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ON  
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VOLUME 10.  
EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.  
PART 1.

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[Introductory Letter to Volumes 10 and 11 of the Series.]

To SIR GEORGE KEKEWICH, K.C.B.  
Secretary of the Board of Education.

SIR,

I HAVE the honour to present to you the accompanying volumes of Special Reports on various aspects of education in the United States of America.

For many reasons, and not least on account of the close relationship between the English-speaking peoples, American education has always been a subject of special interest to English students. Of recent years this interest has rapidly increased, and the educational methods and experiments in the United States are watched by many English teachers and students with a marked degree of sympathy and attention.

I desire to take this opportunity of thanking many of the chief educational authorities in the United States for their courtesy in supplying information for these volumes; and especially Dr. W. T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education, not only for the warm welcome and wise guidance which he willingly gives to English students of education visiting America, but for the well-known series of reports issued under his direction. The latter are, in range of topics, in mass of information and in the liberality of their distribution, unrivalled in the world. My cordial thanks are also due to President Nicholas Murray Butler of Columbia University in the City of New York, for much valuable information, for help in the revision of some of the proofs and for the assistance derived from the *Monographs on American Education* published under his editorship for the Paris Exhibition of 1900.

I beg leave also to express my thanks to Sir Joshua Fitch for his kindness in contributing an introductory paper to these volumes.

To each report is appended the name of its author, and it should be understood that the latter alone is responsible for the opinions therein expressed.

I am, Sir,

Your obedient Servant,

MICHAEL E. SADLER,

Director of Special Inquiries and Reports.

December, 1901.

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[An article on the teaching of Domestic Science in the United States by Miss Alice Ravenhill will appear in a volume of Special Reports devoted to the teaching of Domestic Science now at press.]

THE STUDY OF AMERICAN EDUCATION : ITS INTEREST  
AND IMPORTANCE TO ENGLISH READERS.

THE Board of Education has performed a public service in dedicating the whole of one volume of special Reports to the elucidation of the systems of instruction in the United States of America. There is no country in the world whose social and intellectual progress is so profoundly interesting and so full of significance to the thoughtful Englishman, and none wherein the institutions and polity, the ideas and experience of the people, will so well repay his attentive study. He has been accustomed, it may be, to travel in Europe, to visit picture galleries, cathedrals, battlefields, and memorable scenes which enable him to understand the story of the past. Such lessons as he has thus learned are like those which have been described as the lantern on the stern of a ship illuminating only the waves behind, but shedding no light on the forward course. He crosses the Atlantic and finds himself breathing a new atmosphere and living in a different world—one in which there are no great galleries of art, no cathedrals, no obscure history to be investigated, no picturesque survivals of classical or mediæval traditions, or of outworn beliefs. Such phenomena as meet his eye are all modern; there is little or no past to be studied. All the interest of his journey lies in the help he gains for the contemplation of the future. He finds himself in the presence of some of the most potent forces which will move the world in the coming centuries, and he cannot fail to be struck with the pace at which life is lived, the energy and enterprise of the people, their boundless exhilaration and hopefulness, their consciousness of power, and their confidence in themselves. Should his special interests lie in the sphere of education and social improvement, he is impressed with the splendour and completeness of the public institutions, and with the rapidity and decision displayed in the efforts of educational authorities to supply deficiencies and to meet modern requirements. More than all, he learns to appreciate the hospitality which welcomes him and places all the best information and experience at his disposal. His mind is thus placed in a new attitude in regard to human life and progress. He begins to realise the fact that ere long there will be on the North American Continent a hundred millions of English-speaking people, nurtured on our history and our literature, yet emancipated from feudal and aristocratic influences, and free to develop new forms of excellence in social and intellectual life, in material prosperity, and in national greatness. This is a unique fact in the history of mankind. There is no precedent for it in ancient or modern annals. It is difficult to contemplate it without some quickening of the pulse, and enlargement of the

mental horizon. One is irresistibly reminded of the glowing vision which, at a critical period in our own history, rose before the purified sight of Milton—"Methinks I see in my mind a noble and puissant nation . . . entering on the glorious ways of truth and prosperous virtue, destined to become great and honourable in these later ages."\*

It is an invigorating prospect, and exceptional circumstances have placed it in the power of the American people to make some sure progress towards its realisation. During the years which followed the Declaration of Independence, and throughout a large part of the nineteenth century, the chief duty of English statesmen consisted in efforts to remove one by one restrictions which former ages had imposed on commerce, or on religious and political freedom. Corn laws and navigation laws, municipal and academic oaths, the Irish Church Establishment, privileges and monopolies, the exclusion of Catholics and Jews from Parliament, restrictions on the Press, and on popular franchise, were all in their turn abolished, "not without dust and heat." Reform in all these departments of social and municipal life was negative rather than positive. It meant with us the removal of hindrances and grievances and social inequalities, rather than political reorganisation. But no such task confronted the Fathers of the New England States, and the successors of Washington. They had ample scope for the exercise of constructive statesmanship, and for the creation of institutions adapted to their own needs and ideals. The result has been a constitutional system, which to Mr. Matthew Arnold suggested "the image of a man in a suit of clothes which fits him to perfection, a suit of clothes loose where it ought to be loose, and sitting close where its sitting close is an advantage . . . a suit of clothes which is found also to adapt itself naturally to the wearer's growth, and to admit of all enlargements as they successively arise."†

English students of De Tocqueville, of Bishop Fraser's Report to the Schools Inquiry Commission, and of Mr. Bryce's comprehensive and masterly treatise on the American Commonwealth, will have been enabled to trace the steps by which the present social edifice has been built up, and to understand how the great Federal Republic of America differs in its constitution, not only from the democratic governments of antiquity, but from the modern republics of France, Switzerland, and of South America. They will learn that although much has yet to be done to ennoble and purify the municipal life of some great cities, and to clear the political arena of influences which tend to encumber and vulgarise it, the history of America throughout the first century after the Declaration of Independence has been one of unrivalled national prosperity and expansion, and of steady progress towards the solution of large social problems.

\* *Areopagitica*.

† *Civilization in the United States*, Chapter III.

To other readers it may be well to recall here a few of the peculiar conditions under which these problems are being solved in the United States. Some of these have a special bearing on the advancement of public education, and need to be kept in view in reading the contents of this volume.

For example, there is in America no distribution of parties corresponding to our Conservatives and Liberals, because there are no venerable institutions, no dynastic or ecclesiastical privileges to modify or to conserve. The whole nation may be described as a party of progress, and politicians in America differ only in their views of what progress means, and in the application of those views to such topics of controversy as currency, Civil Service reform, State rights, tariffs, the freedom and development of trade, the regulation of trusts, and the personal qualifications of the President and his advisers. The fact that each member either of the representative House, or of the Senate, must be elected by the inhabitants of the district in which he himself resides, is not without an important influence on the character of the central Legislature, and on the qualifications which a member of Congress is expected to possess.

Of the numerous and varied subjects which in England form the staple of Parliamentary discussions there are many which do not come within the sphere of national or imperial politics on the other side of the Atlantic at all. It should be remembered that America is a Confederation of self-governing States; each of which, by the terms of the Act of Union of 1789, retains all the prerogatives and powers of a sovereign state, that are not expressly relegated to the Government of the United States by the language of the Constitution. Education is one of the public interests, which thus belongs exclusively to the separate States. Neither the Federal Executive nor the Federal Legislature at Washington has any authority or concern in the matter of public education. There is, indeed, a Bureau of Education at Washington, created in 1867, which collects statistics, makes reports to Congress, and under the care of successive Commissioners, notably the present holder of that office Dr. W. T. Harris, has made valuable contributions to the history and literature of education. But, although the Bureau has great moral authority, it is practically without statutory power. It does not establish, inspect, regulate, or subsidise schools; and in no sense does it correspond to a Board or Department of Public Instruction as understood in Europe. There is therefore nothing which can claim to be called a national system of education in the Union. Each State fashions its own system, raises and administers its own taxes, appoints its own officers, and determines the division of duty between the various local authorities. There is a universal belief in the value of education, and in the moral obligation which lies on each separate community to make the needful provision of schools. Even before the days of the Union, so early as 1642, the founders of the colony of Massa-

chusetts had enjoined upon the municipal authorities the duty of seeing that every child within their respective jurisdictions should be educated. The thirteen original States federated in 1789 and the whole of the forty-four States now included in the Union have practically accepted the same obligation. But there is no central authority which could enforce the fulfilment of this duty if it were neglected. Hence there are considerable varieties of type among schools, and great irregularities in the nature and extent of the provision made for primary, secondary, technical, and collegiate education. In great cities, such as Boston, Philadelphia, New York, Chicago, and St. Louis, there is a generous provision of public funds, and institutions are often on a magnificent scale. But there are large districts in which schools are open only for a few weeks in the year,\* and in which the supply of schools is inadequate, and the teachers are poorly qualified and poorly paid. The complete isolation of the several educational authorities in the Union from one another makes it impossible to estimate the comparative methods and results of the various local systems. There is, for example, no common certificate or standard of qualification for teachers, such as could be acknowledged by school managers in all parts of the States. The authorisation to teach is conferred in each State or city by its own local Boards and officials, and on its own teachers only. It is not valid as a professional diploma elsewhere.

There is thus no uniformity in the methods or machinery of education in the States. But in its stead there prevails much of the local patriotism, which makes each of the leading communities proud of its own institutions, and keenly solicitous to produce such examples of good work as may prove worthy of imitation in other States and cities. Underlying all the diversities of method, organisation, and achievement, there is essential unity in the aims of the States "to make democratic education universally accessible, and by means of it to lift up the whole population to a higher plane of intelligence, conduct, and happiness."† Hence America may be regarded as a laboratory in which educational experiments are being tried on a great scale, under conditions exceptionally favourable to the encouragement of inventiveness and fresh enthusiasm, and to the discovery of new methods and new truths. The fundamental principle of democracy, in the view of American citizens, is local self-government. There is not and is not likely to be any vacillation of public opinion on this point; and there is at present no visible indication of any centripetal force which might tend to the greater influence of the central government over matters concerning

\* The last report of the Commissioner of Education gives the average length of the school term in the common schools as 145·2 days in the year, and adds that it had never reached 140 days before the year 1895-96. Since this computation includes large urban populations, in which schools are open all the year, it is evident that the provision in many remote rural districts is wholly insufficient.

† *President Eliot. The function of Education in democratic society.*



education, since these are still and always have been within the exclusive province of the several State legislatures.

On one point there is practical unanimity among the authorities. Theological instruction in any form is absent from the common school. The co-operation of the churches is not sought by any of the local legislatures, and the ministers of religion have, as such, no share in the control of those schools. All the State constitutions provide for entire freedom of religious opinion and teaching, and for the equality of all sects before the law. In some of these constitutions it is expressly declared that "no public money ought to be applied in aid of any religious body or sectarian institution."\* But whether this regulation is expressly legalised or not, it is practically universal throughout the Union. It cannot be urged that it implies national indifference to religion, since many facts might be adduced to prove the contrary. But it indicates a general conviction that in a community in which thought and religious profession are absolutely unfettered, and in which there is no established church, and no one ecclesiastical body entitled to claim special privilege or social superiority, the State should keep itself severally detached from all religious parties and controversies, and should afford in the common school no facility whatever for denominational teaching. There can be little doubt that in the main this course of policy is well suited to the genius and the traditions of a great democratic society, and is generally satisfactory to the American people. And it ought to be acknowledged that the exclusion of sectarian and clerical influence from the common school appears in many places to have had the incidental effect of quickening the zeal of the churches, making them more sensible of their responsibility to the children of their flocks, and encouraging efforts by means of Sunday schools and Sunday services to supplement the secular teaching of the day school.

One result of the fact that in America there are many State or local systems, but no national system, deserves to be carefully borne in mind. There has been no President, Minister, or politician whose name is conspicuously identified with popular education, or who can be pointed to as having exercised a large share in moulding the national opinion or character in relation to it. In European countries there has been a succession of statesmen—*e.g.*, in France, Turgot, Talleyrand, Guizot, Rémusat, and Cousin; in Germany, Stein, Falk, and Humboldt; in our own country, Brougham and Forster—who have taken the initiative, have enlisted national sympathy and directed it. But in America the impulse in favour of improvements in education has not come from the central government, and does not raise debate in the Senate or in Congress. The pioneers and leaders have been men of originally

\* *Bryce. The American Commonwealth*, vol. 2, p. 423.

local reputation or influence, such as Horace Mann and Henry Barnard, Colonel Parker, and zealous school superintendents in their several States; the presidents and professors of the leading universities, as Eliot, Gilman, Murray Butler, Harper, and Stanley Hall; and munificent founders and benefactors, such as those who established Cornell University, Clark University, the Leland Stanford University, the University of Chicago, the Armour, the Drexel, and many other famous institutes. Besides these, the names of Fiske, W. H. Payne, Hailmann, Monroe, Quincy, W. James, Münsterberg, John Dewey, Hinsdale, and H. B. Adams, periodicals such as the *Educational Review*, the *School Review*, and the *Pedagogical Seminary*, and the papers issued from time to time by professors in the Johns Hopkins University at Baltimore and the Reports of the "Committee of ten" and "of fifteen" are well known to English readers, and the store of stimulating pedagogic literature is yearly being enriched by valuable additions.

In making a survey of this literature, it is observable that discussions on legislative measures and changes are comparatively infrequent. What are in Great Britain called educational politics—the relation of public authorities to teachers and managers, the administrative conditions under which the State Government aids or controls the schools—are less prominent subjects of educational controversy in scholastic journals or in the public press than among ourselves. Nevertheless, questions of educational administration and machinery are engaging serious public attention, and are regarded by many as of growing urgency. The report of the Chicago Education Commission of 1898 is a mine of valuable material on the subject of municipal control, and of the perils which sometimes accompany such control. For example, in Boston and New York the true principles of school organisation have been much in debate, and cannot yet be regarded as finally settled. Indianapolis has recently given extraordinary powers to its school superintendent. And the minds of municipal and educational reformers are much exercised with the question how best to check improper influence in the appointment of teachers. Several of the papers in the present volume reflect the administrative unrest, and record what has lately been done. Yet, in the main, it may be said that it is not to political or municipal bodies that the reformer looks with most confidence for help, control, or guidance. The authorities on whom he most relies are eminent teachers and professors rather than politicians or official personages. The motive power for change and progress, and for the formation of an enlightened public opinion, is also furnished largely by the great Conventions and Institutes which from year to year bring together, in some important centre of population, the elementary and high school teachers, the professors in colleges, State superintendents, and thinkers and workers of all ranks for conference and comparison of experience on educational topics. It is mainly from such gatherings, and from the school-room, the lecture-room, and the study, that inspiration is sought, and not from external authority in any form.

Among the topics which are handled in this volume, there are many which have a peculiar interest for English readers, and on which more detailed records of American experience will have a useful bearing on some questions yet remaining unsettled in Great Britain and Ireland. For example, there has been in the States a remarkable multiplication of universities and colleges and other institutions for higher education. The last reports of the Commissioner show a total of 484 universities and colleges for men, or for men and women jointly; 132 for women only, 43 colleges of technology, 163 of theology, 96 of law, and 151 of medicine. These institutions vary much in type. Some of them are under denominational management; some are designed to furnish training for particular callings, or to meet the needs of separate local industries, or particular classes of students. To some of them pedagogic lectureships are attached for students who are intending to enter the teachers' profession. In several, notably the Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore, the principal work is done in post-graduate classes, and is designed to promote research in the higher departments of linguistics, letters, philosophy, and physical science. But all of them have received charters from the States in which they are respectively situated, and all are empowered to confer degrees. In the last statistical year no less than 10,794 men and 4,293 women were admitted as graduates. Having regard to the steps which are being taken in various parts of the United Kingdom to increase the number of academic institutions, it would be a distinct advantage to us at home to learn from the most trustworthy American authorities what is the effect of this large freedom and variety, (1) on the popular conception of the value and meaning of a university degree; (2) on the general diffusion of knowledge and of intellectual tastes in the community at large; and (3) on the maintenance of a high standard of scholarship for the few who are destined to become masters in the great liberal professions and leaders of national thought.\*

\* Reference may here be made to a few recent American books which contain much valuable information and suggestion on University questions:—  
Monographs on Education in the United States. Edited by Nicholas Murray Butler. (Paris Exposition of 1900.) Albany, N.Y., 1900.  
Vol. I., p. 207.—The American College, by A. Fleming West;  
p. 249.—The American University, by E. Delavan Perry.  
Hadley, Arthur Twining.—The Education of the American Citizen. (Yale Bicentennial Publications.) New York and London, 1901.  
Butler, Nicholas Murray.—The Meaning of Education and other Essays and Addresses. P. 125.—The American College and the American University. New York, 1898.  
Elot, Charles William.—Educational Reform. Essays and Addresses. New York, 1898.  
Gilman, Daniel Coit.—University Problems in the United States. New York, 1898.  
Thwing, Charles Franklin.—The American College in American Life. New York and London, 1897.  
Walker, Francis A.—Discussions in Education. Edited by James Phinney Munroe. New York, 1899.

In connection with academic life, and with the organisation of universities in the States, there are many points on which fuller information would be highly welcome to English readers. One of these is, the relation which subsists in some places between the University and the Churches. Harvard, for example, is situated in Cambridge, Massachusetts, a town well supplied with places of worship of all the chief Christian denominations. The university students are free on Sunday to attend any of them which their parents may prefer. But, besides these, there is a large and beautiful college chapel, which is not denominational. During the academic session, and at hours not interfering with the services of other churches and chapels, sermons are preached by ministers of religion chosen by the college authorities from different denominations on the ground of their intellectual eminence, and their fitness to address young men *in statu pupillari*. Thus in one year I found on the *rota* of preachers the late famous Bishop Phillips Brooks of Massachusetts, and distinguished representatives of the Presbyterian, Methodist, Unitarian, and Baptist Churches, all of whom took their turn in the university pulpit, and with each of whom it seemed to be a point of honour not to take that opportunity of accentuating the distinctive tenets of his own section of the Christian Church, but to address himself mainly to topics affecting the religious life and character of the student. These university sermons are very popular among the students, and are often deeply impressive. To an Englishman accustomed to the traditions of college chapels and of the university sermon in Oxford and Cambridge, this particular development of religious tolerance in a democratic community appears strange, and at first sight not wholly intelligible. But it would be helpful to us all to learn at first hand how the system is found to affect the tone and discipline of the University and the subsequent religious career of the undergraduates.

No feature of American education is more remarkable than the large share of the work which is undertaken by women. Not only in the primary schools, but in the high schools, the colleges, and several of the newer universities, the services of female teachers and professors are becoming more and more frequently employed and more widely appreciated. The reports of the Central Bureau show a steady increase in the proportion of women engaged in teaching as compared with that of men. In 1840 it was reported to amount to 60 per cent. of the whole teaching staff from the primary school to the university. But in 1899 it had amounted to 68 per cent. This fact may be partly accounted for by the increasing number of promising openings afforded by American enterprise in commerce, in railroad administration, in journalism, in the Christian ministry, and in the application of science to manufacturing industry, which attract ambitious young men into other callings than teaching, and partly to the yet more remarkable increase in the number of women who have received a liberal edu-

cation, and to the natural aptitudes—the genius, the skill and sympathy, the intuitive *clairvoyance* which often enable a woman to see what is going on in the minds of young learners, and to find the readiest way to their intelligence and their conscience. On this subject much additional experience of a peculiarly instructive kind has yet to be looked for from the other side of the Atlantic. Already there are signs of a reaction in public opinion, and of some dissatisfaction at the growing disproportion between men and women teachers. An able writer in the *Educational Review* of New York has recently pointed out that it is now quite possible for a youth to pass through all the grades of education from the primary school to the high school, and thence to the end of a university course, without ever having been taught by a man. All are agreed that the best characteristics, both of man and of woman, ought to be enlisted in the work of education, and that the services of both are indispensable. But at what particular stage in the career of a boy or girl there is most need of the more virile and masterful discipline, and what are the subjects and the kinds of instruction which are best suited for teachers and learners of the two sexes respectively, we have yet much to learn. A premature and unverified decision on this subject would be fatal to true educational progress. Meanwhile the large experience which America is accumulating, not only in Vassar, Bryn Mawr, and Wellesley, but in Columbia and other universities in which "co-education" has been tried and splendid provision has been made for the higher instruction of women, will prove most instructive to us in the Old World when we are considering their claims to the best intellectual culture our institutions can supply, and the influence of such culture, not only on the public life, but also on the domestic happiness of the whole community.

Among other subjects prominent in educational discussions in the States, and likely to prove of increasing interest to Englishmen, are the "elective" system of studies in universities and higher schools; the place of Greek and Latin in a modern scheme of liberal education; the claims of technology and practical science; the Fröbelian method and its possible application to the advanced stages of juvenile instruction; the professional preparation of teachers; the encouragement of manual and sense training; university extension; methodology, both in general principle and in its detailed application to the several subjects of school instruction; colleges and schools of commerce and of agriculture; physical training; moral discipline and culture; the study of Art and its practical relation to the life of the community and to the cultivation of taste; the grading of schools; and the means of making the study of literature tell on the formation of character and the refinement of home life. On the relations which ought to be established between primary, higher, and secondary schools and the universities, on the differences which ought to characterise urban and rural schools, and on the greater services which educational institutions

of all ranks may yet render in the cultivation of citizenship, a sane and genuine patriotism, and a sense of public duty, the later American writers teem with facts and with fruitful suggestions. All these are topics of grave significance to the English teacher who wishes to understand the work of the future and to take an honourable share in it. On no one of them has the last word yet been spoken; on all of them experience has yet much to teach. To the American they do not present exactly the same aspects as to ourselves, and the resultant in the shape of mechanism and the form and organisation of institutions will probably not be the same on both sides of the Atlantic. It is well that it should be so. The progress of mankind is to be secured not by uniformity, or by exact imitation even of the best models, but by differentiation, and by the evolution from time to time of new varieties of type both in principle and practice. Each nation must work out its own problems, in view of its special circumstances, its environment, its past history, and its own national aspirations. But the two nations are akin, not less in racial characteristics than in their ideals and hopes of future progress; and the educational problems presented to Englishmen are fundamentally the same as those which are engaging the best thoughts and efforts of our American brethren. For these reasons the substantial contribution made in the present volume towards a fuller understanding of the results of their experience deserves to be cordially welcomed and diligently studied in Great Britain and her colonies.

J. G. FITCH.

( 11 )

MORAL EDUCATION  
IN  
AMERICAN SCHOOLS  
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE  
FORMATION OF CHARACTER  
AND TO  
INSTRUCTION IN THE DUTIES OF  
CITIZENSHIP.

MORAL EDUCATION IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

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[Since this paper was printed, American education has suffered a grievous loss through the death of Col. Parker, whose inspiring influence has had far-reaching effects on American, and indirectly on British educational work.—EDITOR.]

## MORAL EDUCATION IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

## PART I.—THE SOCIOLOGICAL PROBLEM.

## INTRODUCTION.

The following report is based upon materials gathered during a three months' tour in the United States, in the course of which visits were paid to the cities of New York, Washington, Philadelphia, Boston, Worcester (Mass.), Syracuse, Batavia, Cleveland, Detroit, Chicago, Minneapolis, Peoria, Indianapolis and Cincinnati. A few days were also spent in Toronto. Details as to the schools and colleges that were seen, conferences that were attended and persons consulted are given in the Appendix. What cannot be expressed there in tabulated columns, however, is the consciousness of debt and gratitude which such an investigation has left in the writer's mind to those who so liberally gave of their time and thought to aid an inquiry into the fundamental aim and spirit of American education. All that will be attempted in this paper will be to give back the impressions thus received of the efforts which American educators are consciously making with a view to emphasising moral training as the chief factor of school life.

However imperfectly this may be done, the writer found very real satisfaction in the fulfilment of his anticipation that some of the prominent features of English educational theory, of which he had made a somewhat careful study, find their logical development in the schools of America: this was specially the case with regard to the care for the ethical side of education which is common to both countries,\* and to the scope given to the principle of individuality in education. The method that has been followed is to present a picture of things as they are in schools that were visited, including undoubtedly many of the *best schools* in the eastern half of the United States. Brief words of criticism are added where they seem necessary to the fulness or accuracy of the picture. The aim throughout is to place the reader in touch, so far as possible, at first hand with the present conditions of moral education in American schools. Data are very frequently given in the words of American edu-

\* Speaking of the changes in method throughout English-speaking countries owing to the influence of Pestalozzi and Froebel, Dr. Harris said in 1891:—"Notwithstanding this, our schools will continue to lay more stress on the discipline side than on the side of intellectual instruction, so long as the idiosyncrasies of our people remain what they are. Stated in a language less technical, the English and American school is founded on the idea that moral education is more important than intellectual." Preface to *Teaching in Three Continents*, by W. Catton Grashby.

cators themselves—too frequently the author is aware, if his report had been intended as a summary of impressions, rather than a presenting, with a certain amount of local colouring, of actual conditions. At the same time, most of these data were obtained within the schools, in the presence of work whereby they might be tested and substantiated. The universal willingness of American teachers to allow the school work to be observed, and the habit of exhibiting on the walls of class-rooms and corridors for purposes of individual stimulus and mutual interest the children's work from week to week, were very helpful. Indirectly the report testifies to the open-handed way in which American teachers and educational organisers everywhere placed themselves in the position not merely of informants, but of fellow-inquirers, and submitted *con amore* to the criticisms and cross-examinations of a perfect stranger under the impulse of a mutual desire to see clearly and to arrive at truth.

To the writer's mind the essay as a whole presents a catalogue of forces, of which it is perhaps impossible at the present moment to determine the resultant.

This paper forms practically the second part of one continuous report, the first part being the Gilchrist Report presented to the Victoria University on *Individuality and the Moral Aim in American Education*.<sup>\*</sup> In that report a study of the principles of American school organisation and class management is presented, and the effect of public feeling concerning education and of collateral movements more or less external to the schools is considered. It is largely owing to the forms of organisation there described that the school life spoken of in the following pages becomes possible.

## CHAPTER I.

### THE PROBLEM STATED.

The first and most abiding impression that one receives is that of an intense realisation amongst American educators that they are occupied with one of the most distinctive phases of the general sociological question which confronts the nation—on the constructive and remedial side, *the most distinctive phase*. Every educationist is more or less a sociologist, and sociologists are compelled to be to some extent educationists; for education offers the one possible solution of the problems which press continually upon the public mind. From the earliest days of national independence it has been an accepted doctrine that education is a corollary of self-government. "In proportion as the structure of government gives force to public opinion, it is essential," said Washington, "that public opinion should be enlightened." A few years later President Madison

<sup>\*</sup> Recently published by Messrs. Longmans, Green and Co., London and New York.

expressed the same axiomatic truth. "A well-instructed people alone can be permanently a free people." "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall for ever be encouraged." (Ordinance of 1787.) In the words of Montesquieu, "C'est dans le gouvernement républicain que l'on a besoin de toute la puissance de l'éducation." State officials at the various Government offices at Washington think the time well spent which they devote to the school children of the city, and almost everywhere librarians, museum specialists, and others give most willing help to the boys and girls who come individually or in classes to seek their help. The cause in which the nation is at one, from the Washington Senate to the slum settlement in New York or Chicago, is that of the education of the people. Public education is felt to be of the essence of the art of nation-building; it is for this that at the present moment the flag of the nation stands rather than for Imperialism or any other purely political development. This general doctrine is rendered emphatic by the fact of constant immigration of a labouring population, to a large extent illiterate or but poorly taught and trained, and by the needs to which this element of ever-fresh difficulty and danger gives rise. The public school is the one *common* centre of enlightenment and social uplifting, as the Church used to be before it was broken up into sects. It follows, of necessity, that the public schools are absolutely unsectarian. Take the city of St. Louis, for example, where it is estimated that there are about equal numbers of Catholics, Protestants, and of those belonging to no religious denomination: there the school, from the public kindergarten to the high school, is the one ground where all meet on terms of equality, and the very mechanism of which is a drill in habits of social observance. The ethical end which the school life helps to further is the subordination of the individual, coming often from a home in which the jealousies and antagonisms brought over from the old world are rife, to society and its rightful order. The separation of the schools from all trace of theological controversy, and the constant reminder that the children in them are living in the new world under a new flag, are all-important items on the list of influences which are tending to weld together an American nation. The school thus comes to be, in the words of the U.S. Commissioner of Education, "the symbol of an eternal unifying spirit."

The American, in Mr. Rudyard Kipling's judgment, turns—

"A keen untroubled face  
Home, to the instant need of things."

The "instant need," from the point of view of educator and statesman alike, is twofold: to establish a democracy out of the complex material, which makes up the population, and to create a great Western civilisation. These are the conditions which make America a "new world." Amongst new comers changes from old world customs and ideals and a readjustment of

individual relations to society are continually taking place, and the tendency to concentrate in the cities during the last fifty years has rendered the problem more acute. In country districts the process of the assimilation of peoples goes on in the ordinary course of time, and under the influence of neighbourly interchanges. Not so in the cities. There agencies of fusion, of which the school is the chief, have to be called into play. At the same time, as the President of Harvard has recently pointed out, this massing of the people in the great centres has had an ill effect upon the schools themselves. Overcrowding of classes, and a mechanical system of grading, are two evils which such conditions always threaten to bring with them. Moreover, opportunities are offered, and are taken advantage of, to establish old-world colonies, Jewish, Swedish, Italian, German, within the area of the cities; in these the people, whilst ambitious up to a certain point to be good Americans, strive to keep up their language and traditions. In the case of the immigrant peasant population these traditions do not generally include much in the way of education, and the parents are prone to think that their children have had enough schooling as soon as they begin to know more than they themselves. Yet it is to the schools that the nation looks, and on the whole, without disappointment. When a question is raised as to the national power to digest and assimilate the incoming population, the schools furnish the invariable, though not invariably confident, reply. Democracy in America is interpreted to imply that all are to be educated in one kind of school;—certainly a large part of its meaning, for it points to the fusion of nationalities, and the mingling of rich and poor. Ambitious Jew and unambitious Italian, plodding German and elastic American, child of millionaire and of humble dressmaker, not only may, but actually do, sit side by side in the same classes, winning prestige by merit, by worth of work and character. This is America's first practical answer to the problems with which she has to deal. The most promising ingredient in American life is not the vast material wealth and possibilities of far-reaching development, but the consciousness of the magnitude of the social problems, the solution of which can alone give realising potency to those possibilities.

The superintendent of the schools of Peoria expressed this consciousness, which is universal amongst American educators, in his presidential address before the National Educational Association in 1896: "The problems to be solved in the United States, intellectual, ethical, and social, are the gravest that ever confronted men. This vast country of ours furnishes an ample field for the exercise of every faculty, and the indulgence of every propensity of which man is capable. 'No pent-up *Utica* contracts our powers' either for good or for evil." It is this which gives to the educator his conscious mission. His task is pre-eminently moral and social, both in aim and character. "We have the machinery in the public schools," said the principal of a teachers' training school, "which, if we had the wisdom and the devotion to use it, might reform the world. The public school is the only unifier that

exists: society stratifies itself everywhere: the church stratifies itself; the public school is the only thing that is absolutely democratic. As a matter of fact, public opinion demands from the schools results which shall be somewhat in keeping with these ideals. And so intimately is the thought of nation-building associated with public education that amongst America's first gifts to Cuba have been a series of efforts to lift up her schools. The superintendent appointed by the United States Government to organise education in Cuba did it practically gratuitously; free tuition was given in the summer schools of the new Chicago Institute and Harvard University to Cuban teachers; for the aim is not to import teachers into Cuba, but to train native teachers for the work. Sentiment is changing, too, with regard to teaching in coloured schools. The daughters of some of the best families in Charlestown (South Carolina) are beginning to teach side by side with coloured teachers.\* In the summer of 1900 the meetings of the National Educational Association were held in this city, largely in order that northern teachers might give their southern comrades the benefit of their experience.

