural Philosophy Q III. Arithmetic - G. | II. Singing - E. III. German - D. | II. } III. } Reading D. |
| 2 to 3 | II. Violin - E. III. Geometry - S. 1. French - B. 2. Reading - B. 3. } 4. } 5. } 6. } Arithmetic - S. Reading - D. Writing - R. | II. Violin - E. III. Piano - S. 1. } 2. } 3. } 4. } 5. } 6. } Botany - G. and R. Writing - B. Arithmetic - S. German - D. | | | II. Geometry - S. III. Botany - G. and R. 1. } 2. } 3. } 4. } 5. } 6. } Writing - B. Reading - S. Singing - E. and D. | I. Drawing - F. |
| 3 to 4 | II. History - R. III. Writing - B. 1. French - B. 2. Reading - B. 3. } 4. } 5. } 6. } Writing - S. Reading - D. German - S. | II. Geography - B. III. German - R. 1. Reading - B. 2. } 3. } 4. } 5. } 6. } Writing - S. Reading - D. Writing - S. | II. III. 1. } 2. } 3. } 4. } 5. } 6. } Drawing F. B. S. & D. | II. III. 1. } 2. } 3. } 4. } 5. } 6. } Drawing F. B. S. & D. | II. Geography - B. III. History - R. 1. Writing - B. 2. Reading - S. 3. } 4. } 5. } 6. } Writing S. and D. | I. Drawing - F. |
| 4 to 5 | I. Philosophy of Education - D. | | | I. Violin } I. Singing } - - - - E. | I. Singing } I. Violin } - - - - E. | I. Religion - B. |

Through all the parts of the course there are frequent reviews and repetitions, that the impressions left on the mind may be distinct, lively and permanent. The exercises of the day are always commenced and closed with a short prayer ; and the bible and hymn book are the first volumes put into the pupil's hands, and these books they always retain and keep in constant use during the whole progress of their education.

The general outline of the eight years' course is nearly as follows:

I. *First part, of two years, including children from six to eight years old—four principal branches, namely:*

1. Logical Exercises, or oral teaching in the exercise of the powers of observation and expression, including religious instruction and the singing of hymns ;
2. Elements of Reading ;
3. Elements of Writing ;
4. Elements of Number, or Arithmetic.

II. *Second part, of two years, including children from eight to ten years old—seven principal branches, namely:*

1. Exercises in Reading ;
2. Exercises in Writing ;
3. Religious and Moral Instruction, in select Bible Narratives ;
4. Language, or Grammar ;
5. Numbers, or Arithmetic ;
6. Doctrine of space and form, or Geometry ;
7. Singing by note, or Elements of Music.

III. *Third part, of two years, including children from ten to twelve years old—eight principal branches:*

1. Exercises in Reading and Elocution ;
2. Exercises in Ornamental Writing, preparatory to drawing ;
3. Religious Instruction in the connected Bible history ;
4. Language, or Grammar, with parsing ;
5. Real Instruction, or knowledge of nature and the external world, including the first elements of the sciences and the arts of life—of geography and history ;
6. Arithmetic, continued through fractions and the rules of proportion ;
7. Geometry—doctrine of magnitudes and measures ;
8. Singing, and science of vocal and instrumental music.

IV. *Fourth part, of two years, including children from twelve to fourteen years old—six principal branches, namely:*

1. Religious Instruction in the religious observation of nature ; the life and discourses of Jesus Christ ; the history of the Christian religion, in connection with the cotemporary civil history ; and the doctrines of christianity ;

2. Knowledge of the world, and of mankind, including civil society, elements of law, agriculture, mechanic arts, manufactures, &c. ;

3. Language, and exercises in composition ;

4. Application of arithmetic and the mathematics to the business of life, including surveying and civil engineering ;

5. Elements of Drawing ;

6. Exercises in Singing, and the science of music.

We subjoin a few specimens of the modes of teaching under several of the above divisions.

I. *First part, Children from six to eight years of age.*

1. Conversations between the teacher and pupils, intended to exercise the powers of observation and expression.

The teacher brings the children around him, and engages them in familiar conversation with himself. He generally addresses them altogether, and they all reply simultaneously ; but whenever necessary, he addresses an individual, and requires the individual to answer alone. He first directs their attention to the different objects in the school-room, their position, form, color, size, materials of which they are made, &c., and requires precise and accurate descriptions. He then requires them to notice the various objects that meet their eye in the way to their respective homes ; and a description of these objects and the circumstances under which they saw them, will form the subject of the next morning's lesson. Then the house in which they live ; the shop in which their father works ; the garden in which they walk, &c., will be the subject of the successive lessons ; and in this way for six months or a year, the children are taught to study *things*, to use their own powers of observation, and speak with

readiness and accuracy, before books are put into their hands at all. A few specimens will make the nature and utility of this mode of teaching perfectly obvious.

In a school in Berlin a boy has assigned him for a lesson, a description of the remarkable objects in certain directions from the school-house, which is situated in Little Cathedral street. He proceeds as follows: "When I come out of the school-house into Little Cathedral street, and turn to the right, I soon pass on my left hand the Maria place, the Gymnasium and the Anklam gate. When I come out of Little Cathedral street, I see on my left hand the White Parade place, and within that, at a little distance, the beautiful statue of Frederick the Great, King of Prussia. It is made of white marble, and stands on a pedestal of variegated marble, and is fenced in with an iron railing. From here, I have on my right a small place, which is a continuation of the Parade Place; and at the end of this, near the wall, I see St. Peter's Church, or the Wall street church, as it is sometimes called. This church has a green yard before it, planted with trees, which is called the Wall Church Yard. St. Peter's Church is the oldest church in the city; it has a little round tower, which looks green, because it is mostly covered with copper, which is made green by exposure to the weather. When I go out of the school-house to the lower part of Little Cathedral street by the Coal market, through Shoe street and Carriage street, I come to the Castle. The Castle is a large building, with two small towers, and is built around a square yard, which is called the Castle yard. In the Castle there are two churches, and the King and his Ministers of State, and the Judges of the Supreme Court, and Consistory of the Church, hold their meetings there. From the Coal market, I go through Shoe street to the Hay market, and adjoining this is the New Market, which was formed after St. Nicholas' Church was burnt, which formerly stood in that place. Between the Hay market and the New market is the City Hall, where the officers and magistrates of the city hold their meetings."

If a garden is given to a class for a lesson, they are asked the size of the garden, its shape, which they may draw on a slate with a pencil—whether there are trees in it—what the different parts of a tree

are—what parts grow in the spring, and what parts decay in autumn, and what parts remain the same throughout the winter—whether any of the trees are fruit trees—what fruits they bear—when they ripen—how they look and taste—whether the fruit be wholesome or otherwise—whether it is prudent to eat much of it;—what plants and roots there are in the garden, and what use is made of them—what flowers there are, and how they look, &c. The teacher may then read them the description of the garden of Eden in the second chapter of Genesis—sing a hymn with them, the imagery of which is taken from the fruits and blossoms of a garden, and explain to them how kind and bountiful God is, who gives us such wholesome plants and fruits, and such beautiful flowers, for our nourishment and gratification.

The external heavens also make an interesting lesson. The sky—its appearance and color at different times; the clouds—their color, their varying form and movements; the sun—its rising and setting, its concealment by clouds, its warming the earth and giving it life and fertility, its great heat in summer, and the danger of being exposed to it unprotected; the moon—its appearance by night, full, gibbous, horned; its occasional absence from the heavens; the stars—their shining, difference among them, their number, distance from us, &c. In this connection the teacher may read to them the eighteenth and nineteenth Psalms, and other passages of scripture of that kind, sing with them a hymn celebrating the glory of God in the creation, and enforce the moral bearing of such contemplations by appropriate remarks. A very common lesson is, the family and family duties—love to parents, love to brothers and sisters—concluding with appropriate passages from scripture, and singing a family hymn.

2d. Elements of Reading.

After a suitable time spent in the exercises above described, the children proceed to learn the elements of reading. The first step is to exercise the organs of sound, till they have perfect command of their vocal powers, and this, after the previous discipline in conversation and singing, is a task soon accomplished. They are then taught to utter distinctly all the vowel sounds. The characters or letters representing these sounds are then shown and described to

them till the form and power of each are distinctly impressed upon their memories. The same process is then gone through in respect to diphthongs and consonants. Last of all, after having acquired a definite and distinct view of the different sounds, and of the forms of the letters which respectively represent these sounds, they are taught the names of these letters, with the distinct understanding that the *name* of a letter and the *power* of a letter, are two very different things.