The call and the motive underlying these efforts, and the nature of the problems upon which they are being brought to bear has been eloquently voiced in a recent address to Canadian teachers by the President of the Winnipeg Normal School (Canada):—"Would you," he asked his hearers, "hear your Country's call? I bring you here those who are my hope. I bring you the children of the wealthy and the children of the poor. I bring you those who differ in race and in language, in customs and in tendencies. I bring you the physically strong and the physically weak, the mentally sound and those to whom nature has not given a full measure of strength. I bring you my boys and my girls, who are to be the fathers and the mothers in this great land. Will you accept them all? Out of this heterogeneous combination can you bring unity? Can you reconcile wealth and poverty so that the feeling of a common brotherhood will prevail? Can you teach British, French, German, Scandinavian, Icclander and Pole, that in this free land all are equally worthy if unreservedly they accept the honour and perform the duties of true citizenship? Can you rise above distinctions in creed, so as to forget that we have Jew and Gentile, Catholic and Protestant? Can you in recognising to yourself distinctions of every kind, so order your work that these will be not a source of separation and contention, but the very elements of strength in a nation in which the idea of brotherhood prevails?" From the nature of things this aspect of the educational problem in parts of Canada and in the United States is practically the same.

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\* This instance is quoted not so much for its final pedagogical value (see Chapter XVIII., and especially pages 135-6 of the Gilchrist report), as for the practical expression it affords of the new and better feelings of the white population with regard to the education of the coloured races.



## CHAPTER II.

## THE RECENT TREND OF EDUCATIONAL THEORY AND PRACTICE.

The answer which the American schools of to-day are giving to the demand made upon them is part of a more general response which American education is making to the new conditions of national progress. The past twenty-five years have been witnessing a declaration of intellectual independence, almost as significant and far-reaching in its effect as the political declaration of a hundred years before. Until comparatively recently America has had a borrowed education. Her leaders sought carefully for the best and adopted it, grafting in upon the old New England standards certain new principles derived in the main from Pestalozzi, Lancaster, Froebel. What is spoken of currently as the great movement or the educational revival of the last twenty-five years is but the development in America of a theory and practice of its own. One chief feature of this revival is the conviction that mere schooling, *i. e.*, the attendance for a certain number of years at the school house under schoolmaster or schoolmistress, and the passing through certain regulations, grades, or standards, will not do. It may be all right, but it may be all wrong. It is as necessary to give attention to the character of the education that is given as to the bare fact of school attendance. Alike as to matter, method, and spirit the education that is offered must fit the conditions of American life, and harmonise with the ideals of American citizenship. Education has become a qualified noun, and *American* is coming to be the qualifying adjective.

This implies a great deal. It means that city superintendents and other educational organisers (whether presidents of universities or directors of kindergartens) must have an eye to the courses arranged for study, and to the handling of these courses in such a way that they shall have a vital influence upon their pupils. What shall be taught, and why? What are to be the American principles of school-government or discipline, and what is the fundamental aim to be kept in view in formulating them? The answers which have been and are being given to these questions correspond to the 'educational renaissance' of the last quarter of the nineteenth century. Within this wide field the points of most constant recurrence are such as bear upon the subject of the present inquiry. The decision as to what shall be taught turns largely, so far at least as new elements in the school curriculum are concerned, upon moral and social considerations. The creation of a right taste; occupation of the hands and minds of children in useful ways which stimulate to industry or in directions which appeal to their love of beauty or of use; the development of the sense of wonder at and sympathy with nature—a first ingredient of worship; the encouragement of reverence for the beautiful, the good, the true—a natural basis for religion; these are some of the ends which are kept in view whenever choice has

to be made of subjects to companion the three R's in the school courses.

The search for true methods in teaching—true, that is, for American children and American teachers—is guided in a large measure, of course, by psychological indications, but is also, and taking the bulk of the teachers of the country perhaps even more, guided by a desire to train in self-expression and self-reliance. The exaggerations to which this may lead in actual practice are obvious, and will be referred to later. With regard to school discipline, an almost unanimous opinion prevails so soon as one leaves the cities of the extreme east. The superintendent of schools at Cleveland, Ohio, in his 1898 report states its ruling principle in brief as follows:—"Making the child capable and desirous of living in the best possible way in the forms of civilised life, viz., the family, state, church, industrial, and civil society, is to make him a self-respecting, self-governing, and helpful component of these same institutions." Self-respecting, self-governing—no two expressions could better convey the current opinion concerning a right school spirit, and the attitude of the individual pupil towards it. "The order of the school is not activity repressed, but it is activity directed and organised to useful ends." On the surface, discipline would often appear to have ceased to be a teacher's art, and to have become a pupil's art, bound up with the mere fact of going to school in the same way as the more mechanical parts of discipline already are, such as punctuality, neatness, and regular attendance. In reality, however, the art is the teacher's, whereas the act is the scholar's. From the teacher's standpoint, the art of allowing the liberty which leads on to self-government is quite as high an art as that of repressing liberty which is teacher-government. This is evidenced by the almost universal testimony that old world educators generally fail in the handling of classes of American children. Even in the interchanges between eastern and western states something similar occurs; eastern teachers, who are more European in their methods, frequently fail to do well in the west; western teachers, on the other hand, almost invariably succeed in the east. But what one wishes to bring out here is that this new spirit in class management, which has a first and almost absolute regard to the cultivation of the power of self-government in the pupils, is by common consent part of the general movement which has been taking place in recent years. It is as marked in Canada as in the United States; indeed, one well-known statement of the theory is in a little book to which the writer has long been indebted, entitled, "Mistakes in Teaching," by a Canadian superintendent\* whose favourite phrase is "the perfect law of liberty."

A further notable feature of the educational development that is in progress is the remarkable desire for self-improvement

\* Mr. James L. Hughes, of Toronto. Though Mr. Hughes is officially known as "Inspector," his functions are really identical with those of the Superintendents of Public Instruction in American cities. (*Individuality, etc.*, pp. 10-22.)

amongst the teachers. Meetings convened by the superintendents or their assistants, by the principals of schools, by the supervisors in charge of specific subjects, are constantly being held. Topics relating to teaching and discipline are discussed, the immediate aim being the study of the principles of class management and instruction, in order that the every-day practice in the school-rooms may be more intelligent and more effectual. Teachers do not consider themselves "trained" after having spent one or two or even three years in a normal college. In addition to superintendents', supervisors' and principals' conferences, it is quite a common thing for teachers to combine throughout a school or group of schools, to provide for themselves a special course of lectures on literary or professional subjects. The conviction which prompts these efforts was put into words by the director of kindergartens for the City of Boston, in the superintendent's report for 1896:

"It is impossible to develop others if we are not developing ourselves. To give necessitates receiving, and the mind must travel and gather, that it may communicate and grow. Wherever there is vigorous life in the kindergarten [and school might be substituted for kindergarten] there will be classes for the study of higher things. If the kindergartner looks upon her work as a trade she will try to do it as well as possible, but will limit her horizon to its tools; if she looks upon the kindergarten as a field for her own development, as well as that of the children, she learns that only as she enters all those realms to which the kindergarten has open doors can she begin to do rightly the small tasks of her daily work. No one can be a truly skilful kindergartner in whom latent power is not being constantly awakened. That she may see in her work the beginnings from which all power springs; that she may relate its principles to those which rule history, literature, science, and art; that she may learn something of its universal significance and see it as Froebel conceived it, the kindergartner must know more than any school can give. She must study always and study the best. In the hope that insight and ability may increase, that the child's nature and needs may grow clearer, we have held weekly meetings for conference and study. These have been of two kinds—for practical improvement and for mental growth." These words, *mutatis mutandis*, apply equally to the teacher in the ordinary American public school.

Education is now recognised as being a progressive science, with which practice must endeavour to keep pace, whereas twenty years ago there were many, even among educators, who scouted the idea that there was anything new to be learned in teaching.

## CHAPTER III.

THE RELATION OF THE NEW MOVEMENTS IN EDUCATION TO THE  
MORAL AND SOCIAL PROBLEMS WHICH THE SCHOOL  
SETS OUT TO SOLVE.

"It shall be the duty of . . . all instructors of youth to exert their best endeavours to impress on the minds of children and youth committed to their care and instruction the principles of piety and justice and a sacred regard to truth; love of their country, humanity, and universal benevolence; sobriety, industry, and frugality; chastity, moderation, and temperance; and those other virtues which are the ornament of human society and the basis upon which a republican constitution is founded: and it shall be the duty of such instructors to endeavour to lead their pupils, as their ages and capacities will admit, into a clear understanding of the tendency of the above-mentioned virtues to preserve and perfect a republican constitution and secure the blessings of liberty, as well as to promote their future happiness, and also to point out to them the evil tendency of the opposite vices." These are the words of the Massachusetts State law, and in regard to them one of the agents of the State Board of Education has recently said:—"Already the voice of public opinion, as heard from the press, pulpit, and platform, is making it easy for us as teachers to emphasise this part of our work as we never have before. The letter of the law—so long a dead letter—may now be infused with life if we only will it to be so."

Certainly, a growing faith exists in the influence of the school to purify life, and to make even the morally defective less likely to offend. This beneficial influence of the public school may be traced in part to the coincidence of various educative and humanising influences which have sprung into force during the closing decades, and pre-eminently during the closing decade, of the nineteenth century. "Free kindergartens, college settlements, provision for public health and hygiene, improved tenement houses, the exclusion of children from mills and shops, shorter hours for working people, with public support of culture forces, such as libraries, museums, music, lectures—these things have all supplemented and supported the school." So "the new education" is not a thing that stands apart; it belongs to a broad-flowing stream of tendency which works towards the purifying of the entire social life. Historic influences have taken their place in this partly eclectic, partly spontaneous, educational movement. Pestalozzi has been the great exemplar, Froebel the great teacher, Herbart the typical normal master. Froebel stands out as the teacher of educational principles because he is the first to suggest an evolutionary principle in education (for Comenius' conception of an ever-widening circle of knowledge from infancy onwards does not amount to this). This principle has brought with it not only a new faith in right environment as the corrective of an evil heredity, but various corollaries applicable in education, of which

the doctrine of solidarity is one of the most important. This at once gives to moral training a social aspect, and causes the sociologist to look in turn to education as a moral antiseptic. Character and social environment become correlative terms. Goodness is the power to go forth into society, creating health. There is no individuality apart from society, and no character escapes its social setting. This prevailing view was tersely expressed in a lecture by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, which the writer attended at the Columbia University, in the course of which he said: "It is perfectly possible for a Robinson Crusoe to be religious; it is not possible for him to be moral, for this he must have others living with him in an institutional relationship."

Moral education, therefore, must in a sense be social. The steps that have been taken in the direction of child study bear out this belief. Social instincts are, as indeed Froebel saw, as much a part of the child as his selfish instincts. The individual self and the social self become mutual factors in moral development. No fact, said a Chicago educator, has impressed me more than that which has been stated by Professor Baldwin—that the self-consciousness of the child does not precede his consciousness of other selves, that it possibly succeeds, at any rate is contemporaneous. The child thinks of himself first in terms of others, and after a while learns to think of others in terms of himself. "This is the psychological basis alike of sociology and of pedagogy." A connection is thus established between right education and the social problems with which a nation has to deal; and the social aim is kept well in view in the public schools of America. Milton, it will be remembered, suggested a similar means to a similar end, when he wrote of a *Ready and Easy Way to Establish a Free Commonwealth*. "They should have also schools and academies . . . wherein their children may be bred up in their own sight to all learning and noble education; not in grammar only, but in all liberal arts and services. This would soon spread much more knowledge and civility—yea, religion—through all parts of the land, and by communicating the natural heat of government and culture more distributively to all extreme parts, which now lie numb and neglected, would soon make the whole nation more industrious, more ingenious at home, more potent, more honourable abroad. To this a free Commonwealth will easily assent (nay, the Parliament hath already some such thing in design); for of all Parliaments a Commonwealth aims most to make the people flourishing, virtuous, noble, and high-spirited." The development of republican manhood," said the President of the Leland Stanford University, "is just now the most important matter that any nation in the world has on hand." America is yet in the making, and knows it. In the process the schools are called upon to play an honourable part; though with much still remaining to be desired, as in 1894 Dr. Harris, U. S. Commissioner of Education, calculated that at the rate at which attendance was being secured in the schools each child was receiving an average of not more than four and three-tenths years' instruction of 200 days each.

Speaking of American schools generally, Professor McMurry, of Teachers College, New York, said that, whereas mental discipline and useful knowledge had been the two things aimed at in the past, the tendency is now towards the social aim, and the engendering of a right habit of mind towards the subjects of study. The key-word of the new aim is to train the individual will to recognise and to respond sympathetically to the larger will of society. This, in a word, is the doctrine of individualism as accepted by the leading American educators; and it is the development of this type of individuality that the organisation and discipline of the school is to subserve. The social whole or larger will of society can be regarded, and needs to be regarded, from more than one point of view, and to each of these points of view school life must endeavour to accommodate itself. There is the purely democratic stand-point, which demands that the schools shall be public in the fullest sense and be attended alike by rich and poor; there is the political point of view of the fusion of nationalities; there is the well-recognised need for training in the civic and social virtues; and, closely related to this, the training of the power of voluntary organisation in school groups and clubs, merging in the common *esprit de corps* of the whole. The school in short, is asked to furnish a *life* to its members in which the environment shall be so blended as to represent on a smaller scale the national conditions into which, as adults, they will be called upon to enter.\* Individuality, built up according to these standards, is not that which separates one from all others, but it represents the community life of each single member of the community, that, in a sense, which is common to all. This may seem a somewhat profound doctrine on which to build up one's school practice, but it is the working hypothesis of those who take the lead amongst American educators. In one case, the free-trade argument was quoted by way of illustration. Free-traders say that we cannot get the best unless the world is our unit, so that we are free to go everywhere in search of the best. This leads to a world-wide organisation of industries which intensifies for each individual the advantages of free intercourse. Similarly, the theory of moral training in which the institutional life seems to predominate may really tend to bring the individual into fuller relief, increasing the range of his liberties and enlarging his personal life. Kipling is quoted in this connection: "The wolf the strength of the pack, the pack the strength of the wolf." From the civic and national point of view one hears the same thing stated—We are educating for the benefit of the State, not to get smart children only; our aim is not simply to make two blades of grass grow where one grew before—which is good enough so far as it goes—but to meet and to labour upon a higher and broader plane. In harmony with this view, the

\* "Ethics rests on the idea of a social whole as the totality of man, and on the idea of an immortal life as the condition of realising in each man the life of the whole." W. T. Harris, *Introduction to the Study of Philosophy*, p. 244.

following theses were maintained by Professor J. W. Jenks of Cornell University, before the Graduates' Club at Teachers College, Columbia University, the most remarkable training college in the United States, whether from the point of view of staffing or equipment:

## I.

From the social standpoint the measure of a man's value is the extent and quality of his service to others, to society.

## II.

The same criterion ought to be applied in judging a school.

## III.

That the chief purpose of schools and colleges is to fit pupils for rendering service to society—not necessarily to develop the powers of the pupils.

## IV.

That the chief elements in training for citizenship are the development of a habit of impartial judgment and the awakening of an appreciation of one's relations to society.

## PART II.—THE SCHOOL AND THE COMMUNITY.

## CHAPTER IV.

## THE INDIVIDUAL AND THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY.

Of the methods of training tending to a full appreciation of the vital relationship of the individual to society, the first and most striking to the English visitor is that based on the democratic idea that the schools are public in the sense of belonging alike to rich and poor; the chief exceptions that are to be found are in the eastern cities such as New York and Boston, particularly Boston. This is true of Canada, as well as of the United States. The schools are "the only little patch of Mother Earth that all have an equal right to." They are spoken of, therefore, as the great democratising influence incarnating the American spirit as nothing else does. It is even claimed that they are the most effective religious institutions amongst the dense population of the cities, inasmuch as there is more of the common faith actively enlisted in the service of the common life than in any other institution in the land. "My little girl," said a speaker who was making this claim, himself a Professor in a theological college, "goes to the — school; she was received with a chivalry which could not be surpassed in any suburban school." (The father was actively connected with settlement work in one of the poorer parts of the city.) The feeling of a common

relation to the schools is so strong that if a millionaire or a professional man sends his children to a proprietary school he feels that he has to apologise for it, as though he were doing an un-American thing. It is because New York city is not American, was one testimony, that we have the educational cleavage.

The healthy influence of this sentiment it is hardly possible to exaggerate. It arises in part from the fact that some of the wealthiest men have risen from humble beginnings, and there is a universal readiness to respect a poor boy of heart, ability, and energy. It is a problem in present worth, the discount being in the poor boy's favour. A well-known minister in Chicago, who had lived in the city for twenty-one years, expressed the opinion that ninety-nine out of a hundred families send their children to the public schools, which fact in itself helps to maintain them at a good level; indeed, he had yet to learn of the first instance of a family keeping the children out of the common schools for any reason of not mingling with poorer children. On the contrary, well-to-do people often prefer to send their children to the public schools to put them on their mettle. In the highest grade of one of the New York schools a boy was pointed out as the son of a working dressmaker with the remark that, though there were sons of wealthy men amongst his class mates, no one was more looked up to than he. When it comes to the election of officers in the class a boy's social standing counts for nothing. The class-president is often the brightest but poorest boy in the grade, money not affording the least prestige. One of the most interesting cities in America, educationally speaking, is Minneapolis. There, in a school which has adopted the form of pupil organisation known as the school city, officers are elected indiscriminately from all classes, and a coloured boy may be seen leading one of the lines before and after recess in which are the children of wealthy American parents. Another coloured boy, at the time of the writer's visit, was acting as one of the 'city' policemen in the hall. A poor boy is only complained of if he is vulgar or untidy. If he is self-respecting and industrious, all his schoolfellows know that there are ways in which he may work his way through the state University (which he attends without tuition fee); there he may win distinction, as sons of poor parents have done before him, and become a citizen of whom his school may well be proud. Here and there, one hears a disapproving expression, to the effect that the country is running into sentimentality too much, making it easy for idlers by giving the children books, shoes, and other things which they need; but this is exceedingly rare, and the immediate response would be—why not give the children a chance? In some eastern cities, such as New York and Boston, especially the latter, wealthy parents are showing some tendency to send their children to private schools. But these are the exceptional cases. Class education is looked upon with almost universal disfavour. If, it is said, probably in view of the possibility of some such development, university students are being trained at the public expense to take the side of the capitalists



on industrial questions, the universities will be the first to suffer; they will not stand for any very long unless they stand for all! Teachers are urged in their class-rooms to show no favour. If they test their success by anything, let it be by their success with the scholar who has the least chance at home, who has perhaps no quiet corner to study in, and whose environment and antecedents are all against him. A single incident, related by the superintendent of the Toronto schools, shows that the same public school spirit obtains in Canada. A distinguished English clergyman was visiting Toronto a few years ago and remarked with surprise upon the absence of class distinctions in the schools, and even the impossibility of telling the social circle to which children belonged by anything in their dress, appearance, or manner. The son of the Prime Minister happened at that very time to be sitting at the same double desk side by side with the son of a carpenter earning a dollar and a half a day. The English visitor frankly confessed that he could not from the bearing of the two boys have judged which was which. Instead of, as he had feared, tending to draw down the one boy, it had lifted up the other. In this respect, accordingly, American educators claim that an elevating moral influence is being exerted by their schools. Frequently, a desire to help schoolfellows less favourably circumstanced is shown by those who come from wealthier homes. Cast-off clothing is taken to the school to be distributed quietly by the teachers and in such a way that neither giver nor receiver knows anything more about it. Three winters ago, in Cleveland, this spirit manifested itself in a marked way amongst girls who had left school. Many of the older girls who, after passing through the high school, felt that they wanted to be earning their living, had taken situations as shop-assistants. The daughters of some of the city millionaires and of other people of wealth, met together and rented some rooms for the benefit of the business girls. They furnished a drawing and a dining-room, and themselves went down and prepared dinners for their old school fellows at cost price. One evening in the week music was arranged for, and the business girls were made to feel that neither school accomplishments nor school companionships need be altogether dropped. Poor children who are inclined to be thoughtful and refined are brought out by meeting with those who have better home surroundings, and are not infrequently received as visiting friends after school days have ceased. This is the bright and ideal side of the picture—a side which, taking the vast mass of testimony to that effect is largely realised. Yet there are excellent teachers who experience the difficulty of preventing cliques, and of keeping the aristocrats in harmony with the others, especially in the best part of a city.

What is true in this general way of the different social classes in the public schools is true also with regard to the different nationalities forming part of the American population. Immigration is accepted by the bulk of the people of the United States as an eminently desirable thing. But the fact that as a citizen

the immigrant has civil and political rights gives rise to an obvious need. "If he has not absorbed the spirit of our institutions and come into sympathy with it, if he has not learned how to perpetuate our institutions, as a lawgiver he will foist upon us parts of foreign laws and institutions. If he is ignorant even of the institutions of his native country, he will be a still worse element in our politics. . . . It is all important, therefore, that the immigrant shall be educated in our best institutions, and "Americanised" in the spirit of our free intelligence. . . . If they establish schools of their own and even achieve a high culture in them, as Germans have done when they have refused to enter our public schools, still they may lack training in the spirit of our special forms of government, and being educated into foreign ways of viewing and acting, they are all the more incapable of rightly judging public exigencies, of understanding the motives of, and sympathising with, the native population. . . . Under all circumstances it is desirable that the immigrant shall be educated in the same schools with the native population if he is to have and exercise political power.\* This is a statement of the matter in its mildest form. In very many cases, just as with large parts of the population of most European countries, education has first to civilise. Americanising must follow; unless, as is possible, the two processes go on together. In any case, the final outcome will be the resultant of two contributing forces, which may be called old-world and new-world patriotism. Patriotism is first fostered by a judicious blending of the mention of the "old country" with knowledge of the new; and citizenship is developed by the mingling of representatives of more than one old country in common fellowship in the new country. Clannishness is not so much discountenanced as quietly overruled. Teachers welcome signs of comradeship amongst compatriots. They find that older children are often very helpful with newcomers—partly because they have themselves gone through the experience, and partly because they are very fond of their own kin. Italian children, especially, are helpful and affectionate to each other, and the teachers are glad of such co-operation. Such children like to keep together and to move up together through the school. "We pass," said a Cleveland schoolboy, "they no pass. Why?"—wanting the others to be promoted too; but shrugged his shoulders and said, "They Italy," meaning that they had just come over. Such children do not look forward with any pleasure to the visits of the supervisor, whose business is to promote such as are ready into higher grades. "She come; she go; she take away." This spirit of nationality American teachers are on the watch for opportunities to use, and to transform by degrees into an American feeling. At the Hull House settlement in Chicago, one of the best-known settlements in America, which is surrounded by a very varied foreign population, nights are arranged for programmes having special interest to immigrants of different nationalities. One night a Greek play

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\* Dr. W. T. Harris, in an address before the National German-American Teachers' Association.

will be given by Greeks, and another night an Italian play by Italians. The room is invariably crowded, though prices ranging from a quarter of a dollar to a dollar are charged for admission. Music is made use of to the same end. The settlement workers want the people to retain a love for their fatherland, and the children who are learning English in the schools not to be ashamed of the home-language. As part of the same plan, evenings are arranged for national songs in native costumes, English, Russian, Swedish, Italian, Danish; and the second part of the programme consists of national dances. In this way the settlement gets a strong hold upon the heterogeneous elements of the district, and does in part for the adults what the schools are doing for the children. As a single illustration of the unifying work in progress in the schools, one might mention the Eagle School, at Cleveland, where children of twelve or thirteen nationalities attend, including Slavs, Italians, Germans, Russian Jews, Polish Jews, Arabians and a few Americans. May it not be part of America's great mission to become the growing ground of an international or world patriotism? Whilst holding her own place amongst the sovereign states of the earth, the world's racial elements are so intermixed that America is a New World in the sense of being not merely a recapitulation but a reconstruction of the elements of the old, with a new aim and a new destiny.

The two socialising influences so far referred to are quite general throughout the United States, though naturally affected by local conditions. In all cities there will be some schools, probably a considerable majority, where rich and poor children, American and foreign, are equally at home. In different districts of the same city, however, the class of children in attendance at any one school, amounting in some cases to practically the whole school, may be either native or immigrant, wealthy or poor. In Cleveland, for instance, one may visit a school, consisting almost entirely of Italians, in Cincinnati of Germans, and in Washington there is a separate system of coloured schools. So in the wealthier districts of a city one meets with a much greater proportion of well-to-do children than in a densely-populated district. Yet, taken as a whole, the schools are the public instruments for the fusing alike of classes and races.

When consideration is given to methods which are adopted as a means of training in civic and social duties, and in knowledge of the elementary phases of constitutional life, one comes to conditions which naturally vary somewhat from place to place. The principles which underlie this training were well stated by one of the speakers at a child-study conference for the State of Illinois, held at Chicago on May 11 and 12, 1900. Society was defined as "a continuous process—not a thing, a *process*—of getting more and better balanced and proportioned health, wealth, sociability, knowledge, beauty, righteousness, satisfaction in persons." In less technical terms, this chief fact about society was illustrated by a sea-coast at a time when the geologic

forces are at work upon it, and the boulders interacting and interworking. At any moment each individual in society is producing society, and at the same time the whole of society is producing each individual. Society is a continuous process of producing the whole by the working of the individual parts, and of producing the individual parts by the working of the whole. This speaker selected three typical relationships, or adjustments, between the individual and society as being more or less obvious and universal. These are (a) the relationship or adjustment of conformity; (b) of co-operation; (c) of control. An individual who is highly trained for the social and institutional life is able to adjust himself readily upon all these lines. It will be helpful to study school efforts to impart such training under these three headings.

(a). Adjustment to social habits, or conformity. Social habit counts for far more than personal. "Every individual is not more than one per cent. himself, he is 99 per cent. the people around him and who went before him. For example, in ordering a suit of clothes, 99 per cent. of the order given is that of society existing and pre-existing. The individual may order one inch, more or less, in length or width, but it is society, not he, which gives the bulk of the order." Whilst, therefore, it is admitted that the fullest possible development of the individual is a desirable thing, yet to-day, as never before, a vigorous effort is being made to conserve what is best in and for society. That training of the boy or girl is conceived to be the best which, whilst giving individuality sufficient scope, leads to an appreciation of what is best in community life. Indeed, the rationale of the public school is the fact that there is much that is good in human society and human culture which the individual cannot pick up of his own accord. From this standpoint leading educationists do not tire of exalting the mechanism of morals, the school order as to time and place, for the part they play in inducing a spirit of conformity to social requirements. A teacher will quite commonly explain to the class *why* whispering and talking and unrestrained movement are forbidden; it is something more than the teacher's command or one of the rules of the school, it is a necessary self-restraint on the part of each for the sake of the social whole. If these mechanical virtues, belonging, *i.e.*, to the mechanism of the school, are not acquired, there is not believed to be much chance of giving ethical training of a more elaborate kind. It is not much the point to ask a child to weigh up the ethical standards of the world; it is to the point to train him to do a right or a social thing. Even the feeling of freedom which is permitted to children in most American schools is made to contribute to this end. A boy's work is open to criticism, but—such cases were quoted to the writer—other children will sometimes speak in his defence; either "he has not been here long," or "he has been sick," occasionally too the classmates become critical and say, "he does not try." How do you know? a visiting supervisor once asked. "Because," was the answer, "the teacher often has to speak to him about it." This was "not

done in a spirit of tale-bearing" but in vindication of the common standards to which the class was expected to attain. To cite another instance. "Well, Miss—didn't he read well?" was the comment of a first grade child to the teacher after a boy had finished. In this way the class is allowed to become a little community, with community standards of excuse, encouragement, or blame. Some readers will regard this as *lucus a non lucendo* method of class discipline. But if, as the writer was assured by the supervisor who had charge of the primary grades\* in one city, the children become proud of each other when they do good work, and the class as a whole brightens up when the teacher praises any member of it, it seems to produce a zest for good work for its own sake and at the same time an admiration for the right things in the small school community. All this implies that the teacher identifies herself with the social feeling of her class, that she indeed creates it by a sympathy with the children and by an enjoyment of their work which allows this feeling to develop. The superintendent of schools in the city referred to—it was Washington—probably had something like this in mind when he said in the course of conversation,—“The sooner the school can take hold of the child, if the school is what it ought to be, and may be, the better it will be for the State. This beginning is properly made in a rightly conducted Kindergarten, but the spirit of the Kindergarten should follow the child through the grades of the school above. Confidence and truth, together with independence of action, are the basis of ethical training—the teacher trusting the child, and the child trusting the teacher; only the teacher must be such that if a child trusts her he shall find that he has not been making a mistake. The Kindergarten that is not methodised to death, succeeded by a primary school that causes the child to grow by spontaneous action in the direction of truth and knowledge and responsibility, will, together with a civic movement for better and cheaper homes, transform the worst slum in any city. The children become missionaries into the homes as they grow stronger.” When (as is not generally the case in Washington) the principal of a school is set free from teaching, much can be done by his or her influence to bind the school together in a spirit of confidence and good fellowship. The very fact that a principal knows from 600 to 900 children nearly all by name, and that they know that they can come to her in perfect confidence, is in itself a socialising force. More than one such school was visited. In some cities, however, the principal of each school building has full and constant charge of one of the classes—a faulty arrangement even at its best, and some of the evils of which are indicated in the report presented to

\* Appendix IV. shows in the form of a chart the normal grading of American schools. Owing to differences of terminology, it should be explained that the High Schools are, like our Science and Higher Grade Schools, part of the city systems of public (free) education.