They are now prepared to commence reading. The letters are printed in large form on square cards, the class stands up before a sort of rack, the teacher holds the cards in his hand, places one upon the rack, and a conversation of this kind passes between him and his pupils : What letter is that ? H. He places another on the rack—What letter is that ? A. I now put these two letters together, thus, (moving the cards close together), HA—What sound do these two letters signify ? Ha. There is another letter—What letter is that ? (putting it on the rack.) R. I now put this third letter to the other two, thus, HAR—What sound do the three letters make ? Har. There is another letter—What is it ? D. I join this letter to the other three, thus, HARD—What do they all made ? Hard. Then he proceeds in the same way with the letters F-I-S-T ; joins these four letters to the preceding four, HARD-FIST, and the pupils pronounce, *Hard-fist*. Then with the letters E and D, and joins these two to the preceding eight, and the pupils pronounce *Hard-fisted*. In this way they are taught to read words of any length—(for you may easily add to the above, N-E-S-S, and make *Hard-fistedness*)—the longest as easily as the shortest ; and in fact they learn their letters ; they learn to read words of one syllable and of several syllables, and to read in plain reading by the same process at the same moment. After having completed a sentence, or several sentences, with the cards and rack, they then proceed to read the same words and sentences in their spelling books.

3. Elements of Writing.

The pupils are first taught the right position of the arms and body in writing, the proper method of holding the pen, &c. ; and are exercised on these points till their habits are formed correctly. The different marks used in writing are then exhibited to them, from

the simple point or straight line, to the most complex figure. The variations of form and position which they are capable of assuming, and the different parts of which the complex figures are composed are carefully described, and the student is taught to imitate them, beginning with the most simple, then the separate parts of the complex, then the joining of the several parts to a whole, with his pencil and slate. After having acquired facility in this exercise he is prepared to write with his ink and paper. The copy is written upon the black-board; the paper is laid before each member of the class, and each has his pen ready in his hand awaiting the word of his teacher. If the copy be the simple point, or line 1, the teacher repeats the syllable *one, one*, slowly at first, and with gradually increasing speed, and at each repetition of the sound the pupils write. In this way they learn to make the mark both correctly and rapidly. If the figure to be copied consist of two strokes, (thus, 7,) the teacher pronounces *one, two, one two*, slowly at first, and then rapidly as before; and the pupils make the first mark, and then the second, at the sound of each syllable as before. If the figure consist of three strokes, (thus, 2,) the teacher pronounces *one, two, three*, and the pupils write as before. So when they come to make letters—the letter *a* has five strokes, thus, *a*. When that is the copy, the teacher says deliberately, *one, two, three, four, five*, and at the sound of each syllable the different strokes composing the letter are made; the speed of utterance is gradually accelerated, till finally the *a* is made very quickly, and at the same time neatly. By this method of teaching, a plain, neat and quick hand is easily acquired.

4. Elements of Number, or Arithmetic.

In this branch of instruction I saw no improvements in the mode of teaching not already substantially introduced into the best schools of our own country. I need not, therefore, enter into any details respecting them—excepting so far as to say that the student is taught to demonstrate and perfectly to understand the reason and nature of every rule before he uses it.

(See *Arithmetics*, by Colburn, Ray, Miss Beecher and others.)

II. *Second part—Children from eight to ten years of age.*

1. Exercises in Reading.

The object of these exercises in this part of the course, is to acquire the habit of reading with accuracy and readiness, with due regard to punctuation, and with reference to orthography. Sometimes the whole class read together, and sometimes an individual by himself, in order to accustom them to both modes of reading, and to secure the advantages of both. The sentence is first gone through with in the class, by distinctly spelling each word as it occurs ; then by pronouncing each word distinctly without spelling it ; a third time, by pronouncing the words and mentioning the punctuation points as they occur. A fourth time, the sentence is read with the proper pauses indicated by the punctuation points, without mentioning them. Finally, the same sentence is read with particular attention to the intonations of the voice. Thus, one thing is taken at a time, and pupils must become thorough in each as it occurs, before they proceed to the next. One great benefit of the class reading together is, that each individual has the same amount of exercise as if he were the only one under instruction, his attention can never falter, and no part of the lesson escapes him. A skilful teacher once accustomed to this mode of reading, can as easily detect any fault, mispronunciation, or a negligence, in any individual, as if that individual were reading alone.

The process is sometimes shortened, and the sentence read only three times, namely—“according to the words, according to the punctuation, according to the life.”

2. Exercises in Writing.

The pupils proceed to write copies in joining hand, both large and small, the principles of teaching being essentially as described in the first part of the course. The great object here is, to obtain a neat, swift, business hand. Sometimes without a copy they write from the dictation of the teacher ; and in most cases instruction in orthography and punctuation is combined with that in penmanship. They are also taught to make and mend their own pens, and in doing this to be economical of their quills.

3. Religious and moral instruction in select Bible narratives.

In this branch of teaching the methods are various, and the teacher adopts the method best adapted in his judgment, to the particular circumstances of his own school, or to the special objects which he may have in view with a particular class. Sometimes he calls the class around him and relates to them, in his own language, some of the simple narratives of the Bible or reads it to them in the words of the Bible itself, or directs one of the children to read it aloud; and then follows a friendly, familiar conversation between him and the class; respecting the narrative, their little doubts are proposed and resolved, their questions put and answered, and the teacher unfolds the moral and religious instruction to be derived from the lesson, and illustrates it by appropriate quotations from the didactic and preceptive parts of the scripture. Sometimes he explains to the class a particular virtue or vice—a truth or a duty; and after having clearly shown what it is, he takes some Bible narrative which strongly illustrates the point in discussion, reads it to them, and directs their attention to it with special reference to the preceding narrative.

A specimen or two of these different methods will best show what they are :

(a) Read the narrative of the birth of Christ as given by Luke 2 : 1-20. Observe, Christ was born for the salvation of men, so also for the salvation of children. Christ is the children's friend. Heaven rejoices in the good of men. Jesus, though so great and glorious, makes his appearance in a most humble condition. He is the teacher of the poor, as well as of the rich.

With these remarks compare other texts of the Bible :

“ Jno. 3 : 16. For God so loved the world that he gave his only begotten son, that whosoever believeth in him should not perish, but have everlasting life.”

“ I. Jno. 4 : 9. In this was manifested the love of God towards us; because God sent his only begotten son into the world that we might live through him.”

“ Mark 10 : 14, 15. But when Jesus saw it he was much displeased, and said unto them, suffer little children to come unto me, for of such is the kingdom of God : Verily I say unto you, whosoever shall not receive the kingdom of God as a little child, he shall not enter therein.”

And the lesson is concluded with singing a Christmas Hymn.

Jesus feeds five thousand men : Jno. 6 : 1-14.

God can bless a little so that it will do great good.

Economy suffers nothing to be lost—other texts Ps. 145 : 15, 16.

“The eyes of all wait upon thee, and thou givest them their meat in due season.”

“Thou openest thy hand and satisfiest the desire of every living thing.” Matt. 6 : 31-33.

Story of Cain and Abel. Gen. 4 : 1-16.

Remarks.—Two men may do the same thing externally, and yet the merit of their acts be very different. God looks at the heart. Be careful not to cherish envy or ill will in the heart. You know not to what crimes they may lead you. Remorse and misery of the fratricide—other texts. Matt. 15 : 19. Heb. 11 : 4. I. Jno. 3 : 12. Job, 34 : 32.

“19. For out of the heart proceed evil thoughts, murders, adulteries, fornications, thefts, false witness, blasphemies.”

“4. By faith Abel offered unto God a more excellent sacrifice than Cain, by which he obtained witness, that he was righteous, God testifying of his gifts ; and by it he, being dead, yet speaketh.”

“12. Not as Cain *who* was of that wicked one, and slew his brother. And wherefore slew he him ? Because his own works were evil, and his brother's righteous.”

Story of Jesus in the Temple. Luke 2 : 41-52.

Jesus in his childhood was very fond of learning—(he heard and asked questions ;) God's Word was his delight, he understood what he heard and read—(men were astonished at his understanding and answers.) He carefully obeyed his parents—(he went with them and was subject to them.) And as he grew up his good conduct endeared him to God and man—other texts. Eph. 6 : 1-4. Prov. 3 : 1-4.

“1. Children obey your parents, in the Lord : for this is right.

“2. Honor thy father and thy mother, (which is the first commandment with promise :)

“3. That it may be well with thee, and thou mayest live long on the earth.

“4. And, ye fathers, provoke not your children to wrath : but bring them up in the nurture and admonition of the Lord.”

“1. My son, forget not my law ; but let thine heart keep my commandments :

“2. For length of days, and long life, and peace, shall they add to thee.

“3. Let not mercy and truth forsake thee : bind them about thy neck ; write them upon the table of thine heart :

“4. So shalt thou find favor and good understanding in the sight of God and man.

On the other mode of teaching, the teacher for example, states the general truth, that God protects and rewards the good, and punishes the bad. In illustration of this he reads to them the narrative of Daniel in the lion's den, and the death which overtook his wicked accusers. Dan. 6. In illustration of the same truth, the escape of Peter and the miserable death of his persecutor, Herod, may be read. Acts 12.

The teacher may impress upon the mind of his class, that diligence, scrupulous fidelity and conscientious self-control, are the surest guarantees of success in life. And in illustration of the statement, read the narrative of Joseph's conduct in his master's house in Egypt, and in the prison, and in the results of it. Gen. 39. So also, various incidents in the life of Jesus may be used to great advantage in illustrating different virtues.

It is recommended, that the teacher employ, in his instructions, the translation of the scripture in general use among the people; but that he occasionally take the original scriptures and read to the children, in his own translation, and sometimes use simple translations from different authors, that the children may early learn to notice the diversities in different faithful translations, and see what they really amount to.

It is scarcely necessary to observe, that a teacher who understands his business, and is faithful to his trust, will scrupulously abstain from sectarian peculiarities, or from casting odium on the tenets of any of the christian denominations. A man who has not magnanimity or enlargement of mind enough for this, is not fit to be employed as a teacher, even in the humblest branches of knowledge.

4. Language, or Grammar.

The knowledge of the native tongue; the ability to use it with correctness, facility, and power, is justly regarded as one of the most important branches of common school instruction. It is the principal object of the *logical exercises*, or as they may be justly termed, *the exercises in thinking and speaking*, already described as the first subject of study in the first part of the course, before the child has begun to use his book at all.

In this second part of the course, grammar is taught directly and scientifically, yet by no means in a dry and technical manner.—On

the contrary, technical terms are carefully avoided, till the child has become familiar with the nature and use of the things designated by them, and he is able to use them as the names of ideas which have a definite existence in his mind, and not as awful sounds dimly shadowing forth some mysteries of science into which he has no power to penetrate.

The first object is to illustrate the different parts of speech, such as the noun, the verb, the adjective, the adverb ; and this is done by engaging the pupil in conversation and leading him to form sentences in which the particular part of speech to be learned shall be the most important word, and directing his attention to the nature and use of the word in the place where he uses it. For example, let us suppose the nature and use of the adverb is to be taught:—The teacher writes upon the black-board the words “here, there, near,” &c. He then says, “children we are all together in this room—by which of the words on the black-board can you express this? Children—“We are all *here*.” Teacher—“Now look out of the window and see the church ; what can you say of the church with the second word on the black-board?” Children—“The church is *there*.” Teacher—“The distance between us and the church is not great ; how will you express this by a word on the black-board?” Children—“The church is *near*.” The fact that these different words express the same sort of relations is then explained, and accordingly that they belong to the same class, or are the same part of speech. The variations of these words is next explained. “Children, you say the church is near, but there is a shop between us and the church ; what will you say of the shop? Children—“The shop is *nearer*.” Teacher—“But there is a fence between us and the shop. Now when you think of the distance between us, the shop and the fence, what will you say of the fence? Children—“The fence is *nearest*.” So of other verbs. “The lark sings *well*. Compare the singing of the lark with that of the canary bird. Compare the singing of the nightingale with that of the canary bird.” After all the different sorts of adverbs and their variations have in this way been illustrated, and the pupils understand that all words of this kind are called *adverbs*, the definition of the adverb is given as it stands in the grammar, and the book is put into their hands to study the chapter on this topic.

In this way the pupil understands what he is doing at every step of his progress, and his memory is never burdened with mere names to which he can attach no definite meaning.

The mode of teaching the subsequent branches is founded on the same general principles, and it may not be necessary to give particular examples.

5. Numbers, or Arithmetic.
6. Doctrine of space and form, or Geometry.
7. Singing by note, or elements of Music.

The method of teaching music has already been successfully introduced into our own state, and whoever visits the schools of Messrs. Mason or Solomon, in Cincinnati, will have a much better idea of what it is than any description can give; nor will any one who visits these schools entertain a doubt, that all children, from six to ten years of age, who are capable of learning to read, are capable of learning to sing, and that this branch of instruction can be introduced into all our common schools with the greatest advantage, not only to the comfort and discipline of the pupils, but also to their progress in their other studies.

The students are taught from the black-board. The different sounds are represented by lines of different lengths, by letters, by figures, and by musical notes; and the pupils are thoroughly drilled on each successive principle before proceeding to the next.

III. *Third part of two years—Children from ten to twelve.*

1. Exercises in Reading and Elocution.

The object of these exercises in this part of the course is to accustom the pupils to read in a natural and impressive manner, so as to bring the full force of the sentiment on those to whom they read. They are examined in modulation, emphasis, and the various intonations, and they often read sentences from the black-board in which the various modulations are expressed by musical notes or curved lines.

The evils of drawling and monotone are prevented in the outset by the method of teaching, particularly the practice of the whole class reading together and keeping time. Short and pithy sentences, par-

ticularly the book of Proverbs, are recommended as admirably adapted to exercises of this kind.

2. Ornamental Writing introductory to Drawing.

The various kinds of ornamental letters are here practised upon, giving accuracy to the eye and steadiness to the hand, preparatory to skill in drawing, which comes into the next part of the course. The pupils also practise writing sentences and letters, with neatness, rapidity and correctness.

3. Religious instruction in the connected Bible history.

The design here is to give to the student a full and connected view of the whole Bible history. For this purpose large tables are made out and hung before the students. These tables are generally arranged in four columns; the first, containing the names of the distinguished men during a particular period of Bible history; the second, the dates; the third, a chronological register of events; and the fourth, the particular passages of the Bible where the history of these persons and events may be found. With these tables before the pupils, the teacher himself, in his own words, gives a brief conversational outline of the principal characters and events within a certain period, and then gives directions that the scriptural passages referred to, be carefully read. After this is done the usual recitation and examination takes place. Some of the more striking narratives, such as the finding of Moses on the banks of the Nile; Abraham offering his son; the journey of the wise men to do homage to Christ; the crucifixion; the conversion of Paul, &c., are committed to memory in the words of the Bible, and the recitation accompanied with the singing of a hymn alluding to these events. The moral instruction to be derived from each historical event is carefully impressed by the teacher. The teacher also gives them a brief view of the history between the termination of the Old and the commencement of the New Testament, that nothing may be wanting to a complete and systematic view of the whole ground. Thus the whole of the historical part of the Bible is studied thoroughly, and systematically, and practically, without the least sectarian bias, and without a moment being spent on a single idea that will not be of the highest use to the scholar during all his future life.

4. Language and Grammar.

There is here a continuation of the exercises in the preceding parts of the course, in a more scientific form, together with parsing of connected sentences, and writing from the dictation of the teacher, with reference to grammar, orthography and punctuation. The same principle alluded to before, of avoiding technical terms till the things represented by those terms are clearly perceived, is here carefully adhered to. A single specimen of the manner in which the modes and tenses of the verb are taught, may be sufficient to illustrate my meaning. The teacher writes on the black-board a simple sentence, as, "The scholars learn well;" and asks the class what sort of a sentence it is. They reply that it is a direct statement of a fact. (Teacher.) Put it in the form of a command: (Class.) Scholars, learn well. (Teacher.) Put it in a question form. (Class.) Do the scholars learn well? (Teacher.) Of a wish. (Class.) May the scholars learn well! (Teacher.) Of an exclamation. (Class.) How well the scholars learn! (Teacher.) The conditional form. (Class.) If the scholars learn well; or should the scholars learn well. (Teacher.) Of necessity. (Class.) The scholars must learn well. (Teacher.) Of ability. (Class.) The scholars can learn well, &c., &c. They are then taught, that the direct statement is called the indicative mode of the verb; the command, the imperative mode; the conditional, the subjunctive mode; the wish, the potential mode, &c., &c.—and after this the book is put in their hands and they study the lesson as it stands. After this the different tenses of the several modes are taught in the same way.

5. Real instruction, or knowledge of nature and the external world, including the first elements of the natural sciences, the arts of life, geography, and history. Instruction on this head is directed to the answering of the following questions, namely:

(a) What is man, as it respects his corporeal and intellectual nature?

Here come anatomy and physiology, so far as the structure of the human body is concerned, and the functions of its several parts.

Also the simple elements of mental philosophy. In this connection appropriate texts of scripture are quoted, as Gen. 2: 7. Ps. 139: 13-16. An appropriate hymn is also sung.

“7. And the Lord God formed man of the dust of the ground, and breathed into his nostrils the breath of life; and man became a living soul.”