† The vast preponderance of women teachers in American Elementary schools accounts for the use of the feminine pronoun.

the Gilchrist trustees. In such cases her influence can scarcely be felt throughout the school as a whole. But in the main, the social and institutional side of school life is kept well to the front. The school is represented as an organisation in which law is inherent, the teacher being as much under law as the pupils. At times teachers will talk over with the children the purpose of the school, getting them to explain why they are not educated at home; how the building is arranged, and its adaptation to school purposes, in order to impress the idea of the institutional life of which it is a centre. An ex-superintendent of schools explained how he dealt on one occasion with some unruly boys. He asked them who made the laws of the school. "I guess it's the superintendent," was the first suggestion. "No!" Then answers were given that it was the mayor of the city, the city council, the State Legislature. When they were unable to guess further, this gentleman, who was at that time a headmaster, told them that the law lay in the very purpose of the school, that the law existed before the school, therefore, and that he was under it as well as they; "we are simply working out the purpose of the school." For this reason they had recitations at regular times, and did not allow each to go and come as he pleased. So they were led up to the idea of the unity of the school, to preserve which each and all must give up something. They do not talk freely to each other in school because a pupil may be thinking out a difficult problem, and if, just as he is nearing its solution, someone addresses him, his train of thought may be broken, and the result of his labour be lost. There is nothing intrinsically wrong in speaking to others in school, but the *purpose of the school* makes silence necessary. When the boys saw that the teacher was under the law of the school as well as they, they began to realise what that law meant, the bravado element in law-breaking was dispelled, and they saw that it really placed the law-breaker outside of the school order or organisation, and destroyed the unity of the school. The headmaster who spoke in this way was a powerful man, and would have had no difficulty in using sterner measures. One or two of the replies from city superintendents of schools in answer to questions addressed to them by post, may be quoted in this connection. The superintendent of Hartford, Connecticut, wrote:—

"We have no 'school city,'\* but we do have, as one of our highest aims, the ideal of socialising the individual pupil. We keep before the pupils at all times the idea that they can be loyal to their flag and country by being loyal to their school, and that they show their loyalty by their helpful spirit—by their service. We try to aid them to feel that they live best when they render their best service to those around them. They can render such service by habits of promptness, punctuality, obedience, cheerful responsiveness in recitation, the best attention, and the most painstaking work."

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\* See pages 130-137.

The Louisville superintendent wrote as follows —

"Great stress is laid upon recognising the rights of each individual member of the school, and the rights of the members as modified by the community life in which they are to take a part. It is our desire to keep the moral aim always in view, and to insist that the development of the mental faculties shall be accompanied by a higher sense of obligation as a member of the social organisation. In fact, mental development, without a due regard to the moral obligations of the child, can do but little good. I would much prefer to have the boys and girls of Louisville go out from her school system with high ideas of right and wrong, and with a proper appreciation of their own rights and the rights of others, and a loose regard for the branches of study in the curriculum, than to have them go out with a high record in Arithmetic, Grammar, Geography, History, etc., but with a small sense of their moral obligation."

The principal of Forestville, Chicago, a school in which an excellent spirit prevails, was able to name some five or six elements in the organisation tending to produce school unity. Amongst these were; (a) the weekly meeting of the teachers; (b) the representation of plays\* by the upper classes before some of the other grades; (c) class visits to other grades, the higher classes being taken down to visit the Kindergarten to quicken their love for little children, and the visits being sometimes returned by little children going up to the eighth grade, to tell their elders the myth-stories they have learnt; (d) the exhibition in the school of the work of former pupils; (e) showing the work of the grades on the walls of the landings and staircases, especially in drawing, brushwork, and composition, so that all can see what the others do. Harmony was spoken of as the word which expresses the school ideal, seconded by the companion aims—growth and individuality. At Yonkers, New York, one or two pretty forms of class play were seen, which had been adopted by the teachers to promote friendship amongst the scholars in the first grade who were more or less new to the school.

When pupils enter the High School, at an average age of 14 or 15, a collective appeal is frequently made to them to maintain a spirit of loyalty to the institution which is to be their home, and to make the honour of the school part of and coincident with their individual honour. In these and other ways children are led by means of their school experience to understand in some measure what institutional life implies, to enter into its spirit, and to conform to its demands. Above all they gain some grasp of the fact that "subordination is not sacrifice, it is the highest success of the individual." According to the philosophy which has many eminent adherents amongst American educationists the easiest approach to the true world-view is through human institutions. "It is as clearly in the nature of spirit to create institutions, as it is in the nature of life to create organs. Institutions are the spiritual reality of which organic life is the lower analogue."

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\* Excellent work in literature is one of the features of this school.

The school is such an institution and should help to train the child for life in the family, the industrial community, and the State.

The cultivation of good manners is similarly regarded as one of the functions of the school. Visitors to the Toronto schools have often remarked upon their brightness and the happy bearing of both teachers and children. There the children uniformly rose when the superintendent said, "Good morning, children," and responded, "Good morning, Mr. Hughes"; and as the teacher went round in one class and dropped a little water on their slates in order to clean them (a great improvement upon what one has sometimes seen elsewhere), all the children were observed to say, "Thank you, Miss ——" In the United States, equally, it was found to be a common thing for the children to rise when the principal introduced a visitor, even first grade children welcoming one with "Good morning," or "Good afternoon," and saying "Good-bye," as one left.\* One first grade teacher said she thought this was helped by the "golden thoughts" — little sentence-recitations about politeness, kindness and so forth—which they had every morning. Seldom was the writer allowed to remain without a book being brought spontaneously by one of the children sitting near him; if the teacher should happen to change the page from that which they were expecting to read, the boy would take back the book and return it open at the right place. One little girl, about seven years of age, at the Ethical Society's School in New York, observed the writer standing before a model of an Esquimaux village just after the close of school. "Would you like to know all about this?" she said. "Yes, very much." Then she described the village, and the bears, and the seals swimming, and the icebergs and the aurora borealis, with interesting little bits of information by the way, and gave the full story of how the model had been made. But the most interesting thing of all was the frankness and geniality which prompted the description.

(b) *Adjustment to mutual needs, or co-operation.*—"If the art of living and working together is to be taught in the public schools, are we not to lay more emphasis on the co-operation of scholars in the little school community life than on competition? In the public schools let us try to have an ideal democracy." This was the substance of one of the topics taken up

\* On one occasion the writer was leaving a class of small children and, being engrossed in conversation with the principal, failed to notice their genial adieu. The principal at once made it possible to remedy the oversight lest the children's salute should fail of its response. Of course, this formality is observed only when the principal of the school or the city superintendent (or occasionally the teacher) introduces the visitor to the class. The great freedom of visiting allowed to parents, teachers from other cities, and others (for purposes of observation) would be almost impossible if every visitor were formally saluted on entering and leaving. On the contrary, if one enters a class-room in this informal way the writer had opportunities of observing that custom creates a well-mannered disregard of a visitor's presence. As a rule, too, for reasons stated later, what is going on in the class-rooms of the best schools is of more interest to the children than the entrance of a stranger.



at the child-study conference already referred to. The prize system is believed to foster the competitive spirit out of which spring the fratricidal strifes of commerce. In several different ways, some fairly general and widespread, others special and almost experimental in character, the attempt is being made to stimulate the thought of working together rather than against each other. Encouragement to make the greatest absolute progress on one's own record, and the cultivation of a spirit of mutual helpfulness are coming to be regarded as part of the business of the teacher. In some classes, though this is not generally permitted or desired, children are allowed to speak to one another provided that it is about their lesson and that they are either seeking or giving help. Professor Dewey, of Chicago University, founder of a remarkable school—the University Elementary School—to be more fully described later on, declaims against the system whereby it has become a school crime for one child to help another in his task, and makes it the basis of a criticism of school methods not merely in words but in the form of his practical experiment to the contrary. "Where the school work consists in simply learning lessons, mutual assistance, instead of being the most natural form of co-operation and association, becomes a clandestine effort to relieve one's neighbour of his proper duties. Where active work is going on all this is changed. Helping others, instead of being a form of charity which impoverishes the recipient, is simply an aid in setting free the powers and furthering the impulse of the one helped. A spirit of free communication, of interchange of ideas, suggestions, results, . . . . becomes the dominating note of the recitation."\* This is one of the principal theses of a little book entitled "The School and Society," which has already been well received in England. The superintendent of the Sioux City schools wrote in a somewhat similar strain: "Each pupil is appealed to and inspired as much as possible to work for the good of the little school community of which he forms a part, so that when he goes out he will act the part of a good citizen in the larger community outside the school-room, that thus he may learn the wholesome lesson that his own highest welfare is wrapped up in the highest welfare of all."

One of the means most generally adopted to bring in a spirit of co-operation is that of combined work on the part of a class upon a model or illustrative scene representing in detail some portion of the year's reading. Some of the best examples of this method are to be found at the Ethical Society's schools at New York. The Esquimaux village has been already mentioned; the home of Hiawatha, Robinson Crusoe's island, are other examples. In the Manual Training Department of the same school, what is known as "project work" forms part of the year's programme. One class, for example, was making two model yachts, to be called the Shamrock and the Columbia. When the

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\* The word "recitation" is exactly synonymous with the English word "lesson."

boats were finished the boys would go with the instructor to one of the parks to repeat the race in miniature. Another beautiful piece of project work was a model of a bridge in bent iron work, the separate parts being made by the boys working singly or in small groups. Co-operative methods of a more special kind are being tried with much success at the Chicago Normal School under the name of *group-work*, and other methods have been adopted both at Laporte and Dayton under the leadership of Dr. Hailmann, the present superintendent in Dayton, who has done much to carry the Kindergarten occupations into the higher grades, devising as one phase of this development some interesting occupations in which children can combine and make interchanges.

At the Chicago Normal (Practising and Model) School the group work began in the third grade with the offer of the teacher to place three half-hours in the week at the disposal of the children if they could come forward with their own suggestions as to what they would do in the time that would be useful and a benefit to others as well as themselves. From the individual point of view, this was asking the children, who were nine years of age, "What is it that you really would be at?" and the answers, it was felt, would indicate the "growing-point" of the children—that part of their experience which they were wishful to put to practical uses, and so to improve and enlarge. The great majority of the children not only had ideas, but with the teacher's concurrence they spontaneously arranged themselves into groups to carry them out. One group selected the postal system, and soon found what a large field of inquiry was involved in it. They asked questions of postmen, obtained details as to rates of postage, stamps, dead letters, the delivery system; finally, they constructed a model city, with streets, to illustrate the postman's rounds; the whole class became so much interested that they co-operated in the work, and bound up in book form a record of the results. Another group of six boys worked up a representation of the battle of Manila. They read all they could about the battle, studied pictures which illustrated it, constructed clay forts and model men-of-war; with toy cannons and soldiers cut out of cardboard they acted out the battle, and themselves withstood a running fire of questions which the interest aroused by the performances called forth from the class. Such a piece of work could not be completed without the need for organisation making itself felt. Within a short time the group found it necessary to appoint a leader who should apportion the work; it was also found necessary to dispense with the services of one of their number who would not work. Again, the principle emerges, and emerges spontaneously, that subordination is not sacrifice, but is necessary to the highest success of the individual. One could multiply instances of various kinds of group-work that were seen in operation; a printers' group of boys, by using rubber type, printed difficult or misspelt words for the use of the class; another boy was in the service of three cooking groups,

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printing their recipes. "Would you like to see our group portfolio?" one girl was kind enough to ask. It was a report representing the group-work of the grade, containing reports on behaviour, some going into very exact detail as to the offences of boys in the cookery department; one of the least explicit was headed, "About, —," and ran as follows: "He ought to be put out of the group for good, because we gave him three trials and he did not act good." Dr. E. B. Andrews, late Superintendent of Chicago Schools, now President of Nebraska University, writing upon "Practical School Organisation from a Child-Study Standpoint," refers at length to the Chicago Normal School experiment. Whilst contending that the most important features of it are to give children the knowledge that their own greatest happiness and highest self-realisation is part and parcel of the welfare of others, and to afford them an opportunity of developing the feeling of social responsibility and social causation, he adds:—"It will be noticed that the old standbys of the school curriculum are not neglected. Reading and writing become sought after as a means of realising ideas. Geography, history and literature make themselves distinctly felt. Constructive work and play are prominent, and in some activities, particularly such as that of stamp-collecting, involving the value of one kind of money as compared with another, arithmetic itself was fully represented."

As far back as 1893, Dr. Rice, editor of the *Forum*, in a volume on *The Public School System of the United States*, referred to the encouragement of the social interest as a feature of the schools at Laporte, Indiana. "From the start the pupils are encouraged to be helpful to each other. Already in the first school year the children begin to work together in groups and to assist each other in taking and recording observations of plants and animals, of the wind and the weather, and they frequently sub-divide tasks. In the class-rooms are found small square tables around which the pupils sit, particularly when doing busy-work [i.e., desk-work, consisting of occupations and studies of various kinds done in the intervals of oral work, generally when another section of the class is reciting], performing tasks in which all the members of the group take part." Much of the number-work and form-work was done at the group tables, and similar groups worked together at the moulding board. At Dayton, Ohio, under the same superintendent, the social feature is being similarly developed by what is, in the main, a continuation of Kindergarten occupations in the elementary school, foundational with respect to certain higher branches of learning and doing, and preserving a social aim and spirit.

School clubs and organisations for various purposes are common in the schools, and are encouraged by principals and teachers. Dr. Rice tells of a club in a school at Philadelphia, organised by the members of the highest grade and entitled the Legion of Honour. "The aim of this club is to build character, and the requisites for joining are truthfulness, honour, and politeness." The principal spoke highly of its

influence. Other organisations exist as centres of social life which tend to the development of a co-operative spirit. In the High Schools—the Erasmus Hall High School at Brooklyn is a good example—there are camera, glee, literary, and debating clubs, musical and dramatic clubs, baseball, basketball and tennis clubs. It is a principle of the school named to foster any club which has a teacher in it. To support the clubs a fee of a shilling (twenty-five cents) a term is subscribed, and 90 per cent. of the scholars join; the result is that though there are 1,600 pupils no difficulty is felt as to maintaining a good school-spirit. The money all goes into one fund, the sole purpose of which is to keep up a healthy *esprit de corps*, and is divided out amongst the different clubs according to their requirements; 180 dollars to the baseball club; plates and material for mounting to the camera club, music to the glee club; mounting materials to the microscopic club, and so on. Membership of any one or any number of clubs is not even conditional upon payment of the subscription. The Englewood High School at Chicago is organised with the same end in view, namely, to reach as many sides of the social life and interests of the pupils as possible, and to create a feeling of loyalty to the school. The teachers, one and all, willingly stay an hour or two after school on certain days in the week to sustain the club in which they are interested, each society having a teacher who volunteers to help in this way. By this means gymnastic classes (in addition to those which appear on the time table), biological, chemical, and sketching societies are enabled to meet to the best advantage; and these voluntary efforts react favourably upon the whole of the school work.

This school has twice won the State championship in athletics during the last five or six years. The headmaster believes that it does not follow that scholarship would be improved by the stopping of athletics; rather that a good number would not come to school at all but for this; and that, following the indications of the culture-epoch theory, field games correspond to instincts which crave expression. By taking hold of these instincts as they arise, youths are enabled to grow up in the most rational way to the levels of modern civilisation. Football, he holds, cannot be regarded as a brutal game\*; at the worst it is an uncivilised game, and the zest for it means that there is a natural craving which if not met will find expression in some other way. These social and play impulses are made to bear upon the school studies by a rule that every pupil who is to represent his school in any contest must obtain a general average of 75 per cent. in his work. As a result the football players keep up their work better during the football season than during the rest of the year. This rule, which was not accepted without a struggle, is now agreed to by all the schools in the athletic league through which alone matches are arranged; and a report is sent to the secretary of the league each month of the school work of all

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\* It was rather astonishing to hear an athletic school principal half apologetic for football as a school game.

those who are competing. [75 per cent. is chosen as being the minimum mark for passing from grade to grade.] School pride often prompts a boy's schoolfellows to urge him to work and frequently to give him help.

The Central High School, St. Paul, Minnesota, is organised (over and above the general school societies) class by class, upon lines which are calculated to produce excellent results. The terms of the class "constitutions," as printed in small pamphlets of from seven to eight pages, commence as follows:—

#### CONSTITUTION.—CLASS OF 1902.

We, the pupils entering the Freshman Class of the Central High School in September, 1898, in order to be more closely organised and to bind ourselves together, do hereby enact as follows:—

#### ARTICLE I.

##### NAME, MEMBERSHIP, DUES.

Section 1.—The name of the organisation shall be the "Class of 1902" of the St. Paul Central High School.

Section 2.—The object of this organisation shall be to promote amity and harmony among the pupils who shall graduate in June 1902, to further interest ourselves in all other school organisations, and to make our school life one of enjoyment as well as hard study.

Section 3.—The extension of this class shall be from September, 1898, till July, 1902, unless otherwise provided for, etc., etc.

Membership depends upon payment of the class subscription, the signing of the constitution, and a certain average excellence in the school work ("at least four credits for each term of their school residence"). Here, as at Brooklyn, classes hold receptions to which other classes are invited, and so a school of 1,100 pupils is welded together into a sort of unity. The Debating Society conducts the school magazine, the *High School World*. A fine assembly hall is quite a feature of the school building; assemblies are held in it two days a week; on one day for debate, on the other day to listen to original essays by the members of the senior class, one essay being required from each during his last year. These are merely instances that were observed in the course of a brief visit; and the names of the schools are mentioned for the sake of definiteness. [Throughout the report all mention of names and places is avoided as far as possible, as what was seen must have been in a large degree accidental, and visits that were unplanned and haphazard in their occurrence often proved to be surprisingly fruitful.] To take one further example from a school of lower grade. In a room in one of the Indianapolis school buildings (which happening to be vacant—a rare thing in America, as in England—the headmaster decided to make use of as a pupils' common

room, where they might come at any time that they had no work to do in class or when they desired to consult books of reference) a notice for each day of the week was written up on the wall-plate, of which these were the first two or three lines :—

SCHEDULE FOR OUTDOOR CLUBS, WEEK OF MAY 21.

	Round trip distance.
Monday, May 21, 3.50	Sketching Club No. 2 - 3 miles.
Monday, May 21, 3.50	Round-about Club - 5 miles.
Tuesday, May 22, 3.50	Pathfinders - - - 5 miles.
Tuesday, May 22, 3.50	Bicycle Club - - - 12 miles.

These were voluntary clubs which adopted their own names and were limited in membership to twenty-five. One of the masters chose the rambles and distances, and himself was a member of all. On the whole, nevertheless, it must be said that wholesome collective play in the shape of outdoor games is not sufficiently cultivated in America, and that the English public elementary schools are far in advance in this respect.

One other form of school co-operation which should be referred to is that of mutual helpfulness, a helpfulness towards others of a charitable kind. Here, again, use may be made of Dr. Rice's observations, published in 1893. He is writing of the City of St. Paul. "Last November a novel attempt was made in the way of practical moral training, with perhaps unparalleled success. A short time before Thanksgiving Day\* a number of teachers, acting on their own behalf, asked the pupils to contribute a share, however small, towards rendering Thanksgiving Day happy for the poor. The suggestion met with a hearty response. On the following day every pupil who had been present brought something to school, each according to his means—some bringing only a single potato or a turnip. The result was that nearly every school child in St. Paul contributed something, so that car-loads of food and clothing were collected. The charity organisations of the city undertook to distribute the things." In some centres the Thanksgiving Day gifts are brought in for the use of the poorer scholars, and, to prevent all the gifts coming in at the same time, certain of the schools agree to bring theirs in at Christmas. Very poor children often show a willingness to help each other to obtain what they need in school. In the poorer districts the impulse of affection is found to be much more effective at first than moral appeal. Where children look up with a tinge of hero-worship to a schoolfellow who has been to prison—"He has been to Lancaster twice, and I have never been once!"—the teacher has to work her way very gradually. The morning quotations at the opening of school frequently refer to the virtue

\* Thanksgiving Day commemorates the early struggles of the Pilgrim Fathers, and is associated with the story of their first harvest.

of kindness, and very poor children will come up and lay a cent ( $\frac{1}{4}$ d.) on the teacher's desk with the words, "This is to help for —'s slate." Everything was supplied in the city where this characteristic was spoken of, excepting paper, pencils, and slates. A child has been known to be unable to buy a writing tablet, and before evening the five cents have been lying on the table, the givers not wishing to be known. The two fundamental social virtues, benevolence and, to some extent, justice, furnish a starting-point in the moral training of those who have no home advantages. Private schools also make some use of the benevolent impulse in training the moral character of their pupils: One such school in New England has established a summer camp on the edge of a lake, to which little boys are brought from the city. The camp is in charge of a master, one or two of the old boys ("graduates") of the school, and several of the present pupils, who are changed from time to time. "The democratic principle," says the headmaster, "is the spirit of service. Boys are all ready for it."

All this is in harmony with the fact that survival of the fittest depends in modern civilisation not entirely upon individual strength, whether in the struggle of body or struggle of mind, but is the survival of one who, in the terms of the Cleveland Report for 1899, "besides his own powers, can enlist the sympathy of others." Evolution in its higher stages is co-operative, not purely individual. Any development of a higher social spirit naturally tends to crowd out cruelty. One hears accordingly that bullying or "hazing" in schools has been gradually dying out. In the Eastern colleges and schools it used to be rather serious; but the Western colleges are mostly State institutions, and the taxpayers have something to say with regard to their management. The school traditions in the West are entirely against the abuse, and this influence, harmonising, as it does, with the general trend of social feeling, has travelled eastwards. [A few general propositions bearing on the subject of school life and organisation are quoted in Appendix III.]

(c) *Adjustment to the Community Power, or Control.*—Society has a right to a part in the individual life, and this is the ground upon which obedience is primarily demanded. Obedience is a necessary part of the individual's social adjustment. But it is not exactly from the point of view of an external will that the idea of social control is presented to the American child, certainly not in the average home, and scarcely more so at school. Whenever possible the formula of suggestion takes the place of the word of command. Instead, for example, of hearing a teacher say "Harold, read next," the phrase is permissive, "Harold may read next." The typical American teacher has a habit of getting behind the will of the child instead of confronting it. This strategical principle on which the notion of social control is wrought into a child's consciousness is a broad one. The school must furnish a life to the child in which the merging of the individual in the community shall be felt and experienced rather than enforced by words. "Educa-

tion is the revealing in conscious activity of the very purpose of social existence, the continuous achievement of this purpose. The family, the church, the State are its organs. So is the school one of its organs, probably a secondary organ, but for this very reason, and because of its nearness to the child, of primary importance." So writes one of the superintendents already referred to.

Others would probably go further, and rank the school amongst the primary instruments for revealing in various forms of activity the meaning of social existence. Professor Dewey would. So would Colonel Parker, also of Chicago, and those who, since he became head of the new Chicago Institute, have charge of the Chicago Normal School. How shall we judge what the child needs in the first, second, and third grades? asks Colonel Parker, and gives answer, "By what he needs in his life. Not by what he is going to need after he gets out of school, but by what he needs in his life that very day and hour. The knowledge ideal makes the teacher an artisan; the character ideal makes the artist." Education, according to another, does not in its etymology or true meaning consist in a drawing out, a simple training of the mental powers; but it is a *leading forth into the world and into life*, into a wider sphere, with an ever firmer step and with larger wisdom what to avoid, and what to choose. This wisdom, taking the whole series of views that have been quoted, is to be personal, not vicarious; not the teacher's, but the child's. The schools are becoming more and more the centres of a real life, as though the very walls of the buildings had caught up the echo of Thring's pregnant message, "Lives, not lessons." Artificial bonds between teacher and learner and between lessons and learner are being snapped. From Fall River comes the report:—"More and more a community life is coming into the schools. The children see what others can do. The written work is placed before the children arranged upon the walls in the schoolrooms, and in the halls and corridors, and each child has the best products of the work of his mates before him as his standard. When a pupil's writing-book and spelling-blank are kept secret and inviolate between him and his teacher, when he has little or no opportunity to see how well those about him are doing, he goes on and on in his own helpless way. When much of the best work of the pupils is continually before the child, experience shows that he is irresistibly drawn into the more excellent way." This is control, but it is control in which the child yields to the conditions of the life in which he finds himself. He is really more controlled by this community influence and consciousness than by any obedience to the fiat of a teacher. He plays his own part in it. *More of him yields.*

A necessary point of comparison, almost of contrast, is suggested here, however, and calls for mention. The results of American child-study by no means necessarily apply in England. Each nation must study its children for itself, using for its guidance general principles and results whenever they may come. One



hears constantly from American teachers and psychologists of imitativeness and "suggestibility." They are prime characteristics of American children. But the holding up of a model or the suggestion of a task only succeeds in England in the hands of the most skilful teachers, for the reason that suggestibility is less compatible with the English child's more stolid temperament, and that as a rule he imitates rather because he desires to than merely because an example is set. The two psychologies do not tally at all points. As a further illustration of this, and one which is pertinent in the present connection. English teachers rarely think much of the nervous strain to which children are being subjected, because it seldom exists. In America it is apt to be present all the time. Just here lies the danger in the writer's opinion of some of the, so to speak, *adult* methods observed in certain American schools, methods which are as much English in spirit as they are American, but some of the detailed and extreme applications of which may, perhaps, give us pause. Is there not, for example, a possibility of striving after a community life and community consciousness whilst the ordinary child is but a very crude little individual? Professor Baldwin's proposition as to the parallel development of selfhood and the social instinct has many corollaries; it is just possible that it may for this very reason be called in to the proof of some which it cannot sustain. With all one's preference for spontaneity and liberty of expression in its many forms, it yet seems true that too much vital consciousness may arrest development quite as seriously as too much repression. What is repressed may remain latent, what is prematurely expressed is with difficulty recalled to a static repose. Professor Baldwin himself suggests this caution in a chapter of his little book, "The Story of the Mind." Indeed, he exaggerates as if anxious to drive it home. He says: "It is for the sensory child,\* I think, that the kindergarten has its great utility. It gives facility in movement and expression, and also some degree of personal and social confidence. But for the same reasons the kindergarten over-stimulates the motor scholars\* at the corresponding age. There should really be two kindergarten methods—one based on the idea of deliberation, the other on that of expression." The paragraph is quoted in full, because though it may not be valid as a criticism of the kindergarten which really excludes no type of child (or, better, no phase of childhood), yet it is possibly just and true in principle, and may serve as a warning against basing untenable corollaries upon a valuable contribution to ethical and social philosophy, and as suggesting a fear that children of active temperament may sometimes be allowed and even prompted to move along too fast.

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\* Though one quotes, one would hesitate considerably before adopting these off-hand phrases, *motor* child and *sensory* child, as descriptive of two more or less familiar types of children, viz., those of active, pushing temperament, and those of relatively passive, receptive temperament.

## CHAPTER V.

## THE SCHOOL AND THE OUTER COMMUNITY.

Two points only will be dealt with in the present chapter: (1) The Education and Crime controversy; (2) the function of education in preparing for an intelligent participation in the economic and industrial questions of the day.

(1) One of the controversies, some of the heat of which has reached this country, is that which has been going on in America under the incongruous title "Education and Crime." This controversy illustrates the truth of the well-worn remark that statistics can be made to prove anything. The fallacy upon which has been based the argument that if education has not actually tended to the increase of crime, as some few go so far as to assert, at least public morality does not keep pace with public education, lies in the manipulation of the figures. It is a case of "comparing the numerators and neglecting the denominators." Upon this question which has been argued also with regard to France, and has been raised in England, one cannot do better than quote from answers that have been published in America, most of which were repeated either in conversation or more publicly in the writer's hearing. The first testimony is from an article by Dr. Harris, U.S. Commissioner of Education:—

"Counting the persons in jail in the United States, it is found that the quota of the illiterate is nearly, or quite, eight times as much as the quota from an equal number of persons who can read and write. For instance, the statistics of the Detroit jail for its first twenty-five years show 40,328 criminals, of whom 11,686 could not write. In the total population of the state less than five per cent. were illiterates. Five per cent., therefore, furnished 11,586 committals, and the other ninety-five per cent. of the population furnished 28,652. In other words, the illiterates furnished eight times their quota of criminals for the jail. . . . Quite extensive investigations were made in 1870 by the Bureau of Education on the same lines. The prisons and jails of seventeen states, fourteen of them being Western or Middle States, reported 110,538 prisoners. Of these 27,581, or almost exactly twenty-five per cent., were illiterates. Attention being called to the fact that three-fourths of the prisoners could read and write and had had some schooling, the same claim now put forth by Mrs. Davis was made—that education promotes crime. The conclusion was drawn that the schools were "breeding houses of crime." But in this case the numerators were compared and the denominators neglected, for in the seventeen states the average illiteracy of the population was about four per cent. This four per cent. of the population furnished twenty-five per cent. of the criminals, and the ninety-six per cent. who could read and write furnished only seventy-five per cent. The illiterates, therefore, furnished more than six times their quota, while those who could read and write supplied one-fifth less than their proper

quota. Thus, 1,000 illiterates furnished on an average eight times as many prisoners as the same number who could read and write."

To those, said Dr. Harris, in a paper read before the National Educational Association in 1893, who have objected to secular education as tending to fill our jails with educated criminals, the defenders of the schools have pointed significantly to the statistics of religious education among criminals which are beginning to be kept in a great number of jails and prisons. For instance, in the Detroit jail, in twenty-five years, there were reported, 37,089 out of 40,838 as having religious training against 2,249 who had none. Of the religious influences, 15 had been under Mormon training, 69 under Jewish, and the remaining 37,000 about equally under Protestant and Roman Catholic training.

"In the Elmira reformatory in twelve years those reported as having no religious training were only seven per cent.; with Hebrew training, five per cent.; with Protestant, forty-two per cent.; and with Catholic, forty-six per cent.

"It would be preposterous to think that the training of the church or the Sunday school could tend towards the production of criminals. And yet the neophyte in statistics would say that the ninety-two per cent. of criminals in Detroit who had received religious instruction made a bad showing for religious education. But he would say this only because he is a neophyte and omitted his denominator, like the bad arithmeticians who have been decrying public education in the magazines and reviews and comparing numerators without a glance at their denominators.

"The religious statistics would read when the denominators are applied somewhat as follows: The ninety-two per cent. of criminals who have had some religious instruction have been furnished by the ninety-eight or ninety-nine per cent. of the whole population who have been under religious instruction, while the eight per cent. of criminals without previous religious teaching represent the one or two per cent. of their class in Michigan. And none of the criminals came there through religious teaching, but because they neglected its counsels.

"The attack on school education as increasing the number of convicted criminals—an increase proved by the returns from the different States—has brought forward a new phase of the question.

"Educators will remember the brilliant attack, led by Richard Grant White, some years ago, in the "North American Review," and recently an article in the "Popular Science Monthly," by Mr. Reece. These have been replied to, the former by Dr. Philbrick in the "North American Review," and by Prof. B. F. Tweed in a valuable pamphlet; that of Mr. Reece was well answered by Mr. H. H. Clayton, who quoted the interesting analysis of criminal records in Massachusetts published by Mr. David C. Torrey, in "Lend a Hand," for January, 1890.

Massachusetts, it was said, committed to its jails and prisons only 8,761 persons in 1850, while in 1885 it committed 26,651, or nearly three times as many. In 1850, only one person to 113 inhabitants; in 1885, one to seventy-two. This evidently demanded a qualitative inquiry. What crimes are on the increase? Mr. Torrey classified them, first, under two heads, and found that the crimes against person and property were, on an average, from 1865 to 1870, one to 301 inhabitants, while from 1880 to 1885 they were one to 436; thus showing a decrease in serious crimes of forty-four per cent. The second heading was commitments for crimes against order and decency, and these had increased largely.

"Investigating further into these crimes against order and decency, Mr. Torrey found that they were mostly cases of drunkenness. The commitments for drunkenness in 1850 were only 3,341, while in 1885 they had risen to 18,701. The commitments for all other crimes than drunkenness in 1850 amounted to one for 183 inhabitants and in 1885 to only one for 244 inhabitants. The average from 1850 to 1865 was one to 174 inhabitants, while the average from 1870 to 1885 was one to 241 inhabitants, for other crimes than drunkenness

"This showing completely turned the tables on that class of sensational or emotional writers who deal with what I call hysterical statistics. Person and property have become more safe in Massachusetts. Between 1865 and 1885 commitments for crimes against them decreased forty-four per cent., allowing for increase of population. The decrease was greatest in crimes against property, but there was a decided decrease of crimes against person. But while person and property have become safer in twenty-five years, drunkenness is not nearly so safe; the prisons and jails are crowded with intemperate people, who were formerly allowed to go unmolested through the streets and country roads."