“14. I will praise thee; for I am fearfully and wonderfully made: marvellous are thy works; and that my soul knoweth right well. -

“15. My substance was not hid from thee, when I was made in secret and curiously wrought in the lowest parts of the earth.

“16. Thine eyes did see my substance, yet being imperfect; and in thy book all my members were written, which in continuance were fashioned, when as yet there was none of them.”

(b) What does man need for the preservation and cheerful enjoyment of life, as it respects his body and mind? For his body he needs *food*; the different kinds of food and the mode of preparing them, are here brought to view; the unwholesomeness of some kinds of food; injuriousness of improper food; cooking; evils of gluttony. The different kinds of clothing and modes of preparing them; what sort of dress is necessary to health; folly and wickedness of vanity and extravagance. *Dwellings*; materials of which houses are constructed; mode of constructing them; different trades employed in their construction.

For the mind, man needs *society*; the family and its duties; the neighborhood and its duties. Intellectual, moral, and religious cultivation; the school and its duties; the church and duties. For the body and mind both, he needs *security* of person and property; the government; the legislature; the courts, &c.

(c) Where and how do men find the means to supply their wants, and make themselves comfortable and happy in this life?

The vegetable, the mineral, and the animal kingdoms are here brought to view, for materials; together with agriculture and manufactures as the means of converting these materials to our use. Geography, with special reference to the productions of countries, and their civil, literary and religious institutions; towns, their organization and employments. Geography is sometimes taught by blank charts, to which the students are required to affix the names of the several countries, rivers, mountains, principal towns, &c., and then state the productions and institutions for which they are remarkable. Sometimes the names of countries, rivers, &c. are given, and the pupil is required to construct an outline chart of their localities.

In respect to all the above points, the native country is particularly studied, its capabilities, its productions, its laws, its institutions, its history, &c., are investigated, with especial reference to its ability of supplying the physical, social and moral wants of its inhabitants. Under this head the pupils are taught to appreciate their native country, to venerate and love its institutions, to understand what is necessary to their perfection, and to imbibe a spirit of pure and generous patriotism. It is scarcely necessary to add, that all the instruction under this 5th head, is confined to the fundamental and simplest principles of the several branches referred to.

6. Arithmetic continued through fractions and the rules of proportion.

7. Geometry, doctrines of magnitudes and measures.

8. Singing and science of vocal and instrumental music.

IV. *Fourth part of two years—Children from twelve to fourteen.*

1. Religious instruction, in the religious observation of nature, the life and discourses of Jesus Christ, the history of the christian religion, in connection with the cotemporary civil history, and the principal doctrines of the christian system.

The first topic of instruction mentioned under this head is one of peculiar interest and utility. The pupils are taught to observe with care and system, the various powers and operations of nature, and to consider them as so many illustrations of the wisdom, power, and goodness of the Creator, and at each lesson they are directed to some appropriate passage of the Bible, which they read and commit to memory ; and thus the idea is continually impressed on them, that the God of nature, and the God of the Bible, are one and the same Being.

For example, as introductory to the whole study, the first chapter of Genesis, together with some other appropriate passage of scripture, as the 147th Psalm, or the 38th chapter of Job, may be read and committed to memory. The surface of the earth, as illustrating the power and wisdom of God, may be taken as a lesson. Then the varieties of surface, as mountains, valleys, oceans, and rivers, continents, and islands, the height of mountains, the breadth of

oceans, the length of rivers, remarkable cataracts, extended caverns, volcanoes, tides, &c., may be taken into view, and the teacher may impress upon the class the greatness, power, and intelligence necessary for such a creation. The whole is fortified by the application of such a passage as Psalm 104 : 1–13.

“ 1. Bless the Lord, O my soul. O Lord my God, thou art very great ; thou art clothed with honor and majesty.

“ 2. Who coverest *thyself* with light as *with* a garment ; who stretchest out the heavens like a curtain ;

“ 3. Who layeth the beams of his chambers in the waters : who maketh the clouds his chariot : who walketh upon the wings of the wind :

“ 4. Who maketh his angels spirits ; his ministers a flaming fire :

“ 5. *Who* laid the foundation of the earth, *that* it should not be removed forever.

“ 6. Thou coveredst it with the deep as *with* a garment : the waters stood above the mountains.

“ 7. At thy rebuke they fled : at the voice of thy thunder they hasted away.

“ 8. They go up by the mountains ; they go down by the valleys unto the place which thou hast founded for them.

“ 9. Thou hast set a bound that they may not pass over ; that they turn not again to cover the earth.

“ 10. He sendeth the springs into the valleys, *which* run among the hills.

“ 11. They give drink to every beast of the field ; the wild asses quench their thirst.

“ 12. By them shall the fowls of the heaven have their habitation, *which* sing among the branches.

“ 13. He watereth the hills from his chambers ; the earth is satisfied with the fruit of thy works.”

“ 24. O Lord, how manifold are thy works ! in wisdom hast thou made them all : the earth is full of thy riches.

“ 25. *So is* this great and wide sea, wherein *are* things creeping innumerable, both small and great beasts.

“ 26. There go the ships ; *there is* that leviathan, *whom* thou hast made to play therein.

The fruitfulness and beauty of the earth, as illustrating the wisdom and goodness of God, may serve as another lesson. Here may be exhibited the beauty and variety of the plants and flowers with which the earth is adorned—the manner of their growth and self-propagation, their utility to man and beast, their immense number and variety, their relations to each other as genera and species ; trees and their varieties, their beauty and utility, their timber and their fruit ; and, in connection with this lesson, Psalm 104 : 14–34, may be committed to memory :

“ 14. He causeth the grass to grow for the cattle, and herb for the service of man : that he may bring forth fruit out of the earth ;

- " 15. And wine that maketh glad the heart of man, and oil to make his face to shine, and bread which strengtheneth man's heart.
- " 16. 'The trees of the Lord are full of sap; the cedars of Lebanon which he hath planted;
- " 17. Where the birds make their nests; as for the stork, the fir-trees are her house.
- " 18. The high hills are a refuge for the wild goats, and the rocks for the conies.
- " 19. He appointeth the moon for seasons: the sun knoweth his going down.
- " 20. Thou makest darkness, and it is night: wherein all the beasts of the forests do creep forth.
- " 21. The young lions roar after their prey, and seek their meat from God.
- " 22. The sun ariseth, they gather themselves together, and lay them down in their dens.
- " 23. Man goeth forth to his work and to his labor until the evening."
- " 27. These wait all upon thee; that thou mayst give them their meat in due season.
- " 28. That thou givest them they gather; thou openest thine hand, they are filled with good.
- " 29. Thou hidest thy face, they are troubled; thou takest away their breath, they die, and return to their dust.
- " 30. Thou sendest forth thy spirit, they are created; and thou renewest the face of the earth.
- " 31. The glory of the Lord shall endure forever; the Lord shall rejoice in his works.
- " 32. He looketh on the earth, and it trembleth: he toucheth the hills and they smoke.
- " 33. I will sing unto the Lord as long as I live: I will sing praise unto my God while I have my being.
- " 34. My meditation of him shall be sweet: I will be glad in the Lord."

In like manner, the creation and nourishment, the habits and instincts of various animals may be contemplated in connection with Proverbs 6: 6-8; Psalm 104: 17-22; Proverbs 30: 24-31. Gen. 1: 20-24; Psalms 145: 15-16.

- " 6. Go to the ant, thou sluggard; consider her ways, and be wise:
- " 7. Which having no guide, overseer, or ruler,
- " 8. Provideth her meat in the summer, and gathereth her food in the harvest."
- " 24. There be four things which are little on the earth but they are exceeding wise.
- " 25. The ants are a people not strong, yet they prepare their meat in the summer.
- " 26. The conies are but a feeble folk, yet they make their houses in the rocks.
- " 27. The locusts have no king, yet they go forth all of them by bands;
- " 28. The spider taketh hold with her hands, and is in kings' palaces.
- " 29. There be three things which go well, yea, four are comely in going.
- " 30. A lion, which is strongest among beasts, and turneth not away for any;
- " 31. A greyhound; an he-goat also; and a king against whom there is no rising up."
- " 24. And God said, Let the earth bring forth the living creature after his kind, cattle, and creeping thing, and beast of the earth after his kind: and it was so.
- " 25. And God made the beast of the earth after his kind, and cattle after their kind, and every thing that creepeth upon the earth after his kind: and God saw that it was good."
- " 15. The eyes of all wait upon thee; and thou givest them their meat in due season.
- " 16. Thou openest thine hand, and satisfiest the desire of every living thing.
- " 17. The LORD is righteous in all his ways, and holy in all his works."

The phenomena of light and color, the nature of the rainbow, &c., may make another interesting lesson, illustrating the unknown forms of beauty and glory which exist in the Divine Mind, and which He may yet develope in other and still more glorious worlds; in connection with Gen. 1, 3, 5, 9, 13, 14, and other passages of like kind.

So the properties of the air, wind, and storm, Job 28, 25–28, 33, 34, 35. Ps. 148, 8.

“33. Knowest thou the ordinances of heaven? canst thou set the dominion thereof in the earth?”

“34. Canst thou lift up thy voice to the clouds, that abundance of waters may cover thee?”

“35. Canst thou send lightnings, that they may go, and say unto thee, Here we are!”

“36. Who hath put wisdom in the inward parts? or who hath given understanding to the heart?”

“37. Who can number the clouds in wisdom? or who can stay the bottles of heaven?”

Then the heavens, the sun, moon, planets, fixed stars and comets, the whole science of astronomy, so far as it can be introduced with advantage into common schools, can be contemplated in the same way. The enlightening, elevating, and purifying moral influence of such a scheme of instruction, carried through the whole system of nature, must be clearly obvious to every thinking mind, and its utility, considered merely with reference to worldly good, is no less manifest.

The second topic of religious instruction is more exclusively scriptural. The life of Christ, and the history of the apostles, as given in the New Testament, are chronologically arranged, and tables formed as before, (III. 3.) The discourses of Christ are examined and explained in their chronological arrangement, and in the same way the discourses and epistles of the apostles. The history of christianity, in connection with the cotemporary civil history, is taught in a series of conversational lectures. To conclude the whole course of religious instruction, a summary of the christian doctrine is given in the form of some approved catechism.

2. Knowledge of the world and of mankind, including civil society, constitutional law, agriculture, mechanic arts, manufactures, &c.

This is a continuation and completion in a more systematic form of the instruction commenced in III, 5. The course begins with

the family, and the first object is to construct a habitation. The pupil tells what materials are necessary for this purpose, where they are to be found, how brought together and fitted into the several parts of the building. The house must now be furnished. The different articles of furniture and their uses are named in systematic order, the materials of which they are made, and the various trades employed in making them are enumerated. Then comes the garden, its tools and products, and whatever else is necessary for the subsistence and physical comfort of a family. Then the family duties and virtues, parental and filial obligation and affection; rights of property, duties of neighborhoods; the civil relations of society; the religious relations of society; the state, the father-land, &c.; finally geography, history, and travels. Books of travels are compiled expressly for the use of schools, and are found to be of the highest interest and utility.

3. Language and exercises in composition.

The object here is to give the pupils a perfect command of their native tongue and ability to use it on all occasions with readiness and power. The first exercises are on simple questions, such as—“Why ought children to love and obey their parents?”—or they are short descriptions of visible objects, such as a house, a room, a garden, &c. There are also exercises on the various forms of expressing the same idea, as “The sun enlightens the earth.” “The earth is enlightened by the sun.” “The sun gives light to the earth.” “The earth receives light from the sun.” “The sun is the source of light to the earth.” “The sun sends out its rays to enlighten the earth.” “The earth is enlightened by rays sent out from the sun,” &c. There are exercises also of the same sort, or metaphors and other figures of speech—familiar letters are then written and short essays on themes such as may be furnished by texts from the book of Proverbs and other sentences of the kind; and thus gradual advancement is made to all the higher and graver modes of composition.

4. Application of arithmetic and mathematics to the business of life, including surveying, civil engineering, &c.

The utility of this branch of instruction and the mode of it, after

what has already been said, are probably too obvious to need any further illustration.

5. Elements of Drawing.

For this the pupils have already been prepared by the exercises in ornamental writing in the previous part of the course. They have already acquired that accuracy of sight and steadiness of hand which are among the most essential requisites to drawing well. The first exercises are in drawing lines, and the most simple mathematical figures, such as the square, the cube, the triangle, the parallelogram: generally from wooden models placed at some little distance on a shelf, before the class. From this they proceed to architectural figures, such as doors, windows, columns, and facades. Then the figures of animals, such as a horse, a cow, an elephant—first from other pictures, and then from nature. A plant, a rose, or some flower is placed upon a shelf and the class make a picture of it. From this they proceed to landscape painting, historical painting, and the higher branches of the art, according to their time and capacity. All learn enough of drawing to use it in the common business of life, such as plotting a field, laying out a canal, or drawing the plan of a building; and many attain to a high degree of excellence.

6. Exercises in singing and the science of music.

The instructions of the previous parts are extended as far as possible, and include singing and playing at sight, and the more abstruse and difficult branches of the science and art of music.

CHARACTER OF THE SYSTEM.

The striking features of this system, even in the hasty and imperfect sketch which my limits allow me to give, are obvious even to superficial observation. No one can fail to observe its great completeness, both as to the number and kind of subjects embraced in it, and as to its adaptedness to develop every power of every kind, and give it a useful direction. What topic in all that is necessary for a sound business education is here omitted? I can think of nothing, unless it be one or two of the modern languages, and these are introduced wherever it is necessary, as has already been seen in the study sheet of Dr. Diesterweg's seminary, inserted on a preced-

ing page of this report. I have not taken the course precisely as it exists in any one school, but have combined from an investigation of many institutions, the features which I supposed would most fairly represent the whole system. In the Rhenish provinces of Prussia, in a considerable part of Bavaria, Baden, and Wirtemberg, French is taught as well as German ; in the schools of Prussian Poland, German and Polish are taught ; and even English, in the Russian schools of Cronstadt and Archangel, where so many English and American merchants resort for the purposes of trade. Two languages can be taught in a school quite as easily as one, provided the teacher be perfectly familiar, as any one may see by visiting Mr. Solomon's school in Cincinnati, where all the instruction is given both in German and English.

What faculty of mind is there that is not developed in the scheme of instruction sketched above ? I know of none. The perceptive and reflective faculties, the memory and the judgment, the imagination and the taste, the moral and religious faculty, and even the various kinds of physical and manual dexterity, all have opportunity for development and exercise. Indeed, I think the system in its great outlines, as nearly complete as human ingenuity and skill can make it ; though undoubtedly some of its arrangements and details admit of improvement ; and some changes will of course be necessary in adapting it to the circumstances of different countries.

The entirely practical character of the system is obvious throughout. It views every subject on the practical side, and in reference to its adaptedness to use. The dry technical abstract parts of science are not those first presented ; but the system proceeds, in the only way which nature ever pointed out, from practice to theory, from parts to demonstrations. It has often been a complaint in respect to some systems of education, that the more a man studied, the less he knew of the actual business of life. Such a complaint cannot be made in reference to this system, for being intended to educate for the actual business of life, this object is never for a moment lost sight of.

Another striking feature of the system is its moral and religious character. Its morality is pure and elevated, its religion entirely removed from the narrowness of sectarian bigotry. What parent is

there, loving his children and wishing to have them respected and happy, who would not desire that they should be educated under such a kind of moral and religious influence as has been described? Whether a believer in revelation or not, does he not know that without sound morals there can be no happiness, and that there is no morality like the morality of the New Testament? Does he not know that without religion, the human heart can never be at rest, and that there is no religion like the religion of the Bible? Every well informed man knows, that, as a general fact, it is impossible to impress the obligations of morality with any efficiency on the heart of a child, or even on that of an adult, without an appeal to some mode which is sustained by the authority of God; and for what code will it be possible to claim this authority if not for the code of the Bible?

But perhaps some will be ready to say, the scheme is indeed an excellent one, provided only it were practicable; but the idea of introducing so extensive and complete a course of study into our common schools is entirely visionary and can never be realized. I answer, that it is no theory which I have been exhibiting, but a matter of fact, a copy of actual practice. The above system is no visionary scheme emanating from the closet of a recluse, but a sketch of the course of instruction now actually pursued by thousands of schoolmasters in the best district schools that have ever been organized. It can be done, for it has been done, it is now done, and it ought to be done. If it can be done in Europe, I believe it can be done in the United States: if it can be done in Prussia, I know it can be done in Ohio. The people have but to say the word and provide the means, and the thing is accomplished; for the word of the people here is even more powerful than the word of the King there; and the means of the people here are altogether more abundant for such an object than the means of the sovereign there. Shall this object, then, so desirable in itself, so entirely practicable, so easily within our reach, fail of accomplishment? For the honor and welfare of our State, for the safety of our whole nation, I trust it will not fail; but that we shall soon witness in this commonwealth the introduction of a system of common school instruction, fully adequate to all the wants of our population.

But the question occurs, *how* can this be done? I will give a few brief hints as to some things which I suppose to be essential to the attainment of so desirable an end.