In his introduction to the series of monographs on education prepared for the Paris Exhibition, Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University, editor of the "Educational Review," takes up the same theme. He says:—

"In the first place, it must be remembered that communities which maintain schools have higher standards as to what is lawful than communities which are without the civilisation which the presence of a school system indicates, and that therefore, more acts are held to be criminal and more crimes are detected and punished in a community of the former sort than in one of the latter. A great number of arrests may signify better police administration rather than an increase in crime.

"Again, where records have been carefully kept, it appears that the illiterate portion of the population furnishes from six to eight times its proper proportion of criminals. This was established for a large area by an extensive investigation carried on by the bureau of education in 1870.

"The history of the past fifty years in the State of Massachusetts is alone a conclusive answer to the contention that education begets crime. In 1850 the jails and prisons of that State held 8,761 persons, while in 1885 the number had increased to three times as many (26,651.) On the surface, therefore, crime had greatly increased. But analysis of the crimes shows that serious offences had fallen off 40 per cent. during this period, while the vigilance with which minor misdemeanors were followed up had produced the great apparent increase in crime. While drunkenness had greatly fallen off in proportion to the population, yet commitments for drunkenness alone multiplied from 3,341 in 1850 to 18,701 in 1885. The commitments for crimes other than drunkenness were 1 to every 183 of the population in 1850 and 1 to every 244 of the population in 1885. In other words, as has been pointed out, persons and property had become safer, while drunkenness had become more dangerous—to the drunkard.

"The American people are convinced that their public school system has justified the argument of Daniel Webster, made in 1821: 'For the purpose of public instruction,' he said, 'we hold every man subject to taxation in proportion to his property, and we look not to the question whether he himself have or have not children to be benefited by the education for which he pays; we regard it as a wise and liberal system of police, by which property, and life, and the peace of society are secured. We seek to prevent, in some measure, the extension of the penal code by inspiring a salutary and conservative principle of virtue and of knowledge in an early age.'"

It goes to confirm the argument which is here presented, that Mr. J. M. Cothrell, the Superintendent of the Detective Association of America, has said: "After 25 years' experience with criminals, and in searching for the causes of crime, we find that lack of humane education is the principal one."\*

Collateral evidence bearing upon the same broad question is furnished by the fact that in Massachusetts, where the public school term in the United States is longest, and the expenditure on education is largest, the average productive capacity of the citizen is greatest. Education in Massachusetts is to average U.S. education (measured in time spent at school) as 70 to 43 (7 years to 4.3 years); productivity is as 66 to 37. Or, quoting still from the memoir forming part of the Paris exhibit, "the excess of productive capacity for the State of Massachusetts in one year is 200,000,000dols., or about twenty times the cost of maintaining the public schools." This goes a long way towards answering the question as to whether the community can afford to pay the cost of public education.

(2) Other economic relations besides that of cost subsist between the schools and the wider community in the midst of which

\* For an exhaustive treatment of the whole question see the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for the year 1898-99. Vol. 2. Published at Washington, Government Printing Office, 1900.

they stand. One question that is being asked with some seriousness is whether the education, not only of the producing classes, both employees and capitalists, but of the general public, on economic questions, is keeping pace with industrial development especially with regard to the moral phase of economic problems, and with regard to the fact that the general public is always a third party, and sometimes the determining factor in industrial disputes. Economics is taught in some of the high schools, but considerably more attention might be given to the study. Even in the kindergarten very interesting beginnings are made in observation of trades and dramatic representations of the relations of workers one to another. There are ways in which this might be followed up in the schools more generally than is being done. The talks upon current events, which often take place in the higher classes at the opening of morning school, might sometimes be turned in this direction; doubtless are in some cases. Political and governmental, even artistic and architectural, developments are traced in connection with history; more might be done to trace industrial developments. There are not wanting voices to urge this amongst American educators, and some noteworthy efforts are being made in this direction. Such are to be found at Chicago, the acknowledged storm centre of America, in industrial as well as in most other matters. In New York there are two of the most admirable schools in the country in which social and industrial evolution is made a prominent study; especially in the lower grades, such subjects as the Hiawatha story and the life of Lincoln becoming for a time the centre of the school interest. At the Ethical Society's school, part of the sewing done in 1899-1900 in the second grade was the making of Hiawatha wigwams; all the surroundings and accompaniments of Indian village life were reproduced as far as possible, and the best models made by the children were placed on the low square table containing the model of the village. Indian braves, their canoes and wigwams, their familiar animals, and their pottery ornamented after real Indian samples with the brush, all enter into the miniature reproduction, and in this way the class-occupations are correlated with the literature and reading, and much interest in man's industrial life is aroused. Similar work is done at the Horace Mann School, which is in connection with the Teachers College at Columbia University. Indian looms, and belts of wampum, drinking cups and pottery were objects upon which the children worked in sympathy with the primitive people whose lives they were studying. Washington also might be mentioned as a city in which institutional and industrial life enters into the work of the schools, especially in the study of the "Beginnings of History," which introduces the ice-cart, the canal-boat, etc.

The school in which *par excellence* the evolution of industries is studied is the University Elementary School at Chicago, an experiment which is in many ways so typically American and which is so absolutely given up to the study of the relation to be established between the school and society that a separate

section will be devoted to it. The practical study of economics is made a strong feature of the teachers' training course at the Chicago Normal School. The students are by the spirit of the place almost driven to become interested in industrial sociology. They are taken by one of their professors through a course which is intended to show how each individual is by his occupation bound up with the rest of society. Such topics are discussed as the preparation necessary for different trades, the capital necessary, the length of a working day, wages and cost of living, industrial organisation, the estimation in which different occupations are held by society as higher or lower, honourable or dishonourable, political regulations affecting certain employments, why the pedlar gets his licence from the city and the druggist from the state. Essays by young women-students were read at a Child Study Conference in May, 1900, showing how thoroughly the students had entered into the spirit of the subject. One had written in the first person describing herself as a teamster, another described herself as a bolt-maker. The unhealthy conditions under which the bolt-maker worked were mentioned—the cellar lit up with gas, etc.—and suggestions of improvement made; but the most trenchant part of the paper was that which dealt with the effects on the poor family of a high school and college education given to some of its members. The father finds himself crowded out of the family circle, because his daughter is "educated" and has "educated" friends to visit her; as his family's respect for him grows less, their demand for money from him increases; new parlour furniture has to be bought, which involves him in debt, yet in the evening, the only time he is at home, there is company in the parlour which he is debarred from; his family hope that he is too stupid to be unhappy. He had hoped to receive some help from the children when they graduated from the high school, but is disappointed. No! he concludes, education in the existing form is not for the poor; it cultivates the mind at the expense of the heart, and displaces love from the poor man's home. There were 315 young ladies in the college year, from the fourteen different high schools of the city. The question was put to them, Did they personally know of cases where a high school and normal school education had been obtained at a similar sacrifice? 256 replied in the affirmative, i.e., over 80 per cent. To the question whether they thought the account given of the effect of such education on homes similar to that of the bolt-maker was substantially correct, over 71 per cent of the 286 who knew of such homes agreed that it was. From this point the discussion branched off in more definite directions: how far are the disastrous effects due to the divine discontent, without which there cannot be any progress? how much is due to something wrong in the individual home, the individual school, or in society in general? what is the relation between these facts and the recurring attacks on the Public high schools; what is the connection between these facts and the movement for manual and commercial schools; what can the educator do to diminish the bad and increase the good

effects of education on the home? These are questions in practical economics and sociology, such as are well worthy of being thrashed by those who are to step into the position of educators in a great city. Another way of approach to kindred matters is that of dividing the students into groups to take up branches of sociological and economic study of which the city remains still the centre. There is the physical geography group, which studies the course of the rivers and early roadways, and by coordinating geography with political developments arrives at a reason for the city of Chicago being where it is; the next step is to study the modifications wrought by man, tracing the economic causes which first drew a population to the spot; then a map is made showing the original area of territory, the first city area, and the second and third up to the fifteenth extension of that area. A second group takes up the same study from the standpoint of political science, traces the nationalities which have settled in different parts or wards of the city, recalling the fact that each nationality has its traditions, its art and music, and that if only they could all be inspired with the feeling of giving Chicago their best, what an enrichment it would be; that this might be helped by evoking the pride of race in relation to beautiful national songs, customs or stories. The third is the industrial or economic group, studying the industries which give employment to the people, and the nature and conditions of that employment (as already outlined). The fourth is the purely political group, basing its work upon what had been done by other groups in bringing to light the physiographical conditions, the nature of the population, the industries and productions; the questions considered by this group are such as these: how does the population live together, protect itself, establish public services, take care of the unfortunate, provide positive means of growth in schools, in parks and in other ways; sub-groups specialise upon the several public departments, the public library—its funds and its functions—, the police, the health department, water, lighting, the schools, and so on through the list of public services. The professor, who described this work in detail to the writer, has it as his aim to work up the broad question of city life, especially in its economic and allied aspects, so that the students may see it all as a unit. Afterwards, when they take up their work, in whatever part of the city it may be, they will be able to interest the children in what the policemen, firemen, and postmen do, and so be able to lead up from function to organisation, and present the relationship of mutual service which holds society together. The great thing, as the originator of the school about to be described has said, is that each shall have had the education which enables him to see within his daily work all there is in it of large and human significance.



## CHAPTER VI.

## THE UNIVERSITY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, CHICAGO.

The preceding section has dealt with certain relations which exist between the school and the outer community. A more detailed reference should be made to one school, the foundation principles of which have been published in book form under the title, "The School and Society." One hears of this school in all parts of the United States, the experiment of working out the cardinal features of social order by a commencement *ab initio* having aroused a very great deal of interest. The general standpoint is stated as follows\* :—

The school as a whole is organised on the basis of using as many connections as possible between everyday life and experience, and the more formal work of the school. It is assumed that the processes that educate, the material that instructs, and the mental workings through which knowledge and discipline arise are the same within as they are without the school walls. Consequently, the introductory work is a simple continuation, so far as possible, of the forms and experience and modes of expression with which the child is already familiar. Differentiation is gradually introduced, and at all times points of contact with everyday experience are kept up. Growth in character, involving of necessity advance in knowledge and control of mental powers, is the end in view.

The problem of the school is thus to secure that organisation of equipment and facilities which will give the children typical and varied contacts with the materials of experience, so arranged as to further consecutive and orderly growth. What the school can supply which the informal life of the home and the neighbourhood lack is arrangement of materials and modes of action: such an arrangement that the information which is of most value shall be gained while the trivial is eliminated: such that there shall be constant growth of insight into the principles which underlie experiences; and that there shall be increasing command of methods of work—of inquiry, discussion, and reflection. The school building is treated not as a collection of rooms in which lessons are learned and recited, but as a well-equipped and organised environment for carrying on certain modes of work, and thus securing certain experiences and the formation of certain habits. It consists of carpenter's shop, laboratory, studio, gymnasium, library, kitchen and dining-room; a miniature textile factory for weaving and sewing, etc. The recitation room is the meeting room—the visiting room—in which the children and teachers exchange experiences, questions, and ideas. It is believed that most is learned while there

\* The bulk of the present chapter is taken from the printed *Course of Study* (June, 1899), condensed for the purpose of this paper, with brief comments.

is least conscious attention to the process of learning; that most discipline is secured when attention is given to ends intrinsically valuable.\*

The outline of the course of study shows how it is proposed to carry out these purposes. The school only aims to be an elementary school, and is intended for children between 4 and 13 years of age. Within these limits there are three periods:—  
FIRST PERIOD (age 4 to 8 or  $8\frac{1}{2}$ ), fifteen hours a week, from 9:00 to 12:00 in the morning.

Five hours per week to the combined history and science; three hours to constructive work, carried out under direction of a special teacher either in shop or in textile work; one hour and a half to cooking, including the preparation and serving of the class luncheon; one hour and a half to music; one hour and a half to art; one half hour each day to physical exercise, in the form of games; about one hour per week to exercises.

SECOND PERIOD (age  $8\frac{1}{2}$  to 10), fifteen to twenty hours a week; from 9:00 to 12:00, latter half, also 1:00 to 2:00.

The time is divided as follows; six hours divided equally between history and science; one hour spent in so-called study-time; one hour to numerical work; one hour and a half to music; one hour and a half to art. Physical exercise is given more in the form of distinct exercises and more highly organised games under direction. Time averages two hours and a half per week.

Physical tests and measurements are made of the children. Tests of the different senses and of muscular co-ordination are carried on under the direction of the Psychological Department of the University.

THIRD PERIOD (age 10 to 13), between twenty-two and a half and twenty-four hours; periods from 9 to 12, from either 12:30 to 2:00, or 1:00 to 2:30.

More absolute division is made here between the various subjects. Two hours and a half each to history and science, one hour in study. The time for constructive work is divided between art, so-called textile work and shop, total time being four hours and a half, amounts varying in each year. An hour and a half is spent on the number work; five hours divided between the two languages, French and Latin; physical exercise or gymnasium work introduces the use of more special apparatus and individual work under direction: continuation of games under direction. During this period an amount of time varying between one and two hours is given to the direction by the children of some general school work, such as the preparation and printing of school leaflets or newspapers.

The art work is arranged so that it shall sustain the same relation to the school that it does to society in general. For that reason the natural differentiation of the subject into the four branches of Construction, Decoration, Illustration and

\* Upon the points raised in the last two sentences of this paragraph, and the way in which they are being carried out in practice, see the brief criticism at the end of the present chapter.

Representation. When not otherwise stated, it may be understood that the constructive work is embodied in the course planned for the shop. The course in decoration is closely correlated with the work both in the shop and textile department. Designs are made throughout the course, but solely for the decoration of objects which the children make.

The more detailed course of study is too long to reproduce in full. The two sub-primary years between the ages of four and six are devoted to something resembling the kindergarten under the title of "household and neighbourhood occupations." The purpose of this course is to go behind the Kindergarten to the efforts which led up to the forms with which the kindergarten deals. The third and fourth gifts are used, for example, in lumber-play, orders being given and received for two-inch cubes, four-inch cubes, and so on.

Passing to the primary work, the centre of interest in the first elementary school year is "present industrial occupations," so far as they deal with the common earth-products and the way in which they are brought to us; under agriculture, something is learnt about the production of rice, sugar, and cotton, and about sheep and cattle herding; mining, lumbering, carrying, shop-keeping, are other typical occupations. The remainder of the programme for the year is more or less related to these topics.

*Science.*—All the science and geography is kept closely related to social interests. Geography begins with local geography, and is worked out from the locality of each occupation.

*Number.*—Incidental to hand work or in the form of games. In cooking, sewing, and shop, fractions,  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\frac{3}{4}$ ,  $\frac{1}{4}$ , of the foot, inch, quart, pint, ounce, and pound.

*Music.*—Composition of songs, words, and melodies. On technical side, exact pitch; unconscious work in rhythm.

*Art Work.*—Greater part of the time given to representation of objects connected with history and school life. Form study in clay; colour, in chalk and water colour, in large and simple masses. Aim; awakening of the power of observation, and muscular co-ordination.

*Shop Work.*—Making of selected articles used in occupations studied, such as sleds, carts, wheelbarrows, harrows, etc. In construction of the buildings, cardboard is introduced. All putting together is by square edge.

*Cooking.*—Various cereals. Study of methods of preparation, such as grinding, cracking, rolling, etc. Simple experiments to show difference in methods of mixing and cooking. Aim: experience in handling materials and utensils.

*Sewing.*—Articles for use in the school made with easy stitches, *e.g.*, overcasting; braiding of soft fibres; and coarse weaving.

In the second elementary school year (age seven), the leading study is that of "social progress through evolution of

occupations and through inventions and discoveries." This has been tested for three years, and is said to have been very successful. This course introduces the part man has to play in overcoming the forces of nature. It involves a considerable insight into early social and economic history, as it represents man dealing constructively with nature's products. The children work upon iron, copper and stone, discussing, or rather, discovering what kind of stone is good for arrowheads, &c., and forming themselves into tribes so that the social element shall be well to the fore. The occupations studied under this heading are—hunting and fishing, semi-agricultural, pastoral, and maritime life; settled agriculture; discovery and use of metals; commerce and transportation. The other subjects are:—

*Science and Geography.*—General or typical geography studied with reference to the adaptation of occupation to physiographical conditions, such as mountainous regions during hunting and fishing period, plains in the semi-agricultural, seacoast, maritime life, etc. Related study of plants, animals, minerals and metals; of typical mechanical and chemical processes utilised in primitive life; carried out experimentally in typical processes, such as smelting, dyeing, making of pottery, etc. In connection with the operations used in cooking, one or two factors are isolated, making the work experimental. Incidental and Observation Work; study of life histories of plants, of four common classes of insects, one or two invertebrates, and vertebrates, several wild and domestic animals.

*Number.*—Work upon the same basis as of preceding year; carried farther, introducing symbols of all processes.

*Reading and Writing.*—Taken up as a means of expressing history in form of stories and records. Blackboard writing used almost exclusively. Emphasis is placed on movement rather than form.

*Music.*—Following upon the lines of the preceding work.

*Art.*—General aspects of ground, sky, trees; materials, clay, coloured chalk, and charcoal. Water colour in decoration. General aim: self-expression.

*Shop-Work.*—Chief emphasis upon constructive side, making of houses, tools needed in working out the social occupations. Additional tools, hatchet and knife. Materials, wood in all forms from rough to finished lumber.

*Cooking.*—Cereals compared as to preparation, colour, and texture, differences in weight and bulk, and time required for cooking. Quantities determined by proportion, bringing in the use of fractions.

*Sewing.*—Study of clothing associated with the social work; skins, furs, and their treatment; study of wool and primitive processes of preparation. Technical work: making of work bags.

The third year's plan has had to be changed from the study of typical races, as printed in the course of study, to that of

explorations and discoveries. The former was found to be too static, lacking movement, and the children were not interested. Another and more important discovery was that after the first two years difficulty was found in the correlation of other subjects with the main social topic. The experiment is, therefore, already yielding some results. The other third year subjects are:—

*Science and Geography.*—The large physical forces and processes related to the evolution of the globe, and present physiological structure; plants and animals of the countries dealt with; the general climatic and soil conditions, such as zones, ocean currents.

The main idea is the geographical, including the adaptation of mode of life to climate, soil, etc., and the resulting social organization. The object is (1) to get hold of the instinct for romance and adventure; (2) to bring paths of travel into geography; (3) to give, in some degree, an insight into the culture and civilization; the methods used are construction, story-telling, experiments.

*Number.*—Work taken from carpentry, cooking, sewing, and science is formulated in distinct problems involving combinations of ten, multiplication and subtraction, and measurement of surfaces.

*Reading and Writing.*—Special emphasis and increased amount of time given during this year to the reading of the children's own records and of stories arranged for them. The amount of time given to the writing of their records is also proportionately increased.

*Music.*—Composition of songs, further development of rhythm; naming of notes on the keyboard; lines and spaces on the staff.

*Art Work.*—Representation. Objects connected with history, such as Indian pottery, implements, etc. Materials: Clay, coloured chalk, charcoal and water-colours for designing. Aim: self-expression and visual training. There is, therefore, in this year an increase in the proportion of objects studied.

*Shop Work.*—Emphasis upon construction rather than on technique or finish; first principles of machines; use of joints, such as half-flap and timber-splicing joints; knife for whittling, and use of materials, lumber, reeds, cane, bamboo; making such articles as are needed in history and science work; illustrations; Japanese house, kyak, junk, raft, reels and spinning-wheel.

*Cooking.*—Typical vegetables used and classified as to composition and methods of cooking.

*Sewing.*—Textile work: textile industry taken up from social side with each race studied. Technical work: characteristic costume for each race; equipment for work-bags—*e.g.*, needle-book and pincushion.

The fourth year begins the study of American history and geography. Connection is made with the discoveries and explorations studied in the previous year, but the main emphasis

is laid upon colonial life considered as an adaptation of already formed social habits to new conditions. The geography, reading, and writing are related to this subject. Number is in part correlated with map drawing. The sewing follows upon the lines of preceding years with more particular reference to colonial times. The only two subjects requiring detailed notice are the art and shop work. (For further details see report on *Education and Industry in the United States*.)

*Art*.—Construction: ground plan and superstructure of early pioneer houses of Puritans and Dutch. Representation: buildings, figure posing, landscape. Materials: coloured chalk, charcoal, clay. Aim: visual training.

*Shop Work*.—More demand for finish in work; on the constructive side, the first principles of house construction; gable, roof, and simple problems in strength of materials (wood). The work is carried on in connection with history, upon such articles as the loom, ferry-boat, and a typical pioneer colonial house.

In the fifth year, which is still occupied with the study of American history (up to 1830) and geography, the courses arranged in science and number are the most suggestive and typical:—

*Science*.—In connection with the industrial growth, the beginnings of metallurgy and the invention and development of some typical engine. Digestion of food as a continuation of the process of cooking; circulation and respiration and the general physiology of the muscular system in connection with gymnastic work. Study of a type of invertebrate development. Enough of the laws will be given to explain the principles of perspective which the children have been using in drawing.

*Number*.—Special emphasis laid upon number in connection with the work outlined in science. The decimal system built up on the basis of United States currency, principles of percentage; measurement of circles, solid contents of cubes and cylinders, measurement of angles, introduction of algebraic notation, as each of these is needed in science or shop work.

The amount of time given to writing in both history and science is increased during this year. By this time the children are ten years of age, and it is found that they begin to wish to put a better finish to their work, both in writing and in the shop work.

In the sixth year modern European history is taken up so far as it is involved in the American history studied in the two previous years.

The science includes the history of rock formations, and of plants and animals in a very general way by means of the study of existing types.

*Geography*.—In addition to the physical geography necessitated by the science work, the transportation of the various

products studied brings in the general transportation routes of America and, to some extent, through American exports, those of the world.

*Number.*—Constructive geometry formulated in connection with its application in making scientific apparatus and shop work; manipulation of fractions; that is, reduction, addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of fractions.

*Reading and Writing.*—Use for reference reading such books as, in history: *Story of the Greeks*, Guerber; *Translation of the Iliad and Odyssey*, Plutarch's *Lives*; in science: Scott's *Geology*; Shaler's *Geology for Beginners*. Writing of records of work and of reports for school paper.

The reading work is interesting in that it prepares the way for the history work of the next two years, the elements of Greek and Roman history respectively.

The shop work includes a review of the main principles in construction of dwellings, and the children of the three highest classes (11, 12, and 13 years of age) are co-operating with the Sloyd master to build a club house, the plan of which originated in the social instincts of the children, who had organised themselves into secret societies, and wished for a meeting place of their own, as well as for a place where they could keep their common property.

The science and arithmetic of the last two years are as follows:—

#### SEVENTH YEAR.

*Science.*—Continuation in a more specialised way of animal and plant physiology, working out in some simple ways the relation of the lower forms to light, heat, and electricity. In connection with sensory and motor tests made in the school, some work will be done in the physical analysis of sense-perception.

Continuation of study of the sources and uses of electricity. A beginning of photography will be made in the study of chemistry and physics.

*Number.*—Social arithmetic, such as taxes and banking; weights and measures and development of the calendar in connection with Roman history. Ratio and proportion formulated; emphasis placed on the convenience of geometrical and trigonometrical methods used in working out constructive work, also involving formulation of angular measurement in connection with problems in physics.

#### EIGHTH YEAR.

*Science.*—Continuation of work in animal and plant physiology, along the line of adaptation of special sense organs, with a review of the previous work on the senses, and of the simple forms of the same organs in the lower animals; continuation of study of applications of electricity introducing simple methods of measurement; continued work on photography, the general laws of light as applied to the camera.

*Number.*—Working out the electrical units in problems arising from the science work. Statement in geometrical and trigonometrical form of problems arising in the shop and laboratory.

So much has been said and written about this school, and a visit or—as is really necessary—visits to it are so full of suggestion in the way of comment and criticism, that a separate report might almost be written concerning its aim and its performance. Setting out with no less an aim than the socialising of elementary education, in the sense of setting up and maintaining throughout a contact with social life, pursuits, and interests, the school is, according to the express statement of its promoters, an experimental rather than a model school. As the former it is likely to be of immense value and influence.

On the ethical side the school is open to most criticism. In this respect, it starts *de novo*. The school seems to be an endeavour to work out the principles of behaviour independently of its accepted forms. From the point of view of ethical and social training its motto might well be, "Nothing by tradition, all by experience." It takes some little time, longer than the writer had at his disposal, to become altogether accustomed to this change of atmosphere. If criticism were to be given in a word, it would be to the effect that the social aim and principle of the school is sufficiently good to influence, probably is already influencing, American education in valuable ways. Though it starts from an interpretation of the Kindergarten, which, the writer is disposed to regard as the erroneous one (see pages 190-195), it does indicate very suggestively lines along which Kindergarten principles may be applied in the elementary school, and especially the fundamental social principle which, rather than gifts and occupations, is of the essence of the Kindergarten. The school, moreover, furnishes an interesting example of correlated studies in the lower grades, and of the need for differentiation after the second or third year. Again, the health of the children is excellent. This is the most obvious first impression which the school makes upon a visitor. But, surely, in matters of moral and social training it is not possible to start *de novo*. The race has done more than merely leave a history for us to recapitulate; it has done something for the children of the present generation which they cannot and ought not to be allowed to try to work out for themselves. This needs to be incorporated in any education which is to achieve the results to which the founders and promoters of the Chicago University Elementary School aspire. In a spirit of reaction from mechanical school morals, created, as it were, *ad hoc*, the directors of this school have failed to see how many school duties contain in them the elements of life duties, indeed, are in a large measure the life duties at the stage of individual development to which they belong. By ceasing to ask for order and good behaviour, on the ground that they are not real if they do not correspond to what the child, left to himself and moved by the spur of each occasion, desires to do, the school seems to have contrived for itself the paradox of setting the child free from social conditions in order to give a social training. The defect is due to an overstraining of sound principles. The liberty which the best of the public elementary schools allow is right, and it tends to a just view of social relationships, but it is also ample. In the University Elementary



School the classes are too small to permit of a sufficiently repressive social consciousness as an offset to the excessive freedom. Experience, it is claimed, is the mother of all discipline worthy the name; but one of the most rudimentary functions of the school is to create an experience which shall, to use the words of Dr. Harris, "fit one to live in the civilisation into which he is born." "The children," says Professor Dewey, "begin by imagining present conditions taken away until they are in contact with nature at first hand. That takes them back to a hunting people," and so forth. All perfectly good as a means of training imagination, or of teaching history, or giving an early insight into what belongs to community life; but when a child comes back to his arithmetic or other duties, he should feel that he is in the conditions of modern civilisation, and with these children, unfortunately, this does not always seem to be the case.

If "morals" were substituted for "mathematics," in what Dr. James Ward has said, speaking on "Education Values," criticism of the school might be expressed by adopting his words as a formula, "What I am venturing to maintain is that the individual should grow his own mathematics, just as the race has had to do. But I do not propose that he should grow it *as if the race had not grown it too.*" So surely it is with morals. Whereas it is stimulating in a very high degree to see children studying raw materials, devising and constructing simple carding-combs and looms for treating these materials, and acquiring an insight into industrial processes at first hand, and in these and other ways entering into sympathy with various phases of life; one is nonplussed by an effort to set children to work out the principles of behaviour in practical independence of accepted standards. Dr. Dewey and the school which is the exponent of his thought are occupied with most interesting and important problems, but with respect to one of them, in its present form and from the ethical point of view, he seems to require adult children to work it out.\* It is the fallacy of a too rigid application of the "heuristic method," reappearing in connection with moral education.

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\* The readiest sources of information relating to this interesting school are Dr. Dewey's book "The School and Society." (P. S. King and Son); "The Elementary School Record," a series of magazines now being issued by the Chicago University Press on the separate departments of the school work; "Art," "Music," "Textiles," etc.; and the printed Course of Study. See also paper on "Industry and Education in the United States," in volume XI of Special Reports, Section I (end) and Appendix C.

Since writing the above, the writer has visited the Hampstead (pioneer) school of the King Alfred School Society, in which the principles of this school and the Ethical Culture School (New York) seem to be combined, with a healthy preponderance of the spirit of the latter. As the experiment grows, and numbers permit of a lower and upper school (for children below and above 14 years of age respectively), some interesting and valuable results will be obtained.

PART III. METHODS OF MORAL EDUCATION IN THE SCHOOLS.

CHAPTER VII.

SUBJECTS OF TEACHING AND MORAL EDUCATION.

A brief chapter on subjects of teaching is inserted here in order to maintain the logical connection between the different aspects of school life; subjects of teaching, methods of teaching, and school discipline. The special subjects here spoken of will be more fully dealt with in a later chapter devoted to indirect moral teaching as given in American schools (*see* pages 142-167.)

The "New Education" is a new spirit in education, not definable, therefore, in terms of any one phase of current pedagogy. It is not a question of school methods, or school subjects, or school discipline; but of all three.

The new school subjects, or subjects so differently presented as to be practically new, are literature, art, music, nature study, and manual work. As each of these will come up for mention later, a single quotation from Dr. Rice will serve in the present connection. "Under the new system elements are brought into play which, by reason of their refining nature, can scarcely fail to exert a favourable influence on the moral character of the child. Among these are—first, the bond of sympathy that forms between the child and the teacher who strives to understand him, to interest him, and make him happy; second, the pursuit of studies that tend to develop the sympathetic and æsthetic faculties of the child, among which are—(1) nature studies—the study of plants when regarded from the sympathetic and poetic sides, and the study of animals from the standpoint of sympathy; (2) the purely artistic studies—namely, music, poetry, drawing and painting from nature, the construction of beautiful forms (designing), and work with beautiful colours." (*The Public School System of the United States*, pp. 23-24.)

CHAPTER VIII.

METHODS OF TEACHING AND MORAL EDUCATION.