MEANS OF SUSTAINING THE SYSTEM.

1. Teachers must be skilful, and trained to their business. It will at once be perceived, that the plan above sketched out proceeds on the supposition that the teacher has fully and distinctly in his mind the whole course of instruction, not only as it respects the matter to be taught, but also as to all the best modes of teaching, that he may be able readily and decidedly to vary his method according to the peculiarities of each individual mind which may come under his care. This is the only true secret of successful teaching. The old mechanical method, in which the teacher relies entirely on his text-book, and drags every mind along through the same dull routine of creeping recitation, is utterly insufficient to meet the wants of our people. It may do in Asiatic Turkey, where the whole object of the school is to learn to pronounce the words of the Koran, in one dull monotonous series of sounds; or it may do in China, where men must never speak or think out of the old beaten track of Chinese imbecility; but it will never do in the United States, where the object of education ought to be to make immediately available, for the highest and best purposes, every particle of real talent that exists in the nation. To effect such a purpose, the teacher must possess a strong and independent mind, well disciplined, and well stored with every thing pertaining to his profession, and ready to adapt his instructions to every degree of intellectual capacity, and every kind of acquired habit. But how can we expect to find such teachers, unless they are trained to their business? A very few of extraordinary powers may occur, as we sometimes find able mechanics, and great mathematicians, who had no early training in their favorite pursuits; but these few exceptions to a general rule will never multiply fast enough to supply our schools with able teachers. The management of the human mind, particularly youthful mind, is the most delicate task ever committed to the hand of man; and shall it be left

to mere instinct, or shall our schoolmasters have at least as careful a training as our lawyers and physicians ?

2. Teachers, then, must have the means of acquiring the necessary qualifications ; in other words, there must be institutions in which the business of teaching is made a systematic object of attention. I am not an advocate for multiplying our institutions. We already have more in number than we support, and it would be wise to give power and efficiency to those we now possess, before we project new ones. But the science and art of teaching ought to be a regular branch of study in some of our academies and high schools, that those who are looking forward to this profession may have an opportunity of studying its principles. In addition to this, in our populous towns where there is an opportunity for it, there should be large model schools, under the care of the most able and experienced teachers that can be obtained ; and the candidates for the profession who have already completed the theoretic course of the academy, should be employed in this school as monitors or assistants, thus testing all their theories by practice, and acquiring skill and dexterity under the guidance of their head master. Thus, while learning, they would be teaching, and no time or effort would be lost. To give efficiency to the whole system, to present a general standard and a prominent point of union, there should be at least one model-teachers' seminary, at some central point,—as at Columbus,—which shall be amply provided with all the means of study and instruction, and have connected with it schools of every grade, for the practice of the students, under the immediate superintendence of their teachers.

3. The teachers must be competently supported, and devoted to their business. Few men attain any great degree of excellence in a profession, unless they love it, and place all their hopes in life upon it. A man cannot, consistently with his duty to himself, engage in a business which does not afford him a competent support, unless he has other means of living, which is not the case with many who engage in teaching. In this country especially, where there are such vast fields of profitable employment open to every enterprising man, it is not possible, that the best of teachers can be obtained, to any considerable extent, for our district schools, at the present rate of wages. We have already seen what encouragement is held out to

teachers in Russia, Prussia, and other European nations, and what pledges are given of competent support to their families, not only while engaged in the work, but when, having been worn out in the public service, they are no longer able to labor. In those countries, where every profession and walk of life is crowded, and where one of the most common and oppressive evils is want of employment, men of high talents and qualifications are often glad to become teachers even of district schools; men who in this country would aspire to the highest places in our colleges, or even our halls of legislation and courts of justice. How much more necessary, then, here, that the profession of teaching should afford a competent support!

Indeed, such is the state of things in this country, that we cannot expect to find male teachers for all our schools. The business of educating, especially young children, must fall, to a great extent, on female teachers. There is not the same variety of tempting employment for females as for men, they can be supported cheaper, and the Creator has given them peculiar qualifications for the education of the young. Females, then, ought to be employed extensively in all our elementary schools, and they should be encouraged and aided in obtaining the qualifications necessary for this work. There is no country in the world where woman holds so high a rank, or exerts so great an influence, as here; wherefore, her responsibilities are the greater, and she is under obligations to render herself the more actively useful. I think our fair countrywomen, notwithstanding the exhortations of Harriet Martineau, Fanny Wright, and some other *ladies* and *gentlemen*, will never seek distinction in our public assemblies for public discussion, or in our halls of legislation; but in their appropriate work of educating the young, of forming the opening mind to all that is good and great, the more they distinguish themselves the better.

4. The children must be made comfortable in their school; they must be punctual, and attend the whole course. There can be no profitable study without personal comfort; and the inconvenience and miserable arrangements of some of our school-houses are enough to annihilate all that can be done by the best of teachers. No instructor can teach unless the pupils are present to be taught, and no plan of systematic instruction can be carried steadily through, unless the pupils attend punctually and through the whole course.

5. The children must be given up implicitly to the discipline of the school. Nothing can be done unless the teacher has the entire control of his pupils in school hours, and out of school too, so far as the rules of the school are concerned. If the parent in any way interferes with, or overrules the arrangements of the teacher, he may attribute it to himself if the school is not successful. No teacher ever ought to be employed to whom the entire management of the children cannot be safely entrusted ; and better at any time dismiss the teacher than counteract his discipline. Let parents but take the pains and spend the money necessary to provide a comfortable school-house and a competent teacher for their children, and they never need apprehend that the discipline of the school will be unreasonably severe. No inconsiderable part of the corporeal punishment that has been inflicted in schools, has been made necessary by the discomfort of school-houses and the unskillfulness of teachers. A lively, sensitive boy is stuck upon a bench full of knot-holes and sharp ridges, without a support for his feet or his back, with a scorching fire on one side of him and a freezing wind on the other ; and a stiff Orbilius of a master, with wooden brains and iron hands, orders him to sit perfectly still, with nothing to employ his mind or his body, till it is *his turn to read*. Thus confined for hours, what can the poor little fellow do but begin to wriggle like a fish out of water, or an eel in a frying-pan ? For this irrepressible effort at relief he receives a box on the ear ; this provokes and renders him still more uneasy, and next comes the merciless ferule ; and the poor child is finally burnt and frozen, cuffed and beaten into hardened roguery or incurable stupidity, just because the avarice of his parents denied him a comfortable school-house and a competent teacher. [On the subject of school discipline, I solicit attention particularly to the answers to question 3, in Appendix B, to this report.]

6. A beginning must be made at certain points, and the advance towards completeness must be gradual. Every thing cannot be done at once, and such a system as is needed cannot be generally introduced till its benefits are first demonstrated by actual experiment. Certain great points, then, where the people are ready to co-operate, and to make the most liberal advances in proportion to their means,

to maintain the schools, should be selected, and no pains or expense spared, till the full benefits of the best system are realized ; and as the good effects are seen, other places will very readily follow the example. All experience has shown, that governmental patronage is most profitably employed, not to do the entire work but simply as an incitement to the people to help themselves.

To follow up this great object, the legislature has wisely made choice of a Superintendent whose untiring labors and disinterested zeal are worthy of all praise. But no great plan can be carried through in a single year ; and if the Superintendent is to have opportunity to do what is necessary, and to preserve that independence and energy of official character which is requisite to the successful discharge of his duties, he should hold his office for the same term and on the same conditions, as the Judges of the Supreme Court.

Every officer engaged in this, or in every other public work, should receive a suitable compensation for his services. This justice requires, and it is the only way to secure fidelity and efficiency.

There is one class of our population for whom some special provision seems necessary. The children of foreign immigrants are now very numerous among us, and it is essential that they receive a good ENGLISH EDUCATION. But they are not prepared to avail themselves of the advantages of our common English schools, their imperfect acquaintance with the language being an insuperable bar to their entering on the course of study. It is necessary, therefore, that there be some preparatory schools, in which instruction shall be communicated both in English and their native tongue. The English is, and must be, the language of this country, and the highest interests of our State demand it of the Legislature to require that the English language be thoroughly taught in every school which they patronise. Still, the exigencies of the case make it necessary that there should be some schools expressly fitted to the condition of our foreign immigrants, to introduce them to a knowledge of our language and institutions. A school of this kind has been established in Cincinnati by benevolent individuals. It has been in operation about a year, and already nearly three hundred children have received its advantages. Mr. Solomon, the head teacher, was educated for his profession in one of the best institutions of Prussia,

and in this school he has demonstrated the excellencies of the system. The instructions are all given both in German and English, and this use of two languages does not at all interrupt the progress of the children in their respective studies. I cannot but recommend this philanthropic institution to the notice and patronage of the Legislature.

In neighborhoods where there is a mixed population, it is desirable, if possible, to employ teachers who understand both languages, and that the exercises of the school be conducted in both, with the rule, however, that all the reviews and examinations *be in English only*.

These suggestions I have made with unfeigned diffidence, and with a sincere desire that the work which has been so nobly begun by the Legislature of Ohio, may be carried forward to a glorious result. I should hardly have ventured to take such liberty had not my commission expressly authorized me to "make such practical observations as I might think proper," as well as to report facts. I know that I am addressing enlightened and patriotic men, who have discernment to perceive, and good feeling to appreciate, every sincere attempt, however humble it may be, for the country's good; and I have therefore spoken out plainly and directly the honest convictions of my heart; feeling assured that what is honestly meant, will, by highminded men, be kindly received.

All which is respectfully submitted.

C. E. STOWE.

Columbus, Dec. 18, 1837.

NOTE.—I cannot close my report without acknowledging my special obligations to some gentlemen whose names do not occur in it. To Professor Dorner of the University of Tuebingen, I am particularly indebted for his unwearied kindness and assiduity in directing me to the best schools, and introducing me to the teachers. To Dr. Bowring of London, and Professor Pryme and Henslow of the Uni-

versity of Cambridge, I am under particular obligations. Dr. Drake of Cincinnati, and Hon. W. C. Rives, and Hon. Henry Clay of the United States Senate, also rendered me timely aid. Hundreds of teachers, and other gentlemen interested in education, whose sympathies I enjoyed, I shall always remember with pleasure and gratitude.

APPENDIX.

(A)

PRUSSIAN SCHOOL LAWS.

In establishing a uniform school system in Prussia, great difficulty has been encountered from the local usages and privileges of different sections of which the inhabitants have been extremely tenacious. Great care has been taken to avoid all needless offence, and to prevent local jealousies. Old usages and privileges, so far as possible, have been respected, and *prejudices* have not been rashly attacked, but left to be gradually undermined by the growing advantages of the system. This course has certainly been a wise one, but one that has required great patience and perseverance on the part of the government, and a great amount of special legislation. In examining the Prussian laws pertaining to the schools for elementary instruction, and teacher's seminaries alone, exclusive of the high schools, gymnasia, universities, &c. ; I find that there are no less than 239 different edicts now in force, of which 226 have been issued by Frederick William III. The earliest date is July 30th, 1736, and the latest, July, 1834.

The subjects and the number of the different edicts, are as follows :

- I. General organization of the school system. Eleven edicts, from July, 1736, to August, 1831.
- II. Duty of parents to send their children to the elementary schools. Nine edicts, from January, 1769, to January, 1831, namely :
 1. Seven on the general duties of parents, and
 2. Two having particular reference to the manufacturing districts.
- III. Instruction and education in the schools. Thirty-two edicts, from December, 1794, to September, 1832, namely :
 1. Seven on religious instruction.
 2. Seven on the general subjects of instruction, and their order.
 3. Four on instruction in agriculture and the arts.
 4. Two on vacations and dismissions from school.
 5. Twelve on the regulation of scholars out of school hours.
- IV. Duty of districts to maintain schools and teachers. Nine edicts, from June, 1790, to December, 1830.

V. The right of appointing teachers. Seven edicts, from September, 1812, to January, 1831.

VI. Teachers of the schools. Sixty-five edicts, from November, 1738, to December, 1833, namely:

1. Ten on the calling and examination of teachers.
2. Eight on the personal rights and duties of teachers.
3. Five on the salaries of teachers.
4. Twelve on teachers engaging in other employments.
5. Two on the dismissing and pensioning of teachers.
6. Twelve on the deposing of teachers.
7. Four on providing for the families of deceased teachers.

VII. Duties of magistrates in respect to the schools. Twelve edicts, from December, 1810, to March, 1828.

VIII. School property. Thirty-seven edicts, from January, 1801, to October, 1833, namely:

1. Fourteen on school funds and their management.
2. Twenty-one on school-houses.
3. Two on settlement of amounts.

IX. Regulations peculiar to schools in large cities. Four edicts, from June, 1811, to November, 1827.

X. Institutions for special purposes. Thirty-four edicts, from September, 1811, to January, 1834, namely:

1. Four on schools for the deaf mutes.
2. One on orphan houses.
3. Four on ecclesiastical instruction.
4. Nine on private schools.
5. One on infant schools.
6. Two on girl's schools.
7. Thirteen on schools for the Jews.

XI. Education of teachers. Twenty edicts, from September, 1818, to August, 1833, namely:

1. Seven on instruction in and out of the seminary.
2. Five on the personal rights and obligations of the students.
3. Six on the military duty of the students.
4. Two on associations of teachers.

It is by a persevering, steady, determined series of efforts, carried through a long course of years, that the Prussian government has attained to a school system of such excellence and perfection. When Frederick William III. ascended the throne in 1797, the Prussian system was no better than the Scotch system, or the New England system, if it were not indeed altogether inferior to these; and it is only by forty years of hard work, forty years of intense labor directed to this very point, that this noble system has been completed, which is now attracting the admiration and provoking the emu-

lous zeal of the whole civilized world. Nor do the Prussians yet consider their system as perfect, but are still laboring as zealously for improvement as they were thirty years ago. Let not the government of Ohio, then, be discouraged, because the very slight degree of attention which they have for a very short time given to this subject, has not set them at once on the pinnacle of perfection. I hope the Legislature will continue, at least for a half century to come, to make this one of their chief objects of attention.

(B)

QUERIES ON EDUCATION.

The following inquiries, with some others not here included, were made out by a committee of the Association of Teachers in Hamilton county. I obtained the answers during my tour in Europe, from Mr. Wood of the Sessional School in Edinburg, Scotland, Rev. Mr. Kunze of the Frederick Orphan House, in Berlin, Prussia, and Professor Schwartz of the University of Heidelberg, in Baden. As I received the answers orally and in different languages, I cannot pretend to give them with verbal accuracy; but I have endeavored in every instance to make a faithful representation of the sentiment.

1. What is the best method of inculcating moral and religious duty in schools?

Mr. Wood. Every morning I have recitations in the Bible, accompanied with such brief and pertinent remarks as naturally occur in connection with the recitation.

Mr. Kunze. In Prussia the scholars are all taught Luther's Smaller Catechism; they have a daily recitation in the Bible, beginning with the historical portions; the schools are always opened and closed with prayer, and the singing of some religious hymns. The Bible and Psalm-book are the first books which are put into the hands of the child, and they are his constant companions through the whole course of his education, and required to be such through life.

Professor Schwartz. Every teacher should have a religious spirit, and by his personal influence, diffuse it among his pupils. The religious and moral instruction in the schools of Baden is similar to that in Prussia, as stated by Mr. Kunze.

2. What is the best mode of using the Bible in schools?

Mr. W. Take the whole Bible just as it is in our translation; for the younger children, select the easier historical portions, and go through with it as the scholars advance.

Mr. K. In Prussia we have tried all sorts of ways, by extracts, by new translations, by commentaries, written expressly for schools; but after all those trials, there is now but one opinion among all acquainted with the subject, and that is, that the whole Bible, just as it stands in the translations in common use, should be a reading and recitation book in all the schools. In the Protestant schools, Luther's translation is used, and in the Catholic schools, the translation approved by that church. The children are required not merely to repeat the words of the translation by rote, but to give a good exhibition of the real sentiment in their own language.

Prof. S. Answer similar to Mr. Kunze's above.

3. Method of governing schools—moral influence—rewards of merit—emulation—corporeal punishment?

Mr. W. I use all the purely moral influence I can; but rewards for the meritorious are highly necessary; and as to the principle of emulation, I appeal to it more and more the longer I teach. The evils of emulation, such as producing discouragement or exciting envy in the less successful scholars, I avoid by equalizing the classes as much as possible, so that all the scholars of each class, may, as to their capabilities of improvement, be nearly on a level. I know no successful school for young scholars where corporeal punishment is disused. The teacher must retain it as a last resort.

Mr. K. The Bible, prayers, and singing, are most essential helps to the consistent teacher in governing his scholars; but premiums, emulation, and corporeal punishment, have hitherto been found indispensable auxiliaries. In our schools we have premiums of books, and in the orphan house there is a prize of fifty dollars annually awarded to each of the most meritorious scholars, which is allowed to accumulate in the savings bank till the pupil comes of age, when it is given to him to aid in establishing him in business. Each teacher keeps a journal, divided under different heads, of all the delinquencies of his scholars, and if any one has six in a month, he must suffer corporeal punishment. The instrument of punishment is a cow-skin; but no teacher is allowed to inflict more than four blows at any one time, or for any offence. This kind of punishment is not often needed. Of the 380 boys in the orphan house not more than two in a month render themselves liable to it. After the scholar enters the gymnasium, he is no longer liable to corporeal punishment; but in all the schools below this, it is held in reserve as the last resort.