It does not need many words to show that there is a direct connection between teaching methods and the moral influence of school life and work. Looking aside altogether from the teacher's manner and spirit, which are so large a factor in his influence upon his pupils both collectively and individually, method of teaching, in its more technical sense, enters in no slight degree into the moral training which the school affords. One obvious illustration of this is truthfulness in teaching, absolute candour in the confession of ignorance or failure, logical accuracy in the

handling of facts or experiments. This point has been forcefully presented by Mr. P. A. Barnett.\* Confused or unconsidered questioning is a ready source of falsity in teaching. A whole class has been observed to answer "No!" to a careless question put by a teacher, when the true answer would have been "Yes!" What was worse, the teacher accepted the incorrect answer. There are, moreover, certain teaching tricks (said to be the product of mechanical methods of inspection, which are rapidly becoming a thing of the past) which are as immoral in their tendency as they are absurd. Surely no true teacher will ever feel that as his lesson is developing stage by stage a uniform forest of hands is the best indication that the work is going on successfully. Is it not almost self-evident that questions which everyone in the class is expected to be able to answer offhand are likely to be inadequate to the development of the thought of a lesson? On the contrary, does not the forest of hands often imply that thinking has been brought to a standstill? Which of us is able to maintain a signalling attitude for the purpose of calling attention to something which he wishes to say immediately that his signal is responded to, and at the same time to go on thinking? The matter cannot be fully discussed here, but in actual class-work the insistence upon "all hands up" leads to many holding up their hands under false pretences; and it is at the same time unfair to the true thinkers not to give them time to ponder over and shape their answers. The most serious moral defects of such methods are the false pretence of knowing, already spoken of, and the difficulty that is experienced in getting children who have been taught by this method to admit that they do not know a thing or are not sure. The very reason of the children being at school is that they are ignorant, and yet this is a thing which they are sometimes made ashamed to confess. The utilisation of the very varied forces of individual thought and will in the members of the class is one of the chief characteristics of good collective teaching. The writer can, in this place, only call attention to an article on this subject by Dr. W. T. Harris (a copy of which was kindly made for his use, the article being temporarily out of print), contained in his Gilchrist report presented to the Victoria University. The casual instances just given may serve to show that a considerable moral influence belongs to what is technically spoken of as teaching method. One general remark is suggested by Dr. Harris's article and by observation in the two countries, which has reference to the influence of the class-room life upon character. Comparing elementary school teachers in England and in America, English teachers, as a rule, take a far greater proportion of the work into their own hands; leave much less, that is, to the spontaneous efforts of the children.

The superintendent of schools for the State of New York writes in his 1898 report:—"The dangers which threaten us to-day spring

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\* *Common Sense in Education*, pp. 52-4.

not only from the classes being uneducated, but also from the character of the education which we are giving these classes. We sometimes consider that this danger comes alone from the importation of ignorant foreigners. But we may well ask ourselves if the danger does not come as well from the carelessly educated masses of our own people as a result of badly adapted courses of study, of superficial instruction, and of failure on the part of the teacher to comprehend the vital influence which these masses of plain people exert upon our social and national life.

The best education for the masses is an education which will teach boys and girls their capabilities, and which will give them power to grasp opportunities, to accomplish results, to realise worthy ambitions—to know themselves—to appreciate their limitations as well as their capacities—which will give them courage to endure adverse fortune should it come, and wisdom to enjoy prosperity—an education which will help people to help themselves.

Evidently, this involves something more than a right choice of subjects or a right kind of discipline. It implies a manner of approach to the school studies on the part of the teacher; and suggests the truth that well-ordered instruction is itself a kind of discipline, in the moral as well as in the intellectual sense. Every such lesson conducted by a good teacher makes the pupils feel stronger; they have done something by their own effort, and with their own brains. It is a matter which is easier to observe than to describe, depending almost entirely upon the spirit of the teacher and his attitude to the subject and to the class. In such instruction the first characteristic is candour. The methods of research and investigation which are encouraged in many American schools remove to some extent the necessity of a teacher knowing all that the children come prepared to tell. Those who aspire to keep pace with their classes in this respect are likely to break down from sheer exhaustion. This means that teachers trust the children's information. Instead of giving the class the feeling that the lesson is the teacher's responsibility pure and simple, the class itself is held responsible for accurate answers and relevant if not orderly thinking.

A further point with regard to teaching-method, and one which is closely connected with the last, is the removal of the emphasis from the words of a text-book, and the fixing it upon the activity of the child. "The pedagogy that we are teaching at present," said the acting principal of the training school at St. Paul, Minnesota, "has a new life in it, because it is based, in part, at least, on this new thought of the necessity of the self-activity of children in the gaining of knowledge and in the building up of behaviour." A school, said one headmaster, is sometimes talked to death; there is now less explaining; the pupil is required to do more for himself. This produces a freedom of thought and of action in the children which is less common in the schools of other nations. Teaching in America is rapidly becoming leadership; didactic methods are

going out of use. "The children now have teachers, leaders, helpers—persons who obey the sentiment, the supreme idea contained in the words, 'He leadeth me.' It is in nowise religious instruction, but lays the foundation of it. The first duty of the school is to provide security for the health of the child, without which nothing valuable can come. The second purpose or duty of the school is to secure the kind of activity on the part of the child that leads to ethical results. That," said the city superintendent, "is the basis of the work in Washington." The second of these school duties is recognised everywhere: it is the *sine qua non* of teaching method. Hence the frequency with which one hears and sees the phrase, "Learning by doing." In its simplest and most general application it is taken to mean that the more the child does for himself the better.

The teacher's function is to help those who need it; and the greater proportion of her time is to be given to the group of backward children such as are to be found in every class. Accordingly, in almost every instance the grades are divided into sections; generally into two sections, but in the case of the first grade often into three. Practice in this respect differs in different cities, and New York has adopted as a substitute close grading, by the division of the seven elementary school years into fourteen grades.\* The general rule is to have in all the primary grades, and for some subjects in the grammar grades, two sections working in the same room under one teacher. Usually there is a backward section including those newly admitted to the grade, and a more advanced section; and the teacher is expected to give more attention to the former, the belief being that the brighter children may with less directing be set upon lines which they can develop for themselves. The work of a grade, therefore, alternates between oral work or "reciting," and desk work; the latter varies from grade to grade between forms of busy-work, somewhat resembling kindergarten occupations, and the working of algebraic problems. To prepare for the desk-work effective use is made of the blackboard—the American class-room generally has an upper dado of blackboard round three of its walls, filling all the spaces not occupied by door or windows. The different sections always know, therefore, what work they have to do; the mathematical examples, or a subject for composition, or questions in grammar being written up on some part of the board.

This alternation between the teacher's guidance and the pupil's self-direction is further advocated on the ground that it aids the growth of attention in its twofold character as active

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\* The latest report of Dr. W. H. Maxwell, the city superintendent, contains, the writer is informed, some strong criticisms of this seven-year fourteen-grade plan. What has been claimed by its promoters is that by this closer grading the work originally done in eight years is now done in seven. This is quite possible, and yet the method adopted may not be the best. These points, especially the method of sectional teaching, are discussed more fully in the writer's Gilchrist report.

and absorptive; cultivating an alert and listening attention on the one hand, and the power of personal study on the other.

Other manifestations of the tendency to make education a part of the child's own experience, and so to develop capability and confidence are (a) the encouragement in every possible way of self-expression; (b) the use of inductive methods, beginning with the wide and rapidly extending application of the precept, "concrete before abstract"; (c) the linking on of abstract and formal studies to others having concrete subject-matter. Principles are more sought after than devices, and the term method comes to have its deeper significance, and implies not merely dextrous manipulation but orderly thinking. Indeed, in actual procedure, a lesson may often have the appearance of anything but dextrous handling, and the thinking may at the outset altogether lack order; just as a building is constructed of loose bricks and their first arrangement may be very far from suggesting a house. It is here that the teacher's skill as builder is tested, and as it is still a period of movement and transition from old to new in American school-practice, it is here most commonly that American teachers fail. The bricks are often still loose and lacking order when the lesson is over; there has been no real building. Still the forward movement does exist, and the superintendent and supervisors of branches and departments of school work are gradually shaping school practice in accordance with the improving standards.

(a) As to self-expression, American children are not shy of speech, but the school can create the habit of thinking before speaking. "Thought-getting" is sometimes one of the stages in an object-lesson, when the children are expected to think in silence, and to make sure of what they know before they utter it. A similar thing is often done in a reading lesson, the children pausing between each sentence or paragraph to "prepare," i.e., to read silently to themselves, and only offering to read aloud when they have acquired the thought of the passage. This is unspeakably better, not as a reading method merely but as a training for the children, than going along mechanically until they came to the first long word. In a Cincinnati school a seventh grade teacher was heard to assign a reading lesson to be prepared before coming to class; it was a chapter in Sir John Lubbock's *Pleasures of Life*, a book which happened to be one of the supplementary readers. No child can read intelligently and with expression till he has the materials in his mind, by means of which he can picture to himself and so understand what he reads. He is dealing falsely with the printed page and with himself if he tries. In the American schools that were visited great care seemed to be bestowed upon this preliminary to the reading lesson. With young classes the subject matter is supplied beforehand either in stories told by the teacher, or in nature lessons talked over in class, or in some similar way on the blackboard. Reading then becomes a rendering of thought rather than a study of form, and reading "with expression" part of the cultivation of the art of self-expression.

There are one or two places where the writer found the conception of reading as the expression of thought, which the child obtains from the printed page, to have been carried to its furthest point, and to have become, perhaps, the best possible introduction to the meaning and use of books, and to the art of reading them, that children could have. At the model and practising school connected with the Chicago Normal School, the Chicago University Elementary and some public schools, but more particularly at Minneapolis, "Readers" are printed by the authorities, the text consisting, for the most part, of material compiled in the classes, in part by the children themselves.\* These readers vary in size from a small leaflet to booklets of from 36 to 40 pages. The Minneapolis Board of Education granted the superintendent and primary supervisor a printing press and hired a man to work it, on condition that no application should be made for new primary readers for two years, but also believing that they could supply themselves equally well with reading matter, and at no greater cost. The original motive of the experiment was to have reading which should be related to (indeed, be largely the outcome of) the work of the grades. Such subjects are taken as spring, summer, autumn, winter, the wind, the sun and moon, birds, the bird-club, animals, George Washington, Whittier. At the Chicago University Elementary School the leaflet "readers" are even more frankly the work of the children, each of the upper classes having its reporter, who selects what he thinks in the literature or history or science work is sufficiently interesting to be printed. The aim in all such instances is to get a right mental attitude towards words, as something which have a story to tell. Reading is taught with as little stress on phonics or on the form of words as possible. Questioned as to how it works in practice, the Minneapolis supervisor replied: "It has gone beyond a theory, the children can do it; they make their own associations. The child's mind is filled with the picture before he does the reading; the greater the thought preparation, the less the form preparation that is found to be required. I believe in phonics, however, because it makes the children self-reliant and accurate." Adding, however, qualifying words to the whole statement which showed the American consciousness of progress and of readiness to adapt methods to new principles as they emerge: "That, at any rate, is just how I feel to-day." In many schools reading is taught from the very first by the "sentence method," *i.e.*, the complete thought is in the child's mind before any step is taken towards the mastery of its printed or written form. Children who have been in school three days read (:) from the *Hiawatha Primer*—'Hiawatha was the grandson of Nokomis.' Each page has its picture, and the child takes the words as wholes, and, at the same time, as part of the sentence which stands for the idea that is in his mind.

\* It should be noted, of course, that there are "primary" readers, for children, *i.e.*, between the ages of 6 and 10; and also that the schools would still have their stocks of primary readers of the ordinary kind on hand for use; also that favourite pieces of literature might be reprinted in this way, and so become in a new sense the children's own. (See also, page 145.)

All these methods and devices, which are, in varied form a system of meanings before words instead of words before meanings, seem to have been adopted instinctively, (1) to make speech and the art of reading more truly the expression of real thought, and (2) to lessen 'the evil of memorising words without understanding their meaning or verifying the statements made in the text-book,' which Dr. Harris, in his Paris monograph still thinks "is perhaps the most widely prevalent defect in teaching to be found in the schools of the United States. It is condemned universally, but, nevertheless, practised."

The cutting out in paper and the colour-work aim equally to be expressive of something rather than to be merely formal exercises. They give the same kind of occupation so far as hand and eye training and the development of the artistic sense are concerned, and they have thought behind them. In the absence of actual illustrations it is impossible to give an adequate idea of the life-like representations produced by freehand cutting in paper of the pictures which quite little children have in their minds of objects, events, and stories which have interested them.

Similarly, there is very little drawing in the abstract; it is some idea or object that is represented. Drawing finds its main use in helping to illustrate other studies. When the interest is hot, and the children have expressed themselves in words, they take brush or pencil and express themselves in colour or drawing.

The Frang System might appear at first sight somewhat more technical, but on closer acquaintance nothing could more admirably illustrate the adjustment of formal work to concrete interests than the series of teachers' manuals and children's exercises which enable the instructor to bring into relation with the drawing lesson, not only *artistic feeling*, but the child's interest in nature, literature, and real objects. Indeed, everything in the lower parts of the school may be made to have concrete reference, even copy-book exercises. Had we been told even a very little at the beginning of a 'copy' about Socrates or Xenophon who 'wrote the Memorabilia,' we should have both spelt and written their names better. American children do not seem to use copy-books; sheets of paper, writing tablets, blank note-books and exercise-books take their place. For who is to tell what thought and what necessity for expression the child's life in the school-room is going to produce?

All lessons may be made to stimulate a child's own thought, so that "reciting"\* shall not be giving back the words of the book, but making some contribution from the pupil's own point of view. "If your geographies," said a teacher, "do not give all you want to know about Central Africa, bring any other information you can find." Accurate and thoughtful expression of a child's own thought is a guiding idea throughout. Moreover, a child sooner finds the limit of his knowledge when he tries to express thought, instead of merely repeating words. The ethical

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\* That is, the oral lesson.



bearings are plain. Yet, naturally, this is a method which runs to sorry excess at times. Children are occasionally led away into expressing more than they know. Overweening self-confidence is the temptation which children need to be defended from by a judicious limitation of the subjects on which the children are to express themselves. For example, the writer was present at an eighth grade debate (ages 13 to 14), at which the subject discussed was "the nationalisation of railways." Three former scholars, now at the high school, were the judges, knowing nothing of the subject, but adjudging the victory to the side that had the best of the argument (!) As a result the honours rested with a group of combatants, one of whose main points was that the alleged greater cheapness and safety of travelling in England, as compared with America, was owing to the fact that English railways were nationalised! The decision of the judges seemed to give universal satisfaction; although the better arguments and sounder if more retiring intelligence lay with the losers. The winners had had more experience in debate, evincing an equally displeasing contempt for the case of their opponents and for the real facts. Sheer effrontery won the day.

A tendency certainly exists, and is observable in more than one place, to forget the need there is for the teacher behind the lesson as the chief factor in its constructive development. Loose links do not make a chain. The creation of unity out of the multiplicity of the children's thoughts is one of the teacher's essential duties. On the theory of probabilities there is scant likelihood of a lesson, the "development" of which is left to a class of children, having any real connectedness, or any training value, whether rational, informational, or ethical. It is no infringement of the privilege of self-expression for a teacher to take care that, before a lesson is done with, its parts shall be drawn together according to some plan which unifies it, and makes it a training in intellectual constructiveness.\*

(b) The second phase of this widespread aspiration to convert the child's knowledge into power, and so to develop in him a feeling of progress due to self-effort must be passed over more lightly. It is suggested by the phrase "concrete before abstract." To take the case of a child who does not take to learning readily. The endeavour is to *lead* such a child to learn rather than to *make* him learn; for "whenever the taskmaster is found, spontaneity dies, individuality is atrophied, and aggressive moral manhood does not become. How are we to get this spirit into the schools? By teaching which has reference to something more than form, and by passing from content to form as the guiding principle in learning. Thought before the form of thought; thought before the representation of thought; knowledge before the expression of knowledge; the will, the determination to do, before the representation of it in what is done. This during the formative

\*- See a valuable article on the "Class Recitation," by Dr. Harris, reprinted in report on *Individuality and the Moral Aim in American Education*; pp. 86-90.

period of life leads the child to be a doer, a self-reliant agent." The principle "concrete before abstract" is enlarged, therefore, to mean vital before mechanical, inductive realisation before formal application, a quickened mind preceding outward energy.

The ways in which in different places and with varying emphasis, arithmetic, geography, history, science, language, are brought under this rule would occupy too much space in telling. The concrete interest is made to dominate. In the first grade, to select one or two observations as samples, the foot-rule may be the text book in arithmetic; nation stories, *e.g.*, the "Seven Little Sisters," or home surroundings, give a concrete embodiment to geography; history finds a similar aid in institutional life, processes of commerce, or commemorative monuments; science is largely observational in the field, or practical in the excellent laboratories with which most high schools are provided; lastly, "Think of the absurdity," says Professor Dewey, "of having to teach language as a thing by itself. If there is anything the child will do before he goes to school it is to talk of the things that interest him. But when there are no vital interests appealed to in the school, when language is simply used for the repetition of lessons, it is not surprising that one of the chief difficulties of school work has come to be instruction in the mother-tongue." The story, too, is restored to its true place in the best American schools. Reference has been made to the fact of first-grade children visiting the higher classes to tell the myths and other stories they have learnt. The difficulties of composition are taken in hand very early, and practically removed in the lower grades by the concrete interest infused. Written "stories," which is the name given to single sentences or the simplest essays which express something which the child knows, even in the first grade and after the children have been to school but six or seven months, surprise not only visitors but the teachers themselves.

This section would not be complete without referring to the decidedly Pestalozzian flavour which American education still retains, and which is, indeed, one of the causes of the brightness and interest of the work in the primary grades—the first four years, *i.e.*, above the kindergarten. This was vividly impressed upon the writer when visiting the Hull House Settlement at Chicago, where part of the work consists of a kindergarten and crèche; about fifty of the kindergarten children had gone out in an omnibus to see a cow, as it had been found that they did not know what a real cow was like. True, the great proportion of American educators rely largely upon literature, but the literature retains its vividness and concreteness, partly because of its direct association with familiar things, and also because it is, as a rule, real literature that is presented to the children from the lower grade upwards.

(c) Upon the third point mentioned, namely, the linking on of formal studies to those having concrete subject matters, still less must be said; it is practically the converse of the first. When studies find expression in formal occupations, such as

brush-work and paper-cutting, these occupations themselves cease to be formal, and have a real and living content. The illustration of spelling may serve. "You can just lay this right down," said a superintendent, "a spelling-book has nothing within it that gives ethical training. The taskmaster will do the opposite thing, and will breed truancy. How is a boy to get his spelling? Why, right along *by spelling*. How do you get your spelling?"

These are tendencies, movements, developments; and observation of schools in many cities has served to impress one with their reality. Yet there are great differences in American schools. One principal, in a city which shall be nameless, assured the writer, in perfectly good faith, that she always proceeded from the abstract to the concrete, and gave illustrations to bear out the statement. One can "travel in the train fifty miles, and pass through the whole history of education on the journey." Of 3,500 teachers in one city it is estimated that 2,000 were, so far as trained at all, educated in the old methods. One of the great workers and hoppers for educational progress in America, Miss Brooks, of St. Paul, spoke in a way which showed that she fully realised the two sides of the question. "Genetic psychology ought to do much to teach us how to present the school work in such a way as to arouse in the child a true morality. We are far from it; it is as though one were talking in a mist. It is not the children who are to blame: but the teaching force is not where it will be in a few more years."

As a glimpse into possibilities of an unfavourable kind we have Dr. Rice's description of part of what he saw in St. Louis. Such a reference will help to show the state of things out of which America is rapidly growing. The visit was made in 1893. "In St. Louis we have an example of how sad the lot of the child may become when the superintendents not only do practically nothing toward raising the standard of the teachers by instructing them in the science of education, but where they do much to depress them by examining their classes, and judging them by results alone. . . . The teachers at all times labour under a high degree of pressure for results. . . . The pupils, subjugated to the teacher's will, are silent and motionless; the spiritual atmosphere of the class-room is damp and chilly. . . . The slightest movement on the part of a child attracts the attention of the teacher. The recitation is repeatedly interrupted with cries of 'Stand straight,' 'Don't bend the knees,' 'Don't lean against the wall,' and so on. I heard one teacher ask a little boy: 'How can you learn anything with your knees and toes out of order?' The toes appear to play a more important part than the reasoning faculties." Some equally severe strictures are contained in Dr. Rice's account of some of the schools in New York. In five or six pages of fine pedagogical humour, a school is described which had uniformly been marked excellent during the preceding twenty-five years. A sentence or two will serve. "Now as to the maxim. The maxim consists of three short words, 'Save the

minutes.' The spirit of the school is, 'Do what you like with the child, immobilise him, automatise him, dehumanise him, but save, save the minutes.' In many ways the minutes are saved. By giving the child ready-made thoughts, the minutes required in thinking are saved. By giving the child ready-made definitions, the minutes required in formulating them are saved. Everything is prohibited that is of no measurable advantage to the child, such as the movement of the head or a limb, when there is no logical reason why it should be moved at the time. I asked the principal whether the children were not allowed to move their heads. She said, 'Why should they look behind when the teacher is in front of them?'—words too logical to be refuted. . . . The principal's definition of a note . . . is ideally delivered, when it sounds something like 'Notsinrepti length d'ration time.'" ["A note is a sign representing to the eye the length or duration of time."]

Cincinnati and Chicago come in for their share of criticism at the same hands. At Cincinnati a teacher said she would let Dr. Rice hear the whole class read. "The sentence, 'Is it a quail, John?' had previously been written on a blackboard, and the teacher asked the children to read it together. 'Read it backward, first,' she said. The children then read the words as the teacher pointed to them with the baton, and after they had read the sentence backward and forward, they spelled all the words contained in it. . . . The effect, as near as I can reproduce it, was as follows:" (Dr. Rice reduces his impressions to music, which may be as easily imagined as transcribed.)

The writer saw more than one instance of almost ludicrously exaggerated expression in reading; eyes were set, and an unnatural pose assumed. Dr. Rice describes what he saw at Chicago. The children were reading a piece that had been well practised. "To me, many of the pupils did not look rational when they read. The story ran as follows: 'Be a good girl, Dolly! Don't do anything naughty when I am gone.' And Katy shook her finger at Dolly as she opened the door to leave the room. And what do you think was in Katy's mind when she said this? etc."

One of the pupils was called on to begin the story . . . Before she began to read she glanced at the book for a moment, then raising her eyes, she stared so fixedly at me that her eyes became glassy. At last she said in slow and measured, even tragical tones, "Be a good girl, Dolly!" Then, without removing her gaze from me, she raised the forefinger of her right hand to the front of her eye, shook it at me for a while, and at last said, "Don't do anything naughty when I'm gone." Continuing to shake her finger, she read, "And Katy shook her finger at Dolly as she opened the door to leave the room."\*

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\* "The Public School System of the United States," pp. 97, 20-37, 86-87, 180-181,

## CHAPTER IX.

## NEW SPIRIT OF SCHOOL DISCIPLINE.

If there are two things that are absolutely fundamental to the American theory and practice of education which is in course of development, they are—first, the broadly interpreted and variously applied doctrine of “learning by doing,” and, secondly, the changed tone and spirit of school discipline. In a great movement of this kind all do not, and cannot, fall into line at once. One may see a military obedience in more than one New York school that would do honour to the most rigid disciplinarian. The writer has never witnessed such stillness and rigidity of posture as he saw during the opening exercises in a large school in this city; and the filing into class rooms and the drawing of the sliding partitions which converted the large hall into a number of class rooms were a well-nigh perfect exhibition of routine drill. In one class visited the teacher’s method was a revelation of clock-work class management, time being kept between question and answer by clapping the hands. In mental arithmetic, for example, the boys (it was the highest grade, average age fifteen) were not to make a motion till the teacher gave the word, “Are you ready?” “Well, put it down.” A boy came in during the lesson to mark the register. “Now, take a rest for a moment, lads!” said the teacher. And the lads needed it. The case is quoted in order to show what exists, rather than in any spirit of criticism. He was a really good teacher, and had a genial manner, which reduced the nervous wear and tear considerably, and his method was effective up to a certain point, if only by way of contrast with upper grade work, to be referred to later, which altogether fails to pull boys together. Also, in a city much further inland, where the schools have a high reputation, the supervising principal of five or six schools quite frankly avowed her belief in “toeing the line to the last inch,” advocating prison rule till the children are drilled into shape and will do the thing whether or no! Her feeling was that “if the child knows very definitely what he has to do and the demands are reasonable, the child accustoms himself to it, as the prisoner grows accustomed to his irons. All that we have to do is to set the limit and hold to it day by day till the child grows to it. After that you can take the irons off.” This was so exceptional for an inland town as to have been an isolated experience: but it was the judgment of a clever woman, whose touch of real genius may have led her to assume a somewhat pronounced position, and the same thing may happen with her as with others, who told the writer of a complete change of conviction and practice: whereas some years ago they believed in the older military rule, they had come to believe in and practice methods of the very opposite kind. In this special case the speaker was described rather aptly as “narrow, perhaps, in

one or two ways, but one who takes a broad view of her own narrowness." This was evidenced in her own words which followed the views on discipline just quoted: "Whether it is best in the end or not, I am not willing to say."

Here one is rather concerned with what is characteristic of America as a whole. Travelling westwards from Boston, the new movements in education are found in their full vigour at Worcester (Mass.) alike in the schools, the normal school, and the Clark University, and here the new social outlook, the humanising aim, and the happier methods of discipline were very marked. Hundreds of teachers in the olden days, the superintendent said, disliked their work because of the severe discipline; but the schools of the country have been revolutionised in this respect. This has been helped by changes both in the curriculum and in the teaching spirit, tending to make the school-life, as Colonel Parker demanded twenty-five years ago, more really a part of the life which is natural to a healthy, normal child. Nothing could more convincingly show that the educational movements are really national and American, and that the country was ripe for them, than the fact that they took definite shape twenty-five years ago at Quincy in Massachusetts, under the very shadow of the city of Boston. This was when Colonel Parker became superintendent of the Quincy schools. The writer was present at the celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of that event. Such leaders in the educational world as the U. S. Commissioner of Education, Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, and Dr. G. Stanley Hall were present to endorse the movement in its modern aspects. Colonel Parker's own address told of so much that marked off the movement from the past out of which it sprang that it may be quoted at some length:—

"It is often said that when a school board gives up its authority to an expert its duties are ended, that indeed it has nothing further to do. This was by no means true of the Quincy committee. The superintendent was given full power to conduct the schools as he thought best. There was, however, one absolute requirement—he must succeed, and the committee was the judge of success or failure. Previous to 1875 the committee had examined yearly the schools in order to ascertain the progress of the pupils; now they proposed to inspect the schools to find out the efficiency or inefficiency of the superintendent.

"The School Board's most important task was to defend the schools and the changes in the work of the teachers.

"Good people do not easily alter their ideals of education. I have sometimes thought that theology had the deepest and strongest hold upon the human mind, especially in New England, but that is not true; educational ideas are by far the slowest to change. Noah Webster is mightier than Jonathan Edwards; technical grammar than predestination. It is useless for anyone who attempts to improve education to complain; the right way is to recognise the situation and make the best of it. Human progress is measured by the time it takes for a good idea to get into life.

"I will not attempt to describe the educational situation in New England. One fact illustrates it fully; a diligent search was made on the rich and loaded shelves of Boston booksellers. One educational work, and one only, was found, a second-hand copy of Currie's Grammar School Education. Do not misunderstand. Very much had been done in building up the common school. Most school systems were thoroughly organised. That of Boston has furnished the pattern of organisation for all time. There were excellent teachers, noble, disinterested men and women; but naturally tradition controlled, and there was a general, though unconscious, belief that most things in education were fixed and finished. Among thoughtful people, however, there were grave doubts as to the profitable expenditure of school moneys.

"The superintendent found thoughtful teachers, some of whom had been doubting and studying for years, others who were ready to put themselves into the work with hearty zeal. The teachers, forty-two, I think, in number, formed a faculty for the study of education. The superintendent led them as best he could, getting from them far more than he gave. The authority he received he relegated to them, and in return demanded close study, original thought, creation, observation, reformation and independence. The teachers' meetings were the central means of movement. The superintendent trudged from school to school, watching the teachers, criticising them personally, holding conferences, and discussing questions. He taught in every class, over and over again, not by any means because he was a model, but because he wished to learn how to teach. It was exhilarating, delightful work, though filled with errors and doubts, crude, unformed, experimental, but withal progressive. He found genius among the teachers. There were very few teachers who failed of re-election. They tried, they struggled with the problems; some failed, but most succeeded. They were ever ready to take and use criticism, ever ready to acknowledge failure and to look for better things. I shall never forget them, that little band of heroes. I see them now, facing the children and the eternal questions.

"There never was a Quincy method or a Quincy system, unless we agree to call the Quincy method a spirit of study, and the Quincy system one of everlasting change. A method in teaching means to most people a certain way of doing things, a way fixed and finished; something that has a beginning and an end; something rounded, routinised, and efficient; a panacea like a patent medicine that may be applied with unfailing results. Method in this sense is the common and awful delusion of the present day. With the artist-teacher method is the way he or she reaches an ideal. Therefore, method is entirely personal, ever changing, ever improving. Insight, elimination, improvement, are the elements of upward and onward movements. We, the teachers of Quincy as a faculty, wrestled with the greatest problem ever given to man. The faculty and its meetings brought inspiration, enthusiasm, help, and each teacher applied

the things found in his or her own way, developing personality and, therefore, personal ability.

"If you ask me to name the best of all in results, I should say, the more humane treatment of little folks. We tried to teach them, not as children or as pupils, but as human beings. Each child has his own individuality, his stream of thought, his desires, his hopes and fears, his grief and joy. In school the child has too often a separate stream of thought, or a stagnant pool, totally separate from his real life. A child should have one life, wholesome and complete, and the home life and the school life should each supplement the other. We tried to make the children happy, so happy that they should love to go to school. The rod was well-nigh banished. The doctrine of total depravity will have much to answer in the Day of Judgment. Flogging is the direct result of the belief that the child is innately bad, and must be whipped into goodness.

"We know that the child is good, if he has a chance, an environment of goodness. This knowledge came to us from actual experience. One beautiful incident threw a flood of light upon the child's soul. Little Bumpus, who was blind, entered Mrs. Follett's class of six-year-olds. Without suggestion, the dear little folk put their arms around him and said, "We'll help you." Humanity begets humanity. Children long for something to do, and they love right-doing far more than they love wrong-doing.

"The systematic cultivation of selfishness by bribery—per cents, material rewards and prizes—was banished. The dark clouds were cleared away, and a higher motive, a nobler ideal, came into view. The humane treatment of children cannot be brought about by any particular method. It must spring from a deep sympathy, backed by courage and skill. The old-fashioned, stiff, unnatural order was broken up. The torture of sitting perfectly still with nothing to do was ruled out, and in came an order of work, with all the whispering and noise compatible with the best results. The child began to feel that he had something to do for himself, that he was a member of society, with the responsibilities that accompany such an important position.

"We did not banish text-books; we added to them; change, not banishment, was the order. It was the custom for pupils to read through in a year one little book that a bright, well-taught child can read from end to end in a few hours, providing always that he is not disgusted with the contents."

It was probably at the moment of transition from old to new in one city, that its Board of Education applied to a Teachers' Agency for a principal who could "coerce the young by mild measures."

The principal of the Normal College at Worcester said that having been born and brought up in the old régime, he felt as though he had lived a hundred years, so great was the change in the spirit of school discipline. He considered this the more remarkable inasmuch as the period of progress had been marked by the constant inflow of an almost indigestible mass of foreign immigration. Similar conditions prevail in Canada, and a



similar disciplinary spirit prevails. Indeed, if one may judge from a brief visit, the Toronto children seem to be more fully aware of being contributors to the school order and of *feeling their feet* in the process than most of the children in the States. Dr. Rand, of McMaster University, Toronto, who had had a large experience as organiser of schools in the East, stated that probably the rod never sees its use now in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, the change having taken place within his experience. Of course, humane views of child-life and school life have during the same period been growing up in England; but it is something far more than a question of the use or non-use of corporal punishment—it is an atmosphere of sympathy, a conscious sunshine, which teachers like those of Toronto and Minneapolis bring into the school with them. It has something to do with the fact that the teachers are mostly women; it has more to do with the recognition of the fact that the children are children, with all that that implies in the minds of teachers taught by Froebel and Pestalozzi, quickened by the humane spirit of the time, and inspired very often with something approaching to a missionary zeal. Education is deeply felt to be the cause of the hour, and the child the hope of the future. "Going to school has ceased to be a home-sick tribulation, and the teacher has ceased to be a merchant dealing in information, and has become a builder of human souls."

On the political side, the change is due to America's eager realisation—intensified probably by the uncertainty France has shown in the matter during the last century—of the meaning of a democracy; in such a community the children must not be submitted to a tyrannical form of discipline. On the social side, doubtless, some effect has come from the war of the Union, which was also a war waged upon the question of slavery; the appeals of that hour reacted upon those that made them and gave birth to a broader humanity. On the religious side the "new education" runs very much in line with the "new theology"; the appeal to fear is less, and faith in moral suasion greater. On the educational side, the influence of the great educators of the past and the careful study, which is still maintained, of the history of education, have contributed in no small degree. Then the inclusion of the Southern States in the Union gave a fresh impulse to American feeling and to the national consciousness. America had grown up into its early manhood. It began to assimilate all that it borrowed; what it learned from others enabled it to be more wisely and boldly original. One hears frequently of "a sort of instinct" which has led educators into right paths—right, *i.e.*, for America, with her problems, her human possibilities, her material power. Hence it is that a man who is all heart and impulse is credited with having led the way.

As phases of the changed spirit of school-discipline, the following may be selected: (1) increased liberty allowed to children; (2) the effort to make them self-governing; (3) ways of gaining

attention; (4) altered modes of punishment; (5) details of organisation; (6) the universal reliance upon the personality of the teacher.

(1) The increased liberty allowed to children. The regulations for an eighth grade class in one of the Washington schools illustrate this point. (It was the principal's room, *i.e.*, the class which she taught all day in addition to being the principal of the building, a combination of duties which involved giving attention to visitors to the school, as well as answering questions or sending messages relating to other parts of the building.)

1. No talking in the cloakroom.

2. No talking—not one word—during the teacher's absence from the room.

5. Interruption during recitation means doing immediately some mental or written work.

6. Pupils passing about the room during hours should make their movements noiseless.

Rule 5 points to self direction; the second and sixth suggest unwritten rules or privileges of which they are the conditions namely, that pupils are allowed to speak to each other about their work during the teacher's presence—children were seen doing this in perfectly orderly and mutually helpful fashion—, and, that a freedom of movement about the class-room is permitted for legitimate purposes, such as to borrow a book from another pupil, or to consult a large dictionary, with which all the class-rooms are supplied. This freedom of movement, facilitated by the single desks, which seem to be in use everywhere, is quite general, and is in no way confined to the upper grades. Quite little children of the first and second grades are allowed to pass from their seats to the blackboard, on which they do a considerable part of their writing and number work; and if they have to leave the room it is accepted as sufficient that they shall write their names on the blackboard near the door as they pass, even this not always being required.

The freedom is practically that of the home, and in return for it the children give as freely their allegiance to the necessary conditions of the school. Other English visitors have remarked upon this striking feature of American class-rooms; the children scarcely ever need calling to order—this is not because the presence of a visitor restrains them, for in most schools they are so accustomed to visitors that they are to all intents and purposes unconscious of their presence; besides, how many teachers in English schools find that the presence of a visitor, even of an inspector, helps the discipline? "We allow them," said a sixth grade teacher, "all the liberty they want," and as she spoke one boy got up to observe the temperature of the room and write it on the blackboard—one must repeat that the blackboard runs almost all round the room, making such uses of it possible—and two others rose to consult a dictionary. Sometimes the children

will say, 'Aren't you giving us too hard work?' and the teacher prefers that they should thus address her, rather than that the congenial feeling between the class and herself should be destroyed. "The principle on which we work," said a Worcester headmaster of many years' experience, "is the assumption that everybody wants to do about the right thing, while, as a fact, we know there are a few who will not do it, and who must be curbed by necessary force; just as in civil society the citizens want to do the right thing, but there must be the power to see it executed." This principal estimated that in his school of 1,000 pupils corporal punishment might be used about ten times in the year, the reason mostly being a desire on the part of the boys to 'show off.' Some want to show the others that they can stand a whipping, and are frequently satisfied when they have had one, and have established a reputation, for courage. This is generally in October or November at the commencement of the school year; the boys get over it at 13 or 14. Boy-nature is a curious thing, this gentleman went on to say; we have to treat them as individuals very frequently. After taking boys into the office it is often found that their standpoint is quite reasonable, and we admit it, only we show them that they have to avoid the appearance of not meaning right.

Amongst the happiest schools visited, both in the spirit of its management, the ability and method of the teachers, and the responsive spirit of the children, was the Newton Girls' School, Philadelphia. Here the principal's policy was to allow the children to be a little fidgetty in the lowest grades, on the ground that as they are to become able to control themselves in the long run, teachers must be content to wait for it. A bright set of children in the second grade found it hard to keep still, and the teacher was advised not to make too much effort to obtain stillness. An ideally happy spirit seemed as a consequence to pervade the class, which contained children from all kinds of families, some white, some coloured. So, acting on the conviction that, if perfect stillness were obtained in the first grade, she would find a tendency to disorder throughout the school, the principal made haste more slowly and achieved her end; one was conscious of the growth of a disciplined life in passing upward through the school from grade to grade. Moreover, the danger of self-consciousness, more especially incident to a girls' school, is largely removed by allowing the children to be natural, and by the teacher herself being allowed to be natural in her life with them. We have abandoned the "sit up straight and fold your arms idea long ago," said the principal of an equally well-conducted school at Washington, the special features of which must be spoken of in another connection. Throughout the schools, whether in cities comparatively old-fashioned in their school methods, or in those abreast of the newest educational life, the aim appears to be to make the children feel that the school is a family on a large scale, that each is responsible in part for the happiness of all, and that it is

natural for the larger children to take some care of the younger. Marching in and out of school is abolished in some places, the children entering and leaving as they would any other building, the elder pupils not being marched in by grades separately from the little ones, but being free to give them a helping hand. The University Elementary School at Chicago makes it a fundamental aim to allow children practically the same freedom that they would have in any gathering of children having a common purpose, believing that if artificially repressed in one place they will explode in another. (But see end of Chapter VI.)

In the last-named school, truly, one is reminded of the counsel given to the teachers in the Schools of Port Royal: "Speak little; bear much; and pray more." Yet it is true everywhere that many of the teachers have "given their lives to the schools; laboured over the question of right discipline; have talked, discussed, and worked, so that gradually thought and conviction have grown in the matter; and when the teacher begins to reason from a different plane the effect is not long being felt by the children."

Is it not possible to carry this new theory of school discipline too far? Certainly, until every teacher is a genius in the art of child training. But in judging of this, one or two important facts must be allowed for. In the first place, there is an elasticity of temperament in the American child, which makes his very liberty safer than it would be with some children. His liberty itself is elastic, and has a way of springing back into its place, at the very moment that it is beginning to look dangerous. One becomes conscious of this even in walking through the public parks. Further, the children are generally highly-strung, almost nervously sensitive, and where gentler treatment suffices, noisier and more obtrusive methods are not called for. And, thirdly, the teachers live in the same social atmosphere and know the spirit of the children; and as it is too much to expect each teacher to have an elasticity corresponding to that of sixty American—might one not also say English?—children, time and strength are saved by not expecting it, but by trying in its place the methods next to be described.

(2) The endeavour to make children self-governing. The fifth of the regulations, quoted at the commencement of the preceding section, was to the effect that any interruption during an oral lesson meant that the children were to turn at once to some mental or written work. As it happened, the writer was, not without some regret, the cause of a considerable interruption of the work of this grade, and at a most awkward time, the commencement of afternoon school. But without any suggestion from the teacher, the children all took up some work, and with an occasional word, such as "you have two lessons in preparation; when you get through what you are doing you will find some examples of H. C. F. (Highest Common Factor) on the board, applications of yesterday's lesson"; or a reference to corrections to be made in their drawings; they worked on

attentively for half-an-hour, whilst their teacher, the principal, talked with the visitor about the school and its aims.\*

The training of the children in self-direction is one of the effects of the system of divided classes, already mentioned. They acquire what Dr. Harris calls "absorptive attention," *i.e.*, they take part of their work in hand themselves and learn not to be disturbed by what others are doing around them. The principal of the Englewood High School, Chicago, claims that the development of this feeling of personal responsibility is the potent factor in lifting up pupils and helping to make of them strong men and women. He relies principally upon active interest in the school work, which, owing probably to causes to be referred to later,† it usually takes about four or five months really to arouse; from that time it very rarely happens that pupils have to be corrected for misdemeanour. This springs from the feeling in each pupil that he is working primarily for himself, not for the teacher; that he has his own part in the school-life, individually in the class work, and, socially, in the school interests which, as previously described, are made to bear upon the work. "The test of order," says Mr. J. L. Hughes,‡ "is best applied when the teacher is absent." If work goes on steadily then it implies two things, first, interest in the work itself; and, secondly, power of moral self-direction in the pupils. More than one opportunity was afforded the writer of seeing how entirely capable children are of self-direction during a teacher's absence. The following example illustrates a method adopted occasionally in a school in Nebraska:

"The teacher of this school is sick," said the superintendent, "and one of the high-school girls is taking her place. "I think," he added to the class, "that you had better conduct your own reading lesson this afternoon. You may proceed as if you were alone."

There was a moment's pause, then a little girl in a front seat read the first stanza of the lesson, John G. Saxe's poem, "The Blind Men and the Elephant." Her manner of rendering it was almost beyond criticism, and she had not much more than finished when a boy in the back of the room commenced reading the second stanza.

"The first approached the elephant, and, happening to fall," he read, placing the emphasis upon "elephant." But his seat-mate had looked a little deeper into the thought of the poem, and seeing that each blind man was to approach the elephant,

\* It became the writer's constant practice, and was found invaluable—at times preventing altogether erroneous judgment—to consult the city superintendent, and in each school the principal. This was, unless quite impossible, always done beforehand. In the case of the visit above referred to, the writer was specially introduced to the principal by the city superintendent of schools.

† See references to the high schools in the chapter on "Curriculum and Character-building."

‡ "Mistakes in Teaching and How to Keep Order," printed together as the Christmas number of "Educational Foundations," by Kellogg and Co., New York.

in turn, he recognised the fact that "first" instead of "elephant" was the word to receive the emphasis, so when his companion had finished he re-read the stanza according to his interpretation of it.

So the reading was continued throughout the whole poem some stanzas being read as many as four or five times before each child was satisfied.

"We do not have this kind of recitation very often," said the superintendent, "as the best readers are most critical and take the lead in the corrections, so it is more of a help to the strong than to the weak ones. However, an occasional lesson interests them and helps to arouse a spirit of competition for good reading." This instance is quoted, but is in perfect keeping with much that was actually observed.

The power of moral self-direction follows quite as naturally. The principal of the Douglas School, Minneapolis, gave some excellent instances of this from her own experience, which at the same time illustrate her method of discipline. Children have to be trained in self-judgment if they are to possess the most valuable kind of self-control. This seemed to be the principle on which this teacher worked. One day, for instance, two boys came to her as principal, asking her to reverse their teacher's decision to detain them to do some work which they had neglected. She told them a story of Lincoln at the beginning of the Civil War, when a young officer convicted of insubordination came to him to complain that his general had threatened to shoot him. "The general threatened to shoot you!" said Lincoln. "Well, if he threatened to shoot me I should believe him; because I believe he'd do it if he said so." The boys admitted that it was a good story, at the same time looking rather crestfallen; the teacher had held a mirror before them in which they saw themselves, and judged themselves accordingly. She would sometimes ask boys what discipline they thought they ought to have, *e.g.*, for disorder in the lines. They thought they ought to be made to stay out of the line, and were accordingly bidden to do so till they felt they could trust themselves to behave. "Children's impulses are right, don't you think so?" this lady said, adding that she was a much better disciplinarian, obtaining better order and with greater ease, than when she was far more rigid. She had previously had experience in a school where there was no home influence to appeal to, the children having practically lived in the streets from their birth up; they had no good traditions, no ideals. But there she had used the same general method and had found her task easier every year. Some few cases required severer handling, the children belonging to the semi-criminal class. For such the teacher had to fix the penalty, as "some of them would never have fixed a penalty for themselves in the living world." The value of this teacher's testimony lies in the suggestion of slow and careful procedure towards the stage in which children may be trusted to control themselves; and the underlying hint that self-judgment should precede self-direction.

One of the men most representative of the educational spirit of

America is President Eliot of Harvard. He regards the change in school discipline as one of pure, far-reaching gain, the fundamental-object in all education being to develop "self-control and the power to give an intense mental attention"; such self-control not being capable of being cultivated under "the arbitrary pressure of another's will." Sometimes pupils are allowed to have their say in the drawing up of rules for their class. They may safely be trusted to do this, was the Toronto verdict. Repressive discipline is dying out with the stronger emphasis on the words, trust and sympathy. "Do you wish my respect?" a teacher will sometimes say to a wayward pupil. "Do you wish me to think something of you? Well, I do; more than you imagine. I'll think more of you still if you'll let me. Make a promise not to me, but to yourself." One trace of genuine liking for some trait in such a boy's character wins him, a wireless telegraphy communicates the fact to him and the teacher need no longer study how to control him. Under that quickening consciousness he will control himself; for "Society is lifted up not only by effort but by faith."

(3) Little or no attempt is made to gain attention by calling for it. It is fairly well understood that attention is an impossibility *in vacuo*, there must be something to attend to. To call for attention is to advertise the fact that the teacher cannot get it in any other way; and to be constantly calling for attention is the surest of all ways of not getting it. A Worcester principal told how he dealt with boys in his school, over size and over age for their standard, who, to quote his own words, "stick out like a sore thumb, and you can have all the trouble with them you like, if you want it." Visitors coming to a singing lesson often say, with some surprise, "Those big fellows sing! How do you do it?" "By not irritating them. I call on the children I know will sing. It is a fatal mistake to call for a thing and have a secret fear that you will not get it. So I let them alone, before long the music becomes interesting, and the boys' lips begin to move." The mainstay of discipline, as has already been suggested, is the interest of the lessons.

"We hope to reach the day in our public schools," said one member of the New York Board of Superintendents, "when they will be practically, if not nominally, run by the pupils, *i.e.*, the teacher will float on the interest which the pupils manifest, because of the superior order of instruction and the superior personality and character of the teacher. That, even though the pedagogic edge be a bit blunt, will be the true halt behind the edge, and will cleave almost every problem."

(4) The necessity for punishment is avoided in every possible way. Referring to the stress laid upon the interest of the work itself, one superintendent\* said, "This kind of work eliminates truancy. It is not curative; it's like quarantine, it's preventive.

\* Mr. Powell, of Washington, to whom the writer is indebted for many useful suggestions.

There used to be a strap in every desk ; now in our schools there is a dictionary in every class-room in the upper grades. The basis of school government is not therapeutics ; it is quarantine." Or, to take another medical simile : " We believe," said Dr. Shimer, Associate Superintendent of New York Schools, " in the sloughing process, strengthening and developing all the healthy parts of the body, so that the unhealthy part becomes ashamed of itself and makes way. So, in some schools we have to look round and say, What is there here that is good ? At last we find something, we praise it, build round it, making that the core. The change comes without the subject of it knowing how or whence ?" " If the ordinary average teacher," said the Worcester principal just quoted, " will follow on for three months with the idea that she is going to make the class discipline itself, not she discipline it, she will come out all right. Let the children stand on their own honour, and they will stand for what is right. The public feeling of the class will kill the two or three bad ones. By putting all my effort into the good ones, I have known bad boys lie right down in the traces and give up. If there is no one to laugh at or to encourage them, they get tired of it. I never saw a class in which you could not get three-fourths of the children to stand by the teacher. The silent feeling of those children is sufficient in three months to smooth out the whole class. Any teacher willing to try that plan will not fail." And, as a matter of fact, no teacher who had commenced teaching under his principalship ever had failed in discipline. The writer overheard a conversation between two of the teachers at the Ethical Culture School, New York. One of them was speaking of a decision with regard to seeing a boy's father to ask him to take the boy away from school ; the boy was troublesome, and it was thought that the best thing would be for him to be put to work. The other, the manual training master and a first-rate educationist, replied, " If so, put him to work on something he has an interest in. There's nothing worse than this haphazard putting to work. As for sending the boy away, I'm a very solemn believer in the good influence of bad. If a man comes down the street intoxicated, you do not take your boy away so that he shall not see. So with a bad boy in a class, if you can get the most of the class to condemn his wrong quietly and to steer clear of it, that bad boy is the best thing in it." " But there were two who had succumbed." " Yes, but there were eighteen who had not." These are instances, and more could be quoted, showing that discipline is being more and more based upon a belief not only in the sympathy of numbers, but in the sympathy of numbers with what is good.

As to kinds of punishment, the principal of a grammar grade school at Indianapolis said that he used three: (1) The mildest was for a boy to bring to the principal each night a written statement from himself that his conduct had been satisfactory ; (2) the next was that the teacher should sign the statement (in cases where the boy's idea of 'satisfactory' might be open to



question); (3) the most severe punishment, only used in very extreme cases, was to deny the culprit the privilege of speaking to his schoolfellows until further notice, the period being a week or a week and a half. This had only been inflicted twice in two years, and then it was upon boys who would swear, lie, and steal. Elsewhere, inquiry showed school punishments to consist of reproof, neglected work to be finished, detention, suspension, transference, expulsion, committal to truant schools, and corporal punishment. Punishment of any kind is rare. There are eight or ten cases in a year, was one principal's estimate, of boys being troublesome, and it is not very serious even then; they are either sent to the principal for reproof or detained for fifteen minutes. Suspension varies in severity, but very often it need not last more than half a day unless the parents are neglectful. The child is given a suspension ticket to take home, and the parent is to see the supervising principal, the school principal, or it may be, in some cases, the superintendent, and if the matter is not too serious, it may be adjusted in a single day. If it is serious, the school official keeps the case pending for a few days; sometimes whilst arrangements are being made (as, for example, when a child has been rude or discourteous to his teacher) for transference to another school. The punishment lies in being placed out of court and in the uncertainty of what is going to happen.

A teacher will sometimes leave it to the class to decide with regard to an offence and to suggest punishments. Witnesses are called, the culprit makes his defence, the children are interested in the investigation which broadens their ideas of government, and the offender is tried by his peers. This is one of the ways also in which a distinction is drawn between giving evidence and tale-bearing—a point upon which an Englishman accustomed to codes of schoolboy honour in his own country requires a considerable education before he can fully enter into the spirit of it. The friends of the culprit may be attorneys for the defence. The time that such a class room sessions may last depends on the nature of the fault; it is usually done after school, but, occasionally, on the spot. As a rule, the offender pleads guilty. The penalties suggested by the children do not err on the side of leniency. In the case of a boy guilty of a mean little action, some wished his parents to be told, others that he should be kept in, others that he should be made to do extra home-work; the penalty for idleness in work is that the lost time shall be made up at home. The teacher is final judge, the class his advisors. Dr. Harris, in one of his reports as superintendent of schools at St. Louis, compared the effects of suspension and corporal punishment. Should, he asked, a child be deprived of his education because he is unruly? Even in so extreme a putting of the question, he believed that it was better to deprive an occasional pupil of his education than to lower the moral temperature of a whole school by exhibitions of brutalising and degrading punishments. The mere consciousness of being liable to such punishments makes all the difference in the feel-

ings of the pupils as a whole towards their teacher, and does much, said Dr. Harris, to undermine the very basis of morality, which is self-control. Now the question does not need to be stated in the extreme way just quoted, as many cities have "special discipline" schools or "schools for boys" to which the unruly are sent. And Dr. Harris himself went on to say that suspension does not mean exclusion from school altogether. But by means of it the parent is driven to share the responsibility of supervision, and to do what he can to reinforce the feeble moral powers of the child. The child is sometimes transferred from school to school till he overcomes his unruly impulses. "The support of the parent is all important in the school, and this can never be fully obtained if corporal punishment is administered freely." [History, however, relates to the contrary, that is, if we go back far enough, say, two or three hundred years; showing how necessarily school ideas and practice keep pace with the growth of social feeling.] In the High Schools (average age 14 to 18) the usual forms of punishment are detention for minor offences, transference to another school, where new surroundings may create a new behaviour, for more serious faults; if there is such evidence of depraved instincts that it becomes a question of the influence of the school rather than the elevation of the individual, the parent is asked to withdraw the child; failing this, expulsion is the last resort. The Supervisor of High Schools at Washington only remembered one case of expulsion in twenty years, in which the offence was persistent smoking about the building, in defiance of all rules and remonstrances. With regard to corporal punishment, some cities, and even some states, entirely prohibit it; on all sides the practice is believed to be disappearing, just as it has in the last 200 years from the municipality, the army, and the navy. The following statement is taken from an appendix on "Corporal Punishment," to the monograph by Dr. W. T. Harris on Elementary Education in the United States, prepared for the Educational Section at the Paris Exhibition, and from a recent report issued by the Bureau of Education:

"In one State, New Jersey, the teacher is forbidden by law to inflict corporal punishment. No other state goes to this length, but Illinois, Kansas, Mississippi, Montana, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Washington, and West Virginia specifically prescribe a penalty for excess amounting to cruelty. Legal punishment would be meted out to a brutal teacher in the other States just as surely as in these, but resort would be had to the common law and not to a statute." Since 1897 Arizona has dropped the enactment expressly authorising corporal punishment; suspension by the teacher, expulsion by the board of trustees with liability of parents for damage to property are the extreme measures expressed in the edition of its school law for 1897.

"Local school boards have always the implied power to make regulations for the order and discipline of their respective schools, and three states, viz., Michigan, New York, and Pennsylvania, expressly grant them this power. Acting under this power, expressed or implied, several cities, notably New York City,

Chicago, and Albany, have prohibited absolutely the use of the rod. The same is true of Providence, Rhode Island, except in the primary grades, and in them whipping must not be inflicted unless the written consent of the parent or guardian has been previously filed with the city superintendent.

"Corporal punishment may be used as a last resort and under rigid regulations as to reports, etc., in a great many cities, among them being Baltimore, Detroit, Indianapolis, Louisville, Minneapolis, New Orleans, Pittsburg, Rochester, St. Louis, San Francisco, Worcester. In some cities, where there is no formal prohibition, such a strong sentiment prevails that corporal punishment is rarely if ever inflicted. Philadelphia is a conspicuous example of this."

The President of the Board of Education at Dayton, Ohio, referring to a change in the superintendence from a man who belonged to the old *régime* (a rigid disciplinarian rather than a schoolman) said, 'Since Mr. Hailmann came two years ago corporal punishment has diminished fully fifty per cent., the reason being that the new superintendent is altogether imbued with the new spirit'.

On the whole, it is evident that the drift of educational and, indeed, of public opinion, is towards freeing the school from penalties to the same extent that ordinary community life is free, and so making the school not only a direct preparation for life in the community, but in itself a home of the child's present and vital community interests. Punishment in schools, like war between nations, bespeaks a failure in diplomacy. The backbone of school diplomacy is leading children into the enjoyment of its life by knowledge of and provision for their natural activities, intellectual, physical, and social. The penology of the American school is quite as much a list of punishments that may not be inflicted as of those that may. In evidence of this, the section on government and discipline, from the New York Teachers' Manual, printed and distributed so far back as 1884, and having "the same force and effect as a bye-law of the board," is printed in an appendix. (Appendix I.)

(5) Several of the details of school organisation and management correspond in aim and spirit with the broader principles which have been touched upon. Here is one apparent difference between American practice and the counsels of Thring which at so many points blend and harmonise. "Let trust be unlimited in action, suspicion unlimited in arrangement" is not the American motto. School organisation is increasingly becoming one part or aspect of the policy of trust; certain elementary conditions being first fulfilled. Amongst the latter are the separation of boys' and girls' playgrounds; cloak-room arrangements tending to neatness; mainly affairs of building and furniture, upon which, of course, Thring himself was laying the chief stress.

Rooms are sometimes found so constructed that the class passes in and out through the wardrobe, and enters at the back of the room, this makes the passing in and out more orderly,

and leaves the teacher's space more or less sacred to work. At recess the girls may rise and leave their places first—they are seated quite promiscuously in the class-room—waiting in line outside for the boys to follow. Custom varies considerably with respect to marching in and out of school. The superintendent of the Cleveland schools seems to have struck upon the happy medium, by adopting sometimes marching and sometimes the free assembling. The not merely formal but social discipline of marching together is fully recognised, on the one hand; but, on the other hand, if this method is always followed, there is no longer any free choice or any opportunity left to the individual to learn to take care of himself. Both are needed. When a man combines and acts in concert with his fellows for purposes which he and they understand, he is acting as an intelligent citizen, and is not merely part of a machine; it is well on such grounds that a school or class, like an army or a regiment, should drill and march together for certain definite ends. At the same time, a training for citizenship involves a training of the capacity for individual action in moving in and out amongst assemblies, and the learning to fend for oneself. On these grounds no fixed rule is followed in the Cleveland schools.

Some schools have the marching in and out, generally with one of the class leading the lines, others prefer the free assembling. In Toronto the marching has been introduced with the express purpose of producing self-control. Two bells are rung; at the first the children stop play and stand still so promptly that, when it was first introduced, one lady teacher said that she thought that, if a boy were in the air turning a somersault, he would stop where he was; at the second bell they form into groups, the order of evolution being from individuals to groups, and from single groups to a great marching battalion consisting of the whole school, the boys themselves controlling the movements by giving the words of command.

The principal of the Dayton Manual Training School reported in 1899:

To aid us in handling classes, I inaugurated a semi-military system; that of appointing "class marchers" or "section commanders," as we call them, as is done at military schools. The boy receiving the highest grade for the month was appointed to the place. His duties were to take charge of the class, march them in and out of the building, to and from the different rooms, call the roll, report lates and absentees to the instructors, and to carry the roll book back to his school to report the result of the day at our school. The book is there signed by the teacher, signifying that all is correct. The place was eagerly sought for and develops considerable self-reliance, the ability to command, and overcomes the tendency of the boys to be reluctant in stepping out before the class, addressing them and giving orders.

In other places just as much emphasis is laid upon the value to the children of free assembly.

One of the most interesting sights in an American school is the fire-drill which combines some of the advantages of individual with those of social training, besides being of direct practical value. An actual outbreak of fire in one of the schools at Toronto occurred some few years ago. The flames leaped up four or five feet between some desks in a room of children nine or ten

years of age. The teacher sent word to the principal to have the alarm sounded, and the whole school marched out in perfect order, the class in the room where the flames broke out calmly waiting its turn. One has read of an English teacher preventing a panic and its attendant disasters by her coolness under similar conditions; but the advantage of the fire-drill is that it is a case of organised coolness, a guarantee in advance. Now and then, after due warning that it will be done at times, some chips are burnt in the basement to make a smell of fire, so that a real fire may not disconcert the children if it should occur. When the alarm is rung the children rise at once, march in order through the cloak-rooms for their caps, come downstairs, each floor in its turn, at a quick step, and well within two minutes a three-storied building containing 700 to 800 children is cleared. The drill is taken once a week in Washington in each school throughout the city, the alarm, of course, being given without any sort of notice either to teachers or pupils. A school of 400 coloured children occupying three floors was cleared and the children back again in their places in three minutes and a-half.

These are only details, but they point, none the less, to the prevailing desire to cultivate self-control even under forms of drill. The most noteworthy adaptation of school organisation to the fundamental notions of self-activity and self-control is one which in its many forms comes under the general name of pupil government, and will call for more lengthy notice when considering the various methods employed in teaching civics, viz., the "school city."

(6). Almost invariably the first answer given by an American educator to the question as to what is the greatest moral influence in the school and class-room is: The personality of the teacher. "When a boy is going into a class-room he thinks more of the man he is going to meet than of the subject of the lesson." It is not so much the system that makes the children either bright or quick or good, especially the latter, as the individual teacher. This was the substance of Dean Stanley's memories of Dr. Arnold. It is the everyday creed of the American educationist. A classical instance is quoted from Toronto of a principal who said he could not get on in his school without corporal punishment. There was writing upon the walls, and disorder of every kind. The superintendent pointed to another school in a similar district which was managed entirely without the rod. "Oh," said the principal, "that's quite a different school. No one would want to use corporal punishment there." At the end of the year the superintendent arranged that the two schools should exchange principals. After two months there was disorder in the formerly excellent school, and corporal punishment was required there, whereas the school that was formerly unruly was found to be in perfect order and discipline. "The teacher makes the school," is almost a truism. Indeed, to make a confession, the writer in search of something concerning moral training that could be written down in a report, felt a momentary impatience at times when greeted with the formula, 'the per-

sonality of the teacher.' It sounded so commonplace and matter-of-course. Yet the 'give and take' between pupils and teacher in American schools, the absence of artificial barrier or pedestal, and the broad, human sympathy on which all depends, make just some such expression as that, the only true account of things. "The more I teach," said the headmaster of the Bowdoin School, in Boston, "the more I feel that the teacher is the school. The great thing is to have teachers filled with a vital force which has a moulding influence on the children. If a coloured teacher is a good leader and capable, the children come right under her influence. There are two coloured teachers in Boston, they are both doing successful work." In his own school he had children of at least a dozen nationalities, Americans, Irish-Americans, Jews, Italians, Scandinavians, Russians, coloured children, and others—all these to be formed into American citizens. In this process, the teachers are the agents. They are all alive to the task, and when once they are imbued with the spirit of it, the effect comes about in an almost unconscious way.

The training given to intending teachers (a subject which cannot be dealt with in this single sentence) is directed towards the imparting of this large humanising spirit. Trained teachers stand, therefore, on a higher plane—they are prepared for many things that would otherwise be harassing. The humane, child-loving atmosphere of the normal school gives fuller meaning to the phrase "the personality of the teacher." President Garfield said of Professor Mark Hopkins, of Williams College, where Garfield was a student; that he considered it a liberal education to sit at one end of a log with Mark Hopkins at the other end. *A fortiori*, for a child of impressionable age to spend day after day and week after week with a teacher trained in the understanding of and sympathy with children, and herself anxious to help them in every way, is a liberal beginning of a right education. One of the Worcester principals tells his teachers not to mind during the first week of the school year whether or not they teach any geography or arithmetic; the main thing is to get the pupils into a right spirit. An earnest sixth-grade teacher came to him one day; she thought she had failed. He said to her: "Live right down with your children; pour into them what you have in your own soul. If one is troublesome, fill him with your feeling about his wrong, and let him realise that you want not to scold him, but to make a better boy of him." The plan succeeded to such a degree that one morning, hearing the principal pass along the corridor, she came out from her class, unable to keep back her feelings any longer, and, with a full heart, thanked him for his counsel. That teacher can now leave her class for fifteen or thirty minutes at a time, and know that the children are working conscientiously in her absence. If a boy comes into this principal's office expecting to get a thrashing, and instead finds a hand kindly laid upon his shoulder, his face soon begins to quiver and the tear stands on his cheek. "You can melt the toughest boy you ever saw." "You ought to be able to

thrash a boy so that he lifts his hat to you the next time he sees you; if he passes sullenly, it means that you have failed to discipline him. In other words, there is all the difference in the world between the machinery of discipline and discipline itself." The difference lies in the one who handles the machinery.