Prof. S. I do not approve of rewards as a means of discipline. Emulation may be appealed to a little; but much of it is not good, it is so liable to call forth bitter and unholy feeling. The skilful teacher, who gains the confidence and affection of his scholars, can govern without emulation or rewards, and with very little of corporeal punishment. In a school in Heidelberg of 150 children under ten years of age, not two in a year suffer this kind of punishment. In Baden the teacher is not allowed to strike a scholar

without obtaining permission of the school inspector, and in this way all hasty and vindictive punishments are prevented. The daily singing of religious hymns is one of the most efficient means of bringing a school under a perfect discipline by moral influence.

4. What is generally the best method of teaching?

Mr. W. As much as possible by conversation; as little as may be by mere book recitation. The pupil must always learn from the book.

Mr. K. Lively conversation. Very few teachers in Prussia ever use a book in recitation. The pupils study from books, and recite without them.

Prof. S. The living word in preference to the dead letter.

5. Employment of female teachers?

Mr. W. For young children they do well; and if good female teachers can be obtained, they might perhaps carry female education through without the help of male teachers.

Mr. K. Female teachers have not been much employed in Prussia, they are not generally successful. In a few instances they have done well.

Prof. S. Man is the divinely appointed teacher; but for small children female teachers do well; and in respect to all that pertains to the heart and the fingers they are even better than male teachers. It is not good that females should be educated entirely by teachers of their own sex; the female cannot be educated completely without the countenance of man to work upon the heart.

6. Is there any difference in the course of instruction for male and female schools?

Mr. K. None in the primary schools? but in the higher schools the course of instruction for males is more rigidly scientific than for females; and some branches of study are appropriate to the one class of schools which do not at all come into the other, and *vice versa*.

7. Public endowments for female schools of a high order?

Mr. W. There are no such endowments in Scotland.

Mr. K. There are very few in Prussia: only one in Berlin, but that a very good one. Female schools of a high order are mostly sustained by individual effort, under the supervision of the magistrates, but without aid from the Government.

Prof. S. We have none in Baden, nor are they needed for the female. The house is her school; and such are her susceptibilities, and her quickness of apprehension, that she is fitted by Providence to learn from real life; and she often learns thus, more successfully than boys can be taught in the school.

8. Number of studies to be pursued simultaneously in the different stages of instruction.

Mr. W. I begin with reading and writing (on slates) together, and as the scholars advance, increase the number of branches.

Mr. K. We begin all together, reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, &c., and so continue throughout.

Prof. S. The younger the fewer, the older the more.

9. Infant Schools?

Mr. W. For children who are neglected by their parents, for poor orphans, and such like, they are excellent, but parents who are able to take care of their own children, ought to do it, and not send them to the infant school.

Mr. K. I regard them as highly useful for all classes of children, the rich and the poor, the good and the bad; but the Prussian Government discourages them, except for the vicious and the neglected. The King admits them only where parental instruction cannot be had.

Prof. S. Highly useful, and very much increasing in Europe. In Italy, particularly in Lombardy, they are fast gaining ground under the care of truly Christian teachers.

10. The Pestalozzian system?

Mr. W. It has many good things, with some quackery. As a whole, it is too formal.

Mr. K. In Prussia, not approved as a whole and in arithmetic entirely disused.

Prof. S. One of the steps by which we arrived at our present stage of advancement; but we have got beyond it now.

11. Number of pupils to one teacher in the different stages of instruction?

Mr. W. In the elementary stages, if the teacher has good monitors,* he may safely take charge of from 100 to 600 pupils; as they advance, he must diminish the number, but only on account of the difficulty of obtaining good monitors in the higher branches.

Mr. K. In Prussia, generally about 40 in the elementary branches, and in the higher branches fewer.

Prof. S. In Baden the maximum is 80, on account of the difficulty, in that populous district, of maintaining a sufficient number of schoolmasters for the whole population. As the scholars advance, the number is diminished.

12. Systematic division of the different branches of instruction in schools?

Mr. W.——

Mr. K. The schools in Prussia are all divided according to the different branches, and each branch has its own teacher.

Prof. S. Not good to attempt a systematic division in the elementary schools, but very useful for the higher schools. Young children need to be brought under the influence of one teacher, and not have their attention and affection divided among many.

13. Mode of instructing those who are preparing themselves to be teachers?

* Monitors, in Mr. Wood's school, occupy the place of assistant teachers, and each class has its monitor.

Mr. W. Employ them as monitors under a good teacher, with some theoretical instruction. This is matter of opinion, not of experience; for we have in Scotland no institutions for the preparation of teachers.

Mr. K. In the seminaries for teachers, there are lectures on the theory of education, mode of teaching, &c.; but the pupils are taught principally by practical exercises in teaching the scholars of the model schools attached to these institutions, and they also labor to perfect themselves in the branches they are to teach.

Prof. S. The general principles of method may be communicated in lectures, but schools for actual practical exercise in teaching are indispensable. They must also become perfectly familiar with the branches they are to teach.

14. Estimation in which the teacher is held, and his income in proportion to that of the other professions?

Mr. W. With us, rising, in both respects, but as yet far below the other professions.

Mr. K. In Prussia, the elementary teachers are highly respected and competently maintained; they rank as the better sort of mechanics, and the head teachers rank next to clergymen. The salary low—that of the subordinate teachers, very low.

Prof. S. With us, the worthy teacher holds a respectable rank, and can sit at table with noblemen. The salary has recently been raised, but it is still below that of the clergyman.

15. Subordination among teachers?

Mr. W. Very desirable, but exceedingly difficult to carry it to any extent.

Mr. K. As strict subordination among the teachers of the school, as among the officers of the army.

Prof. S. Strict subordination must be maintained.

16. Mode of securing punctual and universal attendance of scholars till the full round of instruction is completed?

Mr. W. By acting on the parents.

Mr. K. By strict laws, rigorously executed.

Prof. S. By law.

17. Control of teachers over their scholars out of school hours?

Mr. W. The laws of the school are never to be violated, even out of school hours. Difficult to carry it any further.

Mr. K. The teacher has the control, so far as he can get it. Government sustains him in it.

Prof. S. In all that relates to the school, the teacher must have the control out of school hours.

18. How are schools affected by political changes in the administration of the government?

Mr. W. We have had fears, but as yet have suffered no actual evil.

Mr. K. We have no changes in Prussia.

Prof. S. The school must remain sacred and inviolate, untroubled by political changes.

19. School apparatus and library?

Mr. W. Very desirable, but little done that way, as yet, in Scotland.

Mr. K. Most of our schools are provided with them, and we consider them very important.

Prof. S. The teachers must have access to good books; and if they are industrious and skilful, the pupils will not suffer for want of a library.

20. How can accuracy of teaching be secured?

Mr. W. Every thing depends on the teacher.

Mr. K. Very accurate in Prussia; the Government will have it so.

Prof. S. The teacher must understand his profession, and devote himself to it.

21. Governmental supervision of schools, and mode of securing responsibility in the supervisors?

Mr. W. I cannot tell. In this country it is very inefficient, as it must be, unless the visitors receive pay for their services.

Mr. K. In this country the governmental supervision is very strict, and produces a very happy influence. The supervisors are paid for their work, and obliged to attend to it. Responsibility is secured by requiring minute and accurate periodical reports, and by a special visitation as often as once in three years.

Prof. S. The supervisors must be paid; there must be strict subordination, accurate returns, and special visitations.

22. How are good teachers to be obtained in sufficient numbers?

Mr. W. I cannot tell. It is difficult here.

Mr. K. By means of our teachers' seminaries—we have them in abundance.

Prof. S. By teachers' seminaries, and private teaching, we have enough. In your country it must always be difficult while there is such an amount of business accessible which is so much more lucrative.

23. Extent of qualification demanded of elementary teachers?

Mr. W. In Scotland, there is no general rule.

Mr. K. & Prof. S. In Prussia and Baden, the demands are ample, and rigidly enforced.

24. Governmental supervision of private schools?

Mr. W. Of doubtful expediency.

Mr. K. Very strict in Prussia, and altogether beneficial in its influence.

Prof. S. Leave the private schools free, but regulate them, and see that the teachers do their duty.

25. Associations of teachers?

Mr. W. Not yet introduced in Scotland, but very desirable.

Mr. K. & Prof. S. Highly useful, and demanded and regulated by the Government. Written essays and discussions, and mutual communication of experience, the business of these Associations.

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