Professor Dewey said to the writer that it was one of the aims of his school to have such conditions that the moral personality of the teacher should come into full play, which is not possible where there is a formal relationship between teacher and pupils.

Nowhere perhaps does a better school spirit prevail than in Peoria, Illinois. There the superintendent does not desire set lessons of which the keynote shall be: "Now I am going to give religion for the next fifteen minutes"; he believes rather that everything depends on the atmosphere of the school; that is to say, "in the American school everything depends on the teacher who creates the atmosphere." Twice, and in different cities, the phrase was used in conversation, speaking of the remarkable influence which some teachers have, that it was a "perfect benediction" to the children to go into their rooms. And, again,— "Mr. — is a rugged man, his sense of honour is his only strength all the boys there become devoted to truth."

One of the Peoria schools had a large pleasant room set apart as a teachers' parlour, where the teachers might meet before the opening of school. "There is almost always a cheerful soul amongst them," said the headmaster, "and this brief meeting gives tone and brightness to the teachers as they go into their classes; I think all the money spent on this room brings in a good return." Unfortunately, this state of things is by no means universal. One city, especially, was visited where the teachers were suffering, and that means that the school life was suffering, from overstrain. The schools had attained a high reputation, and an almost feverish pace had been set. There teachers were found busily at work in school at eight o'clock preparing the blackboard lessons for the day. One said she was late, as she had not got there much before a quarter to eight that morning, and was in great haste in order to be in readiness before the opening of school at nine o'clock. The principal comes four miles, and is at the school every morning at seven; and if a teacher happens to be later than 8.30, she loses a quarter of a day's salary. This contrasts with the cheery moments at Peoria, and there are other elements in the organisation which help to accentuate the evil. As the influence of the personality of the teacher is in question it is in place to mention it here. A number of excellent, but over-earnest because unduly burdened, ladies act not only as principals of buildings, but each as supervising principal of some half-dozen other buildings which she visits periodically. When pioneered by these supervisors, the writer saw and learnt comparatively little save from these really able women themselves, excepting the amount of strain and excitement which certain kinds of organisation can produce. On the morrow two or three schools were visited which were simply in the charge of the nominal principals—nominal in the sense that the principal had to teach

a class for the whole of the day; and a really admirable school-spirit was observed. True, there had been a change of superintendents, and the schools of the city referred to had leaped into sudden fame at the moment that their accustomed steersman was to leave them. It is equally true that some staunch and able educators remain. Over-strain and over-zeal were the defects, but how enormously they may subtract from the free play of a teacher's personality. One was almost driven to conclude; Happy is the city which has no reputation! And also to feel that—not in this one city alone—there is need for a chivalry (which would not be lacking if the need were seen), impelling those finally responsible for the city schools to stand for the protection of over-willing and over-wrought women teachers. "The teachers do not complain, that is, if they are of the right kind of material," said one eminent woman educator, "they simply wear out." One's entire sympathy is aroused by conditions which threaten, in a measure, to thwart nature's greatest gift to a city's schools—the freshness, the buoyancy of spirit, and the outflowing personality of its teachers.

To summarise briefly the points referred to in this section:—What is essential, as all those whose words have been quoted would admit, is, of course, that there should be a rock-like moral earnestness behind all these milder measures. A democratic ethics will steer somewhere midway between the doctrine of total depravity and Rousseau's theory of inborn goodness. Yet the liberties of children, especially in a free interplay of personality between a strong teacher and the pupils, are not so much to be feared as their repression. The strength of a teacher's character is measured by the number of free beings whom he or she can permit to enjoy the fullest freedom without danger of its becoming licence; and sympathy with the good counts for far more in the make-up of such a character than mere force to antagonise evil. In this sense, it is "the personality of the teacher" that must always count for most in the moral development of the child during school years.

A single word as to one or two of the results which accrue from the new spirit of discipline, several phases of which have now been traced. It enters into the school life, and creates the moral atmosphere in which the children live. Most observers, and especially teachers themselves, say that there has been an improvement in the pupils as a result. Politeness, helpfulness towards little ones, a feeling of interest instead of antagonism with regard to the school, are some of the lines along which improvement has been manifested. From the same cause one quite unforeseen effect has sprung. The better relationship between teacher and pupils has reacted upon the home feeling and upon the attitude of parents not only towards the school, but towards the teachers and principals. Greater security of tenure arises from this greater friendliness; for no principal can live and teach long in a school without creating a kindly feeling in the minds of some of the parents, whereas in days of sterner disci-



pline he often created enmity; and from these parents there comes an outcry if any effort is made to displace him.

On the whole, American schools are doing very much to avoid the imputation of educating the intellect and not the heart, especially in the first five or six years of school life. In many places, however, through too little being done in the seventh and eighth years to stimulate intellectual grasp and growth, moral training is jeopardised in its turn. In the high schools, with important exceptions as has been seen, the tendency still is somewhat towards the cultivation of the intellect pure and simple, and there is generally an awkward gap between high school and grammar grade studies, which causes intellectual effort to predominate unduly, and tends to a feeling of stress and discouragement.

For the moment there may seem to be comparatively little provision made for the cultivation of the virtue of modesty. An excessive self-expression and self-activity may seem to leave but small space for the growth of reverence. Many freely admit this. Yet, on the other hand, there are elements in American school education and there is a passionate earnestness in the minds of many educators which give hope and promise of a larger and even a religious spirit which shall permeate, as it alone can unify and interpret, the whole. In any case, the matter is in the balance: and the chances are at least equal that the higher spirit shall prevail. What this means to the directors of training colleges in preparing those who are to teach, to superintendents and supervisors who are trainers of acting teachers, to the leaders of educational thought, whether in the university or in the press, needs no saying. But judging from the appearances of the moment, education is the one thing upon which the American nation is resolutely set, and upon the furtherance of which the heart of the people is practically undivided.

## CHAPTER X.

### DIRECT MORAL TEACHING IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

In one of his ordinary lectures to his students, Dr. N. M. Butler spoke of three aspects of instruction, as a moral influence, *i.e.*, as effecting the formal education of the will; (1) instruction which is so specific and so commanding as to vary but a hair's breadth from discipline; (2) character-building instruction not directly ethical in content; (3) formal, didactic moral instruction; adding that every now and again there was a demand for more teaching of morals in schools of the formal, didactic, specific kind, than which, in his judgment, there was no greater waste of time in schools; because this sort of instruction, if anything is to be made of it, involves a prepared habit of mind, which is beyond the capacity of children still at school; dealing with distinctions, many of which are still in dispute amongst

thinkers; whereas, whatever be the moral sanction, religious, social, or ethical, the course of conduct required remains the same.

The experience of the Ethical Culture School stands sponsor for the fact that direct ethical teaching *can* be given without trenching in any marked degree upon speculative philosophy; but the work there is in the hands of a man who knows his philosophy, is expert in the practical side of ethical study, and is a first-rate teacher. Dr. Butler's belief, and it is the one commonly accepted amongst American educators, is that it is the second type of moral instruction—character-building instruction *not* directly ethical in content—which makes the most forcible and lasting appeal to the child.

Dr. Wilde, now of the University of Minnesota, summed up the present situation in a lecture delivered at Columbia in 1898, for the contents of which the writer is indebted to one of the graduate students at Teachers College. The affirmative arguments (*i.e.*, in favour of teaching ethics in schools) are mainly:—(1) The supreme importance of morality for the preservation of the State; (2) The apparent decline in authority and importance of the Church; (3) The apparent decline in home training, and the fact that the child's life centres round the school, and that he should be trained in the world in which he principally lives; (4) The close relation between moral instruction and intellectual advance, the latter depending on the cultivation of self-denial, control, attention, &c.; and (5) That all theory tends to influence practice. The negative position was said to be adopted in the first place by professors of ethics, who started from the more philosophical conception of their subject as conscious reflection upon the principles of right conduct for the purpose of determining their nature and validity. Morality, say these, is a system of action and feeling, ethics is a system of reflection; morality is unconscious, ethics is self-conscious; from these antitheses the question arises whether the conditions of the one are really the conditions of the other.

In holding the balance between these two extremes, the lecturer noted, on the one hand, a danger of indifference and also the need that practice should be based on knowledge; and on the other hand, the danger of cultivating morbidness so that whilst debating motives the time for action goes by.

The present position was further explained in the course of conversation by Dr. Russell, Dean of Teachers College, who said it was unquestionably true that public school education had formerly laid great stress on intellectual development and had proceeded on the idea that knowledge is power; that if the children know certain things they will perforce become good citizens. This is thought to account to some extent for a movement supplementary, if not, indeed, contrary, to the general public school movement, which is thoroughly American. In New York City and State this is embodied in the special preparatory or private schools (which, however, also represent a certain degree of social cleavage). These schools, said Dr. Russell, were commenced partly as a protest against the too intellectual character of the education given in the public schools.

In other States there are schools representing outright the religious idea; some States have as many as 50; Ohio has 70; these are generally attached to one or other of the religious denominations. These sectarian efforts have to some extent put the public schools on the defensive. It may be, Dr. Russell admitted, that the public schools ought to have been a little less self-conscious in their attitude towards moral teaching. Now, at any rate there is a marked tendency to place the moral aim in the foreground, partly from the cause just given, but far more owing to the modern study of education, and to the "new education," as it is found in America, of which purely intellectual training is not the be-all and end-all.

The aesthetic and moral phases of education, and even the religious, which the law forbids in any dogmatic sense in the public schools, are accorded a place; directly and indirectly a great deal of earnest effort is being exerted by way of arriving at these ends, especially through the personality of the teacher and the content of the studies. The object of the present chapter is to show the existing practice and feeling with regard to direct moral instruction in the schools.

American opinion is not as a rule in favour of direct moral or religious teaching in the public schools, though to this there are some important exceptions. Indeed, several observers of school life and work think there are signs of a movement towards an extension of direct ethical teaching. Some such feeling there certainly is, and several witnesses might be quoted. Dr. McAlister, President of the Drexel Institute, Philadelphia, and formerly superintendent of schools in the same city, expressed the belief that much good is to be done by instilling moral ideas into the minds of children. He had even had serious thoughts of translating and adapting one of the French text-books on morals for schools.\* The present superintendent, Dr. McAlister's successor, has within the last year drawn up a full course of instruction in civics, including morals and manners. Amongst the replies to a circular letter sent out to several superintendents of cities which it was not possible to visit, the following were received:—

(From Mr. L. H. Mark, Superintendent of Louisville, Kentucky.)

Lessons are given in civics in the upper grades beginning with the Fifth. Direct moral lessons are supposed to be given every day. Teachers of the lower grades are requested to read or hear read each day something from which some lesson in morals can be drawn.

(From Mr. W. F. Slaton, Superintendent of Atlanta, Georgia.)

Throughout the year instruction is given in reverence for God, love of country, citizenship, honour, obedience, truthfulness,

\* Under the general title "How to Teach Morals in Schools," there is now an American series of such text books by writers of eminence: "Duty; a Book for Schools"; "Ethics for Young People"; "A Primer of Ethics." (Ginn & Co., Boston.)

politeness, and courage. These are taught, not from the printed page, but by the development in the pupil of the idea that good citizenship depends upon a knowledge of these things and the incorporation of them into his life.

(From Mr. Amos Hiatt, Superintendent of East Des Moines Iowa.)

The moral aim is distinctly kept in view. The daily programme provides for moral instruction. In the course of study is laid down a course in moral training. Teachers are expected to look after the moral development of the pupils as well as the mental and physical.

The superintendents of Wallingford, Connecticut, of Niagara Falls, and others print outlines of courses in manners and morals. That of Brooklyn is a convenient summary of such courses:

In all grades, teachers should embrace every convenient opportunity to instruct their pupils in morals and manners. The following list of topics will supply bases for many interesting talks:—

Duty to parents, to brothers and sisters, to playmates, to the aged, to the poor and unfortunate, to the ignorant and stupid, to strangers and foreigners, to the public, to one's country.

Home manners, table manners, school manners, street manners, manners in public assemblies and in public conveyances.

Industry, punctuality, order, economy, honesty, truthfulness, cleanliness, self-respect.

Other topics will be suggested to the thoughtful teacher by occurrences that come under her observation in the school room and elsewhere.

Then, there is the well-known Massachusetts State law, which provides that:—

“It shall be the duty of all instructors of youth to exert their best endeavours to impress on the minds of children and youth, committed to their care and instruction, the principles of piety and justice, and a sacred regard to truth; love of their country, humanity, and universal benevolence; sobriety, industry, and frugality; chastity, moderation, and temperance; and those other virtues which are the ornament of human society, and the basis upon which a republican constitution is founded; and it shall be the duty of such instructors to endeavour to lead their pupils, as their ages and capacities will admit, into a clear understanding of the tendency of the above-mentioned virtues, to preserve and perfect a republican constitution, and secure the blessings of liberty, as well as to promote their future happiness, and also to point out to them the evil tendency of the opposite vices.”

Nearly all courses of study provide for the teaching of temperance from a physiological standpoint; though there is

considerable complaint as to the crude way in which most of the text-books treat of the subject. Eighth-grade boys in a good school were heard reading from such a text-book, about the hurtfulness of alcohol and tobacco. They had probably become hardened to it, but most boys of the same age would have found difficulty in going through the lesson with gravity. Alcohol was crudely designated as a poison, and as to tobacco, such sentences as this:—"Sometimes after long smoking there is a sudden sensation of dizziness," &c., &c. One felt, whilst listening to this lesson in teetotal physiology—good enough in aim, but as bad as need be in method—that a silent plea was travelling from the teacher of the grade to visitor and principal who stood listening—"pity my simplicity." It may be that the writer was unfortunate in the lesson which he overheard; but, as it stood, it gave point to protests which he met with in more than one American educational magazine against dealing with a quasi-ethical subject in so crude and ill-considered a fashion.

Taking up more particularly some of the ways in which direct moral teaching is given in American schools, it will be seen that some of them will come under Dr. Butler's first heading, others, though not formal and didactic in spirit, under his third. By way of general remark, Mr. Frank Hill's description of the moral teaching given in Massachusetts, where he is State Secretary of the Board of Education, may be taken as applying in nearly all cases. "Morals are not taught on any formal basis; no attempt is made to formulate a set of foundation principles; it is taken for granted that they exist."

With the exception of the part-scientific, part-moralising teaching of temperance under the name of physiology, it is very uncommon to find anything upon the time-table under the name of character lessons or lessons on morals. The direct moral teaching is: (a) in connection with the formation of some good habit, such as cleanliness or kindness; (b) taken up as part of the opening exercises for the first five, ten, or fifteen minutes of morning school; or (c) associated with class mottoes, or with selected quotations written upon the blackboard.

(a) As to the virtues of cleanliness and kindness. The duty of cleanliness is naturally insisted on, and as a result the schoolrooms are uniformly pleasant to enter. At Minneapolis, *e.g.*, the "health lessons" (physiology) aim, above all, at teaching such simple laws of practical hygiene as will, early in life, lead to the formation of habits of cleanliness, neatness, honesty and sobriety, and will promote a healthy, happy and useful life. One Cleveland teacher always has a looking-glass, a bowl of water, soap and towel in one corner of her class-room behind a screen. The school is in a poor district, and the children are often allowed to come to school quite dirty. An interesting exhibit to be seen on the walls in certain class-rooms of this school, not for show, however, but for use, consisted of a brush and dust-pan, and one or two similar "utility articles," as they were called. The children are taught that the schoolroom is their home during the day, and that they should take pride in keeping it

clean. If paper or clippings are scattered they often run up of their own accord, the presence of the "utility articles" in this way prompting them to tidiness. From being careless, the children are said to grow very critical, especially of each other. This was a school in which every class, after an entertainment had been given to provide pictures for the rooms, wanted the picture of the boy Christ, from Hofmann's impressive painting, "Christ before the Doctors."

Another Cleveland school was visited, which had a branch of the "Kind Deeds Society," modelled upon the Countess of Meath's "Ministering Children's League"; and every Friday a lesson period is set apart for the purpose of talking over the kind deeds which the children have seen others do during the week (not their own). The spirit of the Kind Deeds Society has branched out in various directions. So much is done for children in America that it is felt especially necessary to get them to do something for others. When a class is practically a section of this Society, the teacher is able to find opportunities of cultivating the helpful spirit by the accounts she herself gives of good deeds observed within the week, containing ethical and even spiritual suggestions. Societies for the protection of birds have branches in the schools of Minneapolis, Indianapolis, Cincinnati, and other places. Every spring and autumn there is in Indianapolis a "Bird-day" to celebrate the coming and going of the birds, the rooms being adorned with paintings of birds, many of them done by the children. At Cincinnati, special lecturers visit the schools to speak about birds and bird-life. Another habit which schools in America seek quite generally to inculcate is that of striving not for mastery, but for excellence. With all America's fondness for a badge in the button-hole, individual prizes, medals, badges are seldom heard of, excepting as they betoken membership of a society, or the collective achievement of a grade or school. The feeling of competition is discouraged, and that of co-operation encouraged in its place.

(b) The opening exercises at the commencement of morning school are, as a rule, made a direct means of moral teaching. The time occupied in this way varies from five to twenty minutes, and the purpose of the exercises is, in part, to effect a natural and easy transition from the home to the school, by a few minutes of intercourse between scholars and teacher other than that of the ordinary lessons. The character of the exercises varies. One may meet with a somewhat commonplace continuation of the playground spirit, as the singing of "I'm a beautiful red, red drum," of which the predominant sentiment is

"When the soldiers marching come  
The Injuns had better scat."

Anything like this is rare, however. Some schools start with singing, and pass on to current topics, which are talked over for five or six minutes—congressional news relating to the work the class is doing in history, or some newspaper reference bearing

upon the literature; or if the first regular lesson is a science subject, the time may be given to an open talk leading up to it the children generally taking the lead.

In the junior grades of such schools a song may be made to suffice, with or without, but only rarely without, some talk bearing upon the life surrounding the children, such as the posting and carrying of letters, the ice wagon, flowers, and animals. Occasionally part of the arrangements, say for two mornings in the week, is left in the hands of a small committee selected from the class, which has charge of the programme for one or two weeks. At other times the teacher takes the opportunity of quickening the progress of the class in any of the ordinary subjects by reading or conversation. The matter is evidently left very much to the choice and discretion of the individual teacher; but the school spirit of the city as a whole will have much to do with what is selected.

In Peoria, where an admirable school spirit prevails, the nature of the morning exercises is left entirely to the individual teachers. The superintendent does not wish anyone to be compelled to read the Bible, with the definite aim and result that when a teacher chooses to read it, it is done in a reverent spirit. The purpose is to open the day brightly and to give a cheerful course to the school work from the outset. But how little this allowed liberty springs from indifference, the results, as well as the superintendent's own words, amply testify. In one-third of the class-rooms there is a song or a poem recited from some standard American or English writer; in another third the school may open with the telling of a Bible-story, and then reading it from the Bible to show the way it stands in the book; and in another third, as the superintendent estimates, part of the morning exercise takes at times the form of silent prayer. The main wish is to inspire a spirit of reverence—which just because it is felt to be lacking in America, every man instinctively wants to see cultivated in his child. The foundation of this must be reality—hence there is no dictation. Let each approach his Maker in his own way, is the superintendent's precept. He does not encourage impromptu prayers from the teachers, but a visiting clergyman of any denomination might be invited to conduct the opening exercises. (Dr. Talmage and Dr. Porter, of Baltimore, each told of this privilege having been freely accorded to them elsewhere). The public schools have no better friend and defender than the Roman Catholic Bishop of Peoria, Bishop Spalding. In this city, therefore, there is a deep and true religious feeling pervading the schools, without any jarring note of sectarian controversy, the secret being that the superintendent desires to see the spirit of reverence acquired by the children, and grants perfect liberty to the teachers as the surest means to that end, and also that in these efforts he is strongly supported by Bishop Spalding's influence. In these schools what is best and highest in man find expression, not by prescription or by so many hours per week recorded in the time-table, but by the sheer force of its own vitality. Silent prayer in the class-room as part of the morning exercises was heard of at

Niagara Falls, where a young Catholic teacher of the fifth grade used to open with singing, and then would ask the children to bow their heads and pray their own prayer; the same thing was heard of also at Dayton and Indianapolis.

At this point, perhaps, though it takes one away for a moment from the schools, an account of morning exercises as witnessed in the Chicago Normal College may help to show the kind of uplift that is being given to the girls and the few young men who are being trained there as teachers. The whole of the teachers in training, between 500 and 600, and the children of the three lower grades, about 120 in number, in age between six and nine, had been out on the preceding day to a large farm in the country. It was a geographical trip in name; though in reality it must have partaken quite as much of the character of a spring excursion. The teachers were to see, so that they might be able to talk to children about the ploughing and planting, and the storing in barns, and so on. In the autumn there was to be a second trip to the same farm to see the results of the planting at harvest time. The morning exercises were made to turn upon the experience of the day before.

The writer heard that morning the finest piece of joyous singing that he had ever listened to. After singing "Holy God, we praise Thy name," the lady who was conducting the exercises said that the first trip into the country in the spring-time appealed more to the ethical and æsthetic nature; and, therefore, she had selected readings not relating to the geography but to the spirit of the experiences of the previous day. She read passages from the Journal of Maurice de Guérin, and the programme was as follows:

Reading: "I have seen the springtime, the spring exuberant, unfettered, free from all restraint, scattering flowers and verdure with wayward fancy, racing like a playful child over hills and dales, unfolding sublime conceptions and graceful fancies, merging similarities, harmonising contrasts, after the manner of great artists, or, rather, as a type for them. Again have I trodden all those paths where, as a child, my rapid footsteps flitted with all the carelessness of youth. To-day I have trodden them with a firmer step; I have lingered upon the traces of my early footprints. I have started anew on my pilgrimage with thoughtfulness and devotion—with the thoughtfulness inspired by old memories, and with the devotion aroused in the soul by its first impressions of nature.

"Every time that we allow ourselves to be penetrated by nature our soul is opened to the most touching impressions. Whether Nature smiles and adorns herself on her most beautiful days, or whether she becomes pale, gray, cold, and rainy in autumn and in winter, there is something in her which moves not only the surface of the soul, but even its inmost depths, and awakens a thousand memories which to all appearance have no connection with the outward scene, but which doubtless hold communion with the soul of Nature through sympathies unknown to us.



"It has just been raining. Nature is fresh and radiant; the earth seems to taste with rapture the water which brings it life. One would say that the throats of the birds had been refreshed by this rain; their song is purer, more vivacious, more brilliant, and vibrates wonderfully in the air, which has become more sonorous and resounding. The nightingales, the bullfinches, the black-birds, the thrushes, the golden orioles, the finches, the wrens—all these sing and rejoice.

"Would that we could identify ourselves with spring, that we could go so far as to believe that in ourselves breathe all the life and all the love that ferment in Nature, that we could feel ourselves to be at the same time flower, verdure, bird, song, freshness, elasticity, rapture, serenity! What, then, should I become? There are moments when, by dint of concentrating ourselves upon this idea and gazing fixedly on Nature, we fancy that we experience something like this."

(*Music.*)

"I'VE BEEN ROAMING.

"I've been roaming, I've been roaming,  
Where the meadow dew is sweet,  
And I'm coming, and I'm coming,  
With its pearls upon my feet."

Then followed a reading by one of the students, "Out to Old Aunt Mary's," describing the long-remembered country walk of childhood's early days, "our cares behind and our hearts ahead."

By another student:—

On our way to the farm one of the first things that attracted our attention after leaving the smoke and dust of the city behind us was the clusters of dandelions forming a golden border along the wayside. Lowell was also impressed with the beauty of this so-called "common flower," as is shown in his poem—

TO A DANDELION.

Dear common flower that grow'st beside the way,  
Fringing the dusty road with harmless gold,  
First pledge of blithesome May,  
Which children pluck, and, full of pride, uphold,  
High-hearted buccaneers, o'erjoyed that they  
An Eldorado in the grass have found,  
Which not the rich earth's ample round  
May match in wealth—thou art more dear to me  
Than all the prouder summer blooms may be.

My childhood's earliest thoughts are linked with thee;  
The sight of thee calls back the robin's song,  
Who, from the dark old tree  
Beside the door, sang clearly all day long,  
And I, secure in childish piety,  
Listened as if I heard an angel sing  
With news from heaven, which he could bring  
Fresh every day to my untainted ears,  
When birds and flowers and I were happy peers.

(Music)

SPRING GREETING.

A joyous welcome now we bring,  
Gentle, gentle spring-time;  
Till hill and dale and valley ring,  
Gentle, gentle spring-time.  
Forest, dell and field among  
Ev'rywhere we'll greet thee with a song,  
A merry song.

In glowing beauty all is seen,  
Gentle, gentle spring time;  
All gaily clad in robes of green  
Gentle, gentle spring-time;  
Violets blossom everywhere  
All the world is full of blossom rare,  
Of blossom rare.

We bid thee welcome with a song,  
Gentle, gentle spring-time;  
In our green meadows tarry long,  
Gentle, gentle spring-time.  
May each humble, trusting heart  
In the blessed spring-time have a part,  
Each have a part.

One or two pieces in a lighter vein were interspersed: "The Boy lives on our Farm," and "A Summer's Day," by J. W. Riley. It was a model "morning exercise," and entered into by some six hundred students preparing to be teachers, it pointed to one of the ways in which moral education of a stimulating kind will find an entrance into American schools.

An interesting morning talk upon a nature topic was heard at Minneapolis. After the teacher's greeting, "Good morning, children." "Good morning, Miss —"; and a patriotic song followed by the pledge, "I pledge allegiance to my flag and the republic for which it stands; one nation, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all"; a very informal conversation was started about birds. [It may be known that Minnesota is one of the centres of the bird-protection movement.] "How many of you have seen a new bird since Friday?" the teacher asked. One and another responded, describing the birds they had seen, what habits or peculiar actions they had noticed in them, and naming them when they were able to do so. When not able, the teacher helped them without pretending to know the names of all, indeed, when not sure herself, referring to one boy, who was evidently the naturalist of the class. As some birds remained unidentified, the teacher promised to bring her key to the birds of the district, which this boy might consult for the benefit of the class if he got his work done early. The talk occupied less than 20 minutes, and at its close the two sections of the class turned to their work, one section studying a history lesson, the other working problems in arithmetic with the teacher. There was no ringing a bell, or calling for attention, but a quiet and intelligent settling down to work. In a Peoria

school, in which there was no place on the time-table for nature-work with the seventh and eighth grades, the first ten minutes of each day were taken for the purpose, and the arrangement was felt to be a success.

In other cases the morning talks are of an ethical character. Readings by the teacher, or by children after submitting them to the teacher, or stories having a lesson, lead up to a conversation on simple duties which may be illustrated by street or playground incidents of which the children tell and give their opinion. Such talks are sometimes introduced by a hymn or song, or by the repetition of the Lord's Prayer. The story read or told is sometimes made to bear upon some point of discipline that had come up on the previous day. At other times the period is thrown open to the children to bring any questions they may have to ask. In most schools, on one day in the week, the patriotic pledge is taken and appropriate selections chosen. One of the quaintest forms of morning exercise with a moral reference is being at the present time urged by a gentleman who himself conducts it. It is an illustration (by means of a magic lantern) of the evils of fighting, intended, of course, to create an aversion to it. Morals and manners form a sort of stock subject for the morning talks; and in spite of the strictness with which sectarianism is everywhere forbidden, a religious spirit and religious exercises which are absolutely unsectarian frequently find a place at the opening of school. The principal of the School No. 2 at Indianapolis, spoke of the entire freedom which the teachers of that city enjoy with regard to the form the morning exercise shall take; a sort of guiding principle is to select something which shall be a thread of thought throughout the day. She dreaded hackneying holy things, and most people's scripture without comment she thought unsatisfactory, yet felt the need for maintaining the religious spirit in the schools; reverting to the view that the teacher is the real influence and that, though the children could not explain why, there were teachers whom they felt it to be a benediction to be with. Another Indianapolis teacher spoke of the need she felt of beginning the day with the highest thought, engaging the spiritual nature of the children at the outset, adding, "the teacher's own aspiration needs sometimes to become vocal." At the Horace Mann School for Deaf Mutes, Boston—the city where Laura Bridgman and Helen Keller were not only trained intellectually, but enabled to evince deep ethical and spiritual insight—the teachers seek in every way to take the children out of themselves by opening with a hymn of thankfulness, and commencing the day with something which they can do for others; each child is expected to tell some little thing each morning. The two ways that are found effectual in reaching them morally and spiritually are by doing or making things, which leads them to think of a maker of flowers, trees and sun, the idea of God, as in Helen Keller's case, seeming to be almost instinctive; and through their affection for parents and companions, leading up not only to the thought of the love of God, but to acts of helpfulness towards

others. The interest which children take in the more serious forms of the opening exercise was testified to by the principal of one of the schools at Yonkers, N.Y. There the ordinary morning exercise consists of a hymn and the Lord's Prayer, excepting that the Lord's Prayer is not repeated below the third grade. Once a week the grammar grades (the four upper classes) have chapel exercises together. They sing a morning hymn, repeat the Lord's Prayer, and then take up some ethical or religious thought as their topic, or as an alternative a literary selection. "The children think as much of the assembly as most church people do of dressing up and going to church." The day before the writer's visit the exercises had had to be postponed, and all day long the children had been asking when they were to be taken. No one is forced to take part, and the only understanding is that those taking part are not to be interrupted. One noteworthy fact which was referred to more than once is the children's liking for Bible stories which some teachers tell at the opening of school.

Loyalty to the school is encouraged, where the school buildings permit of it, by collective assemblies of a number of grades for the morning exercises. In Philadelphia this is made a matter of school organisation. Most of the schools are so arranged that, as also in the newer New York schools, each floor may have its own assembly, sliding partitions afterwards separating class from class. The principal of the Roxburgh School, a building having two floors, met her whole school every morning, realising that the surest way of getting a high moral tone is through the school-spirit. It is generally found in this city that the schools which have the larger assemblies have the best discipline; when this is combined with a healthy playground and playing-field life, a full-toned *esprit de corps* springs up spontaneously; this happens, even though, as one Philadelphia principal said, the boys were beaten nearly every time they turned out for a match.

Good results from the "floor assemblies" were also heard of at No. 5 School, New York, and at the Horace Greeley School, Chicago. The latter has a hall meeting twice a week of the three upper grades, each consisting of two classes; one teacher and her class will take the programme for the week, the teacher arranging for the Tuesday meeting, and the class for that of Thursday morning. The scope of the programmes is literary and ethical. The high school assemblies at St. Paul have been mentioned; the Englewood High School at Chicago has similar gatherings which form a centre around which the other school organisations rally. At Washington, where possible, the whole of the classes of the high schools, and where not possible the upper classes and lowest class separately, assemble for the morning exercises. There is Scripture reading and singing from the hymnal, the songs being largely religious; even the Agnostics do not fight against, "Onward, Christian Soldiers," which is the boys' favourite. The principal of the Hughes High School at Cincinnati meets all the pupils once a week, one-half on one day, the other half

on another; and, after singing, the talk always turns upon something of an ethical nature.

In May, 1896, the Chicago Woman's Educational Union requested its president to prepare a statistical and historical report concerning Bible reading in the public schools of the United States. From this report a few typical instances are selected:—

MAINE.

The opening exercises in most of the common schools of this State consist of reading a passage of Scripture by the teacher and repeating the Lord's Prayer by the teacher and pupils. The superintendent says, "This custom is so general that I think it is unnecessary to attempt to collect any statistics upon this matter in this State."

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

*School Law, Section 18.*—The morning exercises of all the schools shall commence with the reading of the Scriptures, followed by the Lord's Prayer.

MASSACHUSETTS.

The State law upon this subject is as follows:

SEC. 32. The school committee shall require the daily reading in the public schools of some portion of the Bible without written note or oral comment, but they shall not require a scholar whose parent or guardian informs the teacher in writing that he has conscientious scruples against it to read from any particular version, or to take any personal part in the reading; nor shall they direct to be purchased or used in the public schools school-books calculated to favour the tenets of any particular sect of Christians.

RULE FOR BIBLE READING IN SCHOOLS IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

SEC. 134. All the schools of this city under the jurisdiction of the board of education shall be opened with reading a portion of the Holy Scriptures, without note or comment.

The rule for Brooklyn, which has been observed with no record to the contrary since her schools were established, is as follows:

*Part III., Section 5.*—(At the opening of school.) A portion of the Holy Scriptures shall be read aloud by one of the teachers in each department, without note or comment.

PENNSYLVANIA.

The Book of School Laws and Decisions for the State of Pennsylvania contains the following decisions, page 146, Nos. 114 and 115:

114. The Scriptures come under the head of text-books, and they should not be omitted from the list.

115. Sectarian works and all books of controversial or immoral tendency should be excluded. The common school is no place for controversy or the implanting of the habit of it, either on religious or political subjects, much less for books or lectures of questionable morality.

In the report of the superintendent of the State for the school year ending June 3, 1895, the total number of schools in the State is 18,019. The number in which the Bible is read is 15,780, or more than 87½ per cent.

RICHMOND, VIRGINIA.

The State superintendent of public instruction, Richmond, Va., writes that he believes the Bible to be read in nearly all the Virginia schools; that this has been the custom since their organization.

Richmond reports the Bible as read in all her schools since their establishment.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

The State superintendent of schools, Columbia, S. C., writes:

There is no law for or against reading from the Bible in our schools. Such teachers as desire to do so read from it as they may choose.

GEORGIA.

The State school commissioner, Atlanta, Ga., writes:

Under our public school laws the Bible cannot be excluded from our schools. The teacher is left to use the Bible as she may see fit. I am glad to say that a great many of our teachers open the school with some sort of religious exercises, sometimes reading from the Bible.

UTAH.

The State superintendent of public instruction, Salt Lake City, Utah, writes:

While morality is taught and inculcated in all of the public schools of this State, the Bible is not read in any of them. The belief seems to be quite widespread here that moral teaching in the public schools should be wholly non-sectarian, and many believe it to be impossible to introduce the Bible into the schools without at the same time removing one of the strongest safeguards against sectarianism.

## GENERAL SUMMARY.

SUPERINTENDENTS OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS REPORTING IN THE SUMMER OF 1896 BIBLE READING IN ALL, IN PART, OR IN NONE OF THEIR SCHOOLS.

	Superintendents Reporting Bible-reading.			Total Reports Received.
	In all their Schools.	In part of their Schools.	In none of their Schools.	
<b>North Atlantic Division—</b>				
Maine . . . . .	14	1	—	15
New Hampshire . . . . .	15	1	—	16
Vermont . . . . .	2	2	—	4
Massachusetts . . . . .	100	—	—	100
Rhode Island . . . . .	6	5	—	11
Connecticut . . . . .	8	1	—	9
New York . . . . .	53	16	14	83
New Jersey . . . . .	21	1	—	22
Pennsylvania . . . . .	41	5	4	50
<b>South Atlantic Division—</b>				
Delaware . . . . .	1	—	—	1
Maryland . . . . .	2	—	1	3
District of Columbia . . . . .	1	—	—	1
Virginia . . . . .	4	4	—	8
West Virginia . . . . .	6	4	2	12
North Carolina . . . . .	6	1	—	7
South Carolina . . . . .	10	2	1	14
Georgia . . . . .	6	5	—	11
Florida . . . . .	1	2	—	4
<b>South Central Division—</b>				
Kentucky . . . . .	9	6	2	17
Tennessee . . . . .	1	1	—	2
Alabama . . . . .	2	1	1	5
Mississippi . . . . .	—	1	1	2
Louisiana . . . . .	—	—	1	1

	Superintendents Reporting Bible-reading.			Total Reports Received.
	In all their Schools.	In part of their Schools.	In none of their Schools.	
Texas . . . . .	2	2	4	8
Arkansas . . . . .	—	3	—	3
North Central Division—				
Ohio . . . . .	33	15	5	53
Indiana . . . . .	15	10	3	28
Illinois . . . . .	27	33	11	71
Michigan . . . . .	18	96	11	125
Wisconsin . . . . .	—	—	53	53
Minnesota . . . . .	—	1	2	3
Iowa . . . . .	8	11	1	20
Missouri . . . . .	1	1	—	2
North Dakota . . . . .	1	1	—	2
South Dakota . . . . .	5	8	—	13
Nebraska . . . . .	13	12	5	30
Kansas . . . . .	17	12	5	34
Western Division—				
Montana . . . . .	—	1	1	
Wyoming . . . . .	1	3	4	8
Colorado . . . . .	3	12	9	24
Utah . . . . .	—	—	8	8
Nevada . . . . .	—	—	2	2
Idaho . . . . .	—	—	8	8
Washington . . . . .	—	—	15	15
Oregon . . . . .	—	6	4	10
California . . . . .	—	7	19	26
Total United States . . . . .	454	295	197	946

At Toronto, where a book of selections from the Bible has been adopted by the decision of the Government of Ontario, the pupils often read from it at the morning exercises, and usually the International Sunday School lessons are taken up, the super-



intendent believing that the Sunday School lesson is often ineffective through insufficient assimilation of the text. Many take the verse for the week and repeat it every morning. During Mr. Hughes' superintendency of twenty-six years only two have ever asked to have their children excused under the conscience clause. One was a pronounced sceptic; the other a devout Scotsman who "didna' wush his boy to carra the word of God in his bag with other books." The latter was satisfied when told that his boy might leave the book at school. In this city it is a requisition that the Ten Commandments shall be repeated on the first Monday of each month. Some admirable examples of opening exercises were witnessed here. (a) The opening hymn was chosen by one of the children, "All things bright and beautiful." Then followed a simple talk about God as the Maker of all; and that Jesus when He taught used to take the things of the earth to speak about—the lilies and the birds. "God is Love" is the voice of the trees and the stars. The children closed their eyes and said, "God of Heaven, help Thy little children to love and serve Thee through this happy day. Help us to be kindly, help us to be truthful, that we may please Thee in all we do and say." It was May 2nd, and the "story" \* for the day was, "To-day is Wednesday, May 2nd, 1900." The children then sang a little song greeting the sunshine, "Good morning, merry sunshine;" and another, "What is this the flowers say?" After a quotation referring to the month of May, the teacher, said, "Now, I think we ought to think of our soldiers, and a stirring piece was said by the class in unison having the refrain—

"When round the Union Jack they stood,  
Young Canada was there."

(b) In another class, also of quite young children, the keynote was struck by the question, "Have we anything to be thankful for this morning?" After the children had talked with the teacher a little while and had sung a hymn, at a word from her they bowed their heads and said a verse of which these were two of the lines, "Father, we thank Thee, we thank Thee. . . . For Thy blessings everywhere, we thank Thee;" followed by the Lord's Prayer. References to the Bible were made a substitute for Bible-reading, preparing the way for it. The children were asked to pause and think of one thing they were going to try to do that day that was good. "Have you decided on something?" the teacher said to one by name. "I do not want you to tell me, I want you to try." Then the teacher took up a nature-thought. Amongst the beautiful things with bright faces God sends us are the flowers, and on the board the lines were written, but the words not underlined—

\* Single sentences or statements are often spoken of in the junior classes of American (and, judging from this instance, also of Canadian) schools as the child's "story"; the purpose evidently being to bring out the idea of telling something, and also to avoid the use of a more technical and relatively uninteresting word such as "sentence." It is a case in which even language is strained in the effort to awaken the more immediate and direct interest of the child.

"God does not send us *strange* flowers every year,  
When the spring winds blow o'er the pleasant places,  
The *same dear things* lift up their faces,  
The violet is here."

The children selected the words that ought to be underlined, and the teacher asked concerning the quotation, "What thought does that give you?" concluding with a reference to the aged poet—whose portrait they had been looking at the day before—who, at eighty years of age, greeted the spring with the joyous words, "Life again, leaf again, love again."

(c) Morning exercises are also held at the Toronto Normal College, the triple motive of home, church, and school running throughout.

The Ontario State law, after saying that the Bible is to be read in schools, and providing a conscience clause, continues: The clergy of any denomination, or their authorised representatives, shall have the right to give religious instruction to the pupils of their own church, in each school house, at least once a week, after the hour of closing the school in the afternoon; and if the clergy of more than one denomination apply to give religious instruction in the same school house, the Board of Trustees shall decide on what day of the week the school house shall be at the disposal of the clergymen of each denomination, at the time above stated. But it shall be lawful for the Board of Trustees to allow a clergyman of any denomination, or his authorised representative, to give religious instruction to the pupils of his own church providing it be not during the regular hours of the school. Emblems of a denominational character shall not be exhibited in a public school during regular school hours.

(d) Only one other method of direct moral teaching calls for mention. It is the use made of mottoes and memory gems both by teachers and children. Here again the blackboard (wall slate) is brought into play. It is the common thing to see a motto, frequently illuminated with coloured chalks, or an extract from the prose or poetry read in the class, written up on one part of the blackboard.

An art room may contain a Browning quotation, an ordinary class room a nature piece, a moral sentiment, sometimes a verse of Scripture. There it is before the children, side by side with a picture of the boy Christ or one of the Madonnas, as a sort of reminder by the way, helping to make the class-room, even to its "almighty wall," a home of the child's higher thought. Mottoes are sometimes chosen and written up by the children, and in almost every lower grade each week brings with it a new "memory gem," most likely selected by the teacher from those brought by the pupils, which the whole class learns. In one class-room, belonging to the model and practising school attached to the Oswego Normal College, abstract terms came up as the subject of one day's grammar lesson, and the children suggested that some might be written on the blackboard, and they themselves hunt for definitions and bring them to school. Accordingly, these words were arranged in a vertical column; obedience, politeness,

honesty, truthfulness, attention, neatness, intelligence. And amongst the rules or definitions which members of the class had contributed were "Politeness is kindness kindly expressed," and "Politeness is to do and say The kindest thing in the kindest way." The following are class-room mottoes in upper grades of a New York school:—

7th grade:—"Education of the will develops decision of character"; "Self-effort educates—nothing else does"; "Not what I have, but what I do, is my kingdom." 6th grade:—"Habitually doing what you believe to be right educates conscience"; "Whatever is worth doing at all is worth doing well"; "Trifles make perfection, and perfection is no trifle." 5th grade:—"Doing doubles capability"; "Virtue is the only true nobility"; "The love of truth exalts and ennobles"; "Good words and gentle manners are the highest form of beauty"; "Greater is the man who controls himself than he who gains battles." 4th grade:—"Those can conquer who think they can"; "Doing educates memory"; "Resisting temptation strengthens the will."

In a school at Philadelphia the association of ideas was strengthened in little children by the cutting out of the form of George Washington's hatchet, and writing across it, as part of the writing exercise, "Always speak the truth." These the children were allowed to take home as specimens of their writing. Yet another use made of mottoes is that the children copy them carefully on tinted paper and then illuminate them for framing. They are then taken home as Christmas gifts. Channing's "My Symphony" is used sometimes for this purpose. One lady, who had received it as a gift, made a hundred copies of it to send to friends; so that in many ways the influence of the schools is being made to reach beyond the children. [Some of these ways are detailed in a second report, presented to the Gilchrist Trustees, on "Individuality and the Moral Aim in American Education."] Speaking of Channing's motto, here quoted, *ambition*, one teacher said, is the great man-killer in America; hence the value of getting right ideals in childhood.

#### MY SYMPHONY.

To live content with small means; to seek elegance rather than luxury; and refinement rather than fashion; to be worthy, not respectable; and wealthy, not rich; to study hard, think quietly, talk gently; act frankly; to listen to stars and birds, to babes and sages with open heart; to bear all cheerfully, to do all bravely, await occasions; hurry never; in a word, to let the spiritual, unbidden and unconscious, grow up through the common. This is to be my symphony.

WM. HENRY CHANNING.

Naturally there are some who still say that there is not enough attention given to moral education in the schools. Opinions in this matter will vary with the district or city in which those who express them are placed. As a rule, however,

the teachers, led by the superintendents and other officials of the city boards, are quite as watchful of the interests of the schools in this particular as the most zealous of outsiders. This was curiously exemplified in New York in 1896 when, at a Ministers' Conference on moral training in the public schools, the conclusion was arrived at by the leader of the discussion that there was no such training. A just provision had been made for the presence of one of the associate superintendents of the city, who confined himself to reading from the Teachers' Manual issued by the Board of Education, with running comments.\* As a result, one of the ministers moved that it be resolved that the moral education of the children of the schools might be safely left in the hands of those who had public charge of it, and that those who had the management of Sunday Schools might do worse than receive hints and help from them. The resolution was easily carried.

In one school the writer took an opportunity, in which he was kindly helped by principal and teachers, of collecting from the children a simple statement of what they felt was the greatest help to them in doing right in and out of school. It was when visiting the Sibley School, Cleveland. The answers, of which a few typical ones are quoted, range themselves under three or four headings, the numbers indicating the grade to which the children belonged :—

(a) Religion :

"Our Father in heaven tells us to mind him, so we do. I am going to mind the golden rule, too."—(3, *Boy*.)

"One thing that prompts me to right is, every morning and evening we have the Bible read at home."—(5, *Boy*.)

"My mother and father prompt me to do right. The Bible tells me to do right. My teacher prompts me to do right, and my Sunday school teacher does also. In fact every one does."—(5, *Boy*.)

"I think God inspires us to do right, and I think our parents love us more if we do what we think right."—(7, *Boy*.)

"It is the custom in Sibley School to say the Lord's Prayer and to sing a hymn. I find that if I do both these things sincerely every morning that it prompts me to do right."—(8, *Girl*.)

(b) Religion and literature :

"One of the [things] that prompts me to do right is the Bible. Another is the people around me and the things they do. Some good books prompt me to do right."—(5, *Boy*.)

(c) Religion and nature :

"When I go to church that prompts me to do right, and in school being with nice children, and seeing the habits of some animals prompt me to do right."—(5, *Boy*.)

"I am prompted to do right by the singing birds and obeying."—(5, *Boy*.)

(d) An ethical ideal :

"I want to do right because when I am a man I will be a good and honest one."—(4, *Boy*.)

"We are prompted to do right by kind and good teachers. We are prompted to do right by good and kind parents. Playmates often prompt

\* Extracts from this Manual are quoted in Appendix I.

us to do right. Older brothers and sisters show us right and wrong. Many books show us to do right. Pictures remind us of right and wrong."—(5, *Girl*.)

"I try to do as my mother and father would want me to do, if they were living. I try to do right for the love of right. I try to follow Christ's example."—(5, *Girl*.)

"I do right on impulse, and from a sense of honor."—(5, *Girl*.)

"The reason I try to do right is because I think it is right, and so I may turn out to be just what I expect to. Another reason is, my mother all ways feels bad when I do a thing that is wrong."—(6, *Boy*.)

"The motives which lead me to do right are sympathy and love."—(6, *Girl*.)

"The reason I do right is because if I know what is right and I do it, I know there will be a reward sooner or later; and anyhow, if I do wrong I feel it, and I feel mean and low, when, if I do right I am always happy."—(7, *Girl*.)

"I try to do right because in so doing I can raise myself nearer to my ideal of perfection, and then I will have less to regret."—(7, *Girl*.)

"I try to do right because my conscience tells me to. If I do wrong it seems as if every-body knew it, and if I go along the street it seems as if every-body was looking at me. I try to do right at home because when I think what they have done for me it seems as little as I can do to love and obey them."—(7, *Boy*.)

"I am prompted by a sense of justice to everybody in turn, caused by my conscience."—(8, *Boy*.)

Then there is a little girl of the second grade who perhaps ought to be placed under this heading:—

"Why We Do Right. I will tell you why we come to school and do right. The reason we do right is to please our mamma's, papa's, and teacher, and to pass. We do this so the teacher will not have to scold. It is nice to obey."—(2, *Girl*.)

(e) The aesthetic (ethical) instinct:

"I want to do right because I see some people doing wrong, and I think how bad that looks. I want to do better than that."—(4, *Girl*.)

"Everything seems happy, and it makes us be good and to do right. When other people do right it make me tempted to do right."—(5, *Girl*.)

(f) Utilitarian motives:

"I want to do right because it always makes some body happy and glad, and myself the same."—(4, *Boy*.)

"I try to do right so that I will be promoted in school, and because my mother wants me to be a good and honest man."—(7, *Boy*.)

"My conscience tells me when I do not do right. I want everyone to think well of me, and I do not like to be punished, so I try to make it unnecessary."—(7, *Girl*.)

"One of the strongest things that keeps me from doing wrong is that a wrong doer has few friends. Another is that I want to be a good citizen and a good citizen will not break the laws of his country."—(8, *Boy*.)

"The thing that prompts me to do right in general is my own common sense."—(8, *Boy*.)

"If I am about to do anything that is seldom done by a girl of my age I always ask myself, 'Did I ever do anything like this before?' and if I have, I think over what happened after it, and, if I harmed no one else and lost nothing myself, I do it. Therefore, it is chiefly my memory that persuades me to do right."—(8, *Girl*.)

In the city where these answers were given the same freedom is granted to teachers in the matter of morning exercises, &c., as at Peoria, and with similarly good results. In going through the answers of the different grades the effect of the teacher's personality could also be traced. One set of answers contained

such expressions as "because it is honest," and "not liking to do a thing behind a person's back"; another set referred more especially to motives of sympathy and love.

American education is certainly not planned without a religious motive and reference. Here and there a State may be so much afraid of an undemocratic sectarianism as to forbid the use of the Bible. But the main tendency and spirit is to combine high ethical ideals and spiritual influences, on the one hand, with perfect freedom on the other. Sympathy, thoughtfulness, kindness, and even reverence are sought after, and are more or less incorporated in the school life.

No one can observe the operation of university life upon educational opinion without noticing the striving there is towards a real and vital ethical and spiritual element in education. Harvard, Yale, Columbia, the University of Chicago, and such State universities as those of Michigan and Minnesota, are each in its own way working towards this end. Such influences often give tone to the moral training of the schools.

In the best schools one finds religious art approached from the cultural side; the study of nature, teaching appreciation of nature's beauty and marvel to which the art work and poetry of the class-room are made to contribute; the joy of song rather than its *tonic sol fa* accompaniments—the notes through the song rather than the song through the notes; the use of ethical story and of literature in its own right; all these are presentations of the moral outlook upon life warmed and heightened by emotion, such as correspond in some degree to Matthew Arnold's non-dogmatic definition of religion. Many American educators still believe that the true principles of morality lie embedded in religion, but not a few of these—one believes the great majority—entertain the hope that the elements in life for which religion itself stands are being brought near to the children in the ways here indicated; and that the fundamental principle of being in intelligent accord with the wonder and beauty around them, and with some of the higher interpretations of it by poet and artist, may itself lead up to those larger conceptions which make a unity of the universe and are of the essence of religion. Moreover, although materialism has probably as strong a hold upon the adult life of America, and, judging by the frank answers of children in one school visited, of the young life also, as of most other commercially prosperous countries, the bulk of her educators look upon it as a malaria with which they have to grapple, their effort being to keep the schools free from two things, politics (*i.e.*, political influences) and purely utilitarian standards. It is no slight moral test for a great nation to have grown up through all the stages of experimental youth and early maturity in such a century of material advance as the nineteenth has been. But for her public schools it is more than likely that America could not have done it.

It goes far to prove that nineteenth century civilisation was not a sham, that the ideals cherished for the schools should

be almost universally of a humanising and socialising rather than of a utilitarian tendency.

#### THE ETHICAL CULTURE SCHOOLS, NEW YORK CITY.

There is one school in America, in its all-round work one of the most progressive and instructive, admirably staffed with teachers who individually and collectively are constantly at work upon educational problems, which is unique in the importance it attaches to direct ethical teaching, and in the way in which that teaching is given. The influence of the school is felt at such distant places as Minneapolis and Washington, and there is every prospect of a similar system of schools (elementary and high) being erected and endowed in New England.

This is the Ethical Culture (Working-man's) School, under the direction of Dr. Felix Adler, at New York. There is no attempt made here to solve insoluble problems, such as seems to be attempted elsewhere, as to whether, for example, society is before the individual or the individual before society. Rather the individual and society are taken as they are, the needs of the one and the demands of the other. Definite religious instruction having no place in the schools, the Ethical Culture School seeks a substitute in direct moral teaching as part of its scheme of moral training, and so hopes to raise more clearly the question, and to provide an answer to it: To what end do we educate? The idea of progress is the central thought in Dr. Adler's mind, with its two corollaries—the need of discovering the aptitude of each individual child, and the need of creating the spirit of desire or enthusiasm for progress. To attain the first the teachers, from the kindergarten upwards, hand in monthly reports of their observations of the mental and moral characteristics of each child, care being taken to prevent impressions of prejudice or bias by the facts alone being given and left to interpret themselves. Manual and art work are prominent in the course of study, partly because of the exercise of definite faculties, but also because of the insight they afford into the children's aptitudes. There is, moreover, a monthly meeting for consultation between teachers and parents where notes are compared. The parents first assemble together, and an address relating to some part of the aims and methods of the school is given, then the teachers meet the parents separately and speak of individuals. Progress implies an effective distribution of talents, and Dr. Adler thinks that the elementary school which has had charge of a child for some eight years ought to be able to say something at the end of that time as to what the child is fitted for. Talent, of course, is often complex in its nature and concealed from view, but there would be a large number of clear cases of fitness and unfitness.

The impulse of progress is stimulated in the lower grades, partly by biographies of men who have helped the world, but also, as the references already made to the work seems to indicate, by getting the children to sympathise with the first steps

made in progress under more primitive conditions—to sympathise with and imitate the efforts of the Indian, the Esquimaux, the shipwrecked Crusoe.\* In the higher grades the same impulse is furthered by the treatment of all subjects—this is especially true of the Ethical Society's high school—from the historical or evolutionary point of view. The history of the rise of the wage-earning class through the various stages of dependence, slavery, serfdom, and the like; the history of art; the history of science; how the world came to have its fund of knowledge; the story of the struggle for knowledge and for truth: by taking up the studies from this standpoint it is hoped to enkindle the contagion of effort. History is the crystallisation of the motive forces of human progress. There is ethical meaning and therefore ethical instruction in the incidents of man's daily life; and the path along which humanity has travelled is strewn with lessons of the kind. What, *e.g.*, have been the mission and the contributions to the world's well-being of the great nations of the past—Persia, Greece, Rome? What outlook do we thence derive upon the present and towards the future? What, again, are the scientists working at to-day? What are the political problems? What the art products? What is the message of the nineteenth century poets and seers? By degrees, the child upon whom the influence of teachers and parents has been brought to bear after careful observation and frank conference, begins himself to feel where he is called to stand, what niche to fill, in this vast field of progressive life. He comes to know his own fitness, and acquires the will to use it for the achievement of further progress. This is Dr. Adler's fundamental thought, and in applying it to school practice he is supported by the belief that there is no religion or philosophy amongst Western nations which can raise any objection to it. Starting from this point, the Ethical Culture School is largely missionary in its aim, steering a middle way amongst the religious systems and supplying something upon which all may agree.† Large funds come in to maintain the effort; out of half a million dollars which are to be spent upon the erection of a large and fully equipped building, 350,000 dollars have already been collected.

The pedagogical foundations of the school-method are partly

\* For course of study for the year 1900-01—an exceedingly interesting document—see Appendix II; and compare pages 121-128.

† It is at this point, if anywhere, that the school lies open to some slight criticism. The tendency to remove from the ethical point of view its always possible outlook towards the spiritual is said by some who know the school well, and who sympathise deeply both with its general aim and with the propaganda of the Ethical Society, to conduce somewhat to a new element of illiberalism in education. "It's ethical you know," becomes a more or less accustomed phrase; and on children's lips may cause some failure in respect of the self-diffidence (of which the positive side is reverence) which a fuller appeal to the child's spiritual instincts would tend to supply. Under the inspiring leadership of Dr. Adler this is not perhaps an immediate danger; but it is a contingent, and even probable, danger in schools modelled after his in which his guiding influence may be lacking. The fact that something of the kind is already noticed by sympathetic observers suggests the possibility of a consciousness of being "ethical" prevailing to the children's detriment.



Pestalozzi's *learning by seeing*, and partly Froebel's *learning by doing*. Excursions of various kinds aid the former, well planned occupations and manual work constitute the latter. In carrying out the Froebelian thought great care is taken to avoid the "cold douche" to which children are liable in passing from the Kindergarten to some of the elementary schools. The two cities, where the helpfulness of Dr. Adler's school was freely expressed to the present writer, are those in which this mistake is remedied throughout the schools. Dr. Adler recognises in the Kindergarten the dominant factor in shaping American education at the present moment. One must pass over in this connection many pleasing instances of the development of individuality in the children, and take up the series of lessons which constituted the direct moral lessons for the week, and, which being given in each case in the teacher's presence, suggested occasional allusions as passing incidents or lesson topics gave opportunity. The lessons were given by Dr. Elliott, who is assistant to Dr. Adler, and head of the lads' club and settlement work; and they follow the general lines laid down in Dr. Adler's book on the *Moral Education of Children*.

Grade I. (Ages 5 to 7). Fairy Stories. The story was that of the "Little White Seal," of whom the other seals made fun because he was not like themselves. Children sometimes make fun of others because they are different, in their clothing, or in the colour of their skins. Boys had been known to throw stones at a Chinaman; not because he was not a good Chinaman, not because he did not wash clothes clean [the Chinese are the laundrymen in the States], but just because he was different. The treatment of the stories in this grade is simply to make explicit what is already implicit in them.

Grade II. Fables. Dr. Elliott's usual method with the lower grades is at the close of a lesson to tell the story which is to be the topic of the following week. This time it had been the story of the boy and the wolf. One of the little girls repeated the story in clear flowing English, evidently enjoying the spirit of it as she showed by a timely smile and by her correctness of emphasis and expression. The point of the fable was the answer to the question, What happened to the boy? People would not believe him. That is a terrible thing if people will not believe what we say. The worst punishment of story-telling, and it always follows, is not being scolded, or shut up alone, it is not to be believed. The next week's lesson, the story of the frog and the ox, was introduced by the question, About how big is a frog?—the children heartily enjoying the story.

The lessons given to Grades III. and IV. were not heard. [For the topics which are taken in these grades see Appendix II.]

Grade V. Bible stories taken up for their ethical content. Review of the story of Samuel. When Samuel was quite a little boy, his mother thought to herself, what shall I make of him, a priest, an artist, or what? She thought she would make him just a good honest man. Then followed the story of the wars with the Philistines, and the organising of the people of Israel

to oppose their enemies. What was the reason of organising them? "So that there should not be a panic?" But an army is for something besides running away. "So that they could do what they had to do." Take all the schools of the city, what a lot of organisation is needed for them, especially the public schools. Armies, works, railways, all have to be organised. Next, there was a big fight at Jabesh Gilead. What had been the trouble? Then came the story of David and Goliath. Goliath was on the side of the people of the plains. "He said he would fight any man of the Israelites." "He said he would fight any two men." Ah! then he was a brave man. "Oh, yes, and he was a bully." What do you mean by a bully? "He was stronger; he could fight them because he was stronger." The children throughout the lesson had a racy way of expressing themselves, which showed that they had thought the matter out on their own lines. The point of the lesson was David's refusal to wear the King's armour. Most boys would think it a great honour. David was not the kind of person who cared to show off; he tried to be David, and nobody else. How he could have made the King's armour rattle if he had wished! &c., &c. The lesson ended with an excellent recital by one of the boys of David's lament for Saul and Jonathan.

Grade VI. Bible Stories. The story of Moses. Moses gave his people political freedom and laws for their moral freedom. A series of lessons were being taken on the Ten Commandments. "Thou shalt not kill" was the lesson for the day; the foundation thought being that all human life is sacred, with deductions from it such as that the life of the poor is respected in the eye of the law as well as of the rich. The law only says, Was he a man? A doctor feels that it is his business to save life as long as he can. The care that doctors take of people's bodies the rest of us have to take of people's minds and characters. Even if people are bad, there is always the chance of a man coming back and being a good man. Mr. Rockefeller has hundreds of millions of dollars, but his vote does not count for more than the vote of the poorest man, nor the vote of the learned professor for more than that of the most ignorant. Just because a man is a human being, he is to be respected. This is pretty hard to do, to be as respectful to the boy or girl who can hardly get along as to the one who pushes to the front.

Grade VII. Greek History. The character of Socrates. A wise man, because he said he did not know much, whereas others thought they knew a great deal and really did not; that was the way he thought it out for himself. He was always thinking things out for himself. How did Socrates try to find out that people knew nothing? "By asking questions." Do not boys and girls keep asking questions? No, not about one thing. That is it, Socrates got clear ideas because he kept thinking about one point. "His mistake was that he thought that when people know things, they will be good. But when people know what's good they do not do it sometimes." (A boy's answer.) How is morality to grow if we cannot teach it? This

reviewed the preceding lesson and led up to one on the character of Alcibiades, the pupil of Socrates.

Grade VIII Roman History. Elements in the character of Cæsar. One mark of a gentleman is to treat some big things as though they were little things, and some little things as though they were big things. Cæsar acted sometimes as if his life was not of great importance. "I think it was not right, he was foolish." Another: "He had such a great power over men that they would do the same thing that he did." His mere existence was not the most important thing at all; he would mix with the common soldiers in the fight, because there were other things which were to him more important than avoiding danger. Think it out during the week; if you don't agree with me, why, you need not. See if there are not some little things which have a big meaning, and are important.

These are hints of the kind of lessons given at this school— suggestions of thought, a treatment of ethical topics in a free conversational way, always on lines which the children can understand, and always starting from concrete examples. Dr. Adler takes the course in the high school. His method is a combination of discussion or investigation with the bringing out of definite points which clench the lesson. In the lesson to which the writer was admitted, the law of libel was the topic. The main points of the law were touched upon and illustrated, and their ethical bearing discussed; the underlying principle being the same as that which makes it wrong to take life or property, namely, that it injures the growth or development of other human beings. The ways in which loss of reputations injures growth were talked over, and these furnished the basis of the precept to refrain from injuring another's reputation. When should we not refrain? This led to a discussion as to what could make libel justifiable\*; and especially to the injunction not to speak evil of anyone we dislike. The children laughed, seeing as an obvious inference that this made evil speaking almost impossible, as it is not probable in connection with those we like and esteem. A similar precept was never to say evil of another when conscious that it gives pleasure to say it. This point one boy contested, supposing the case of a public official whom it was necessary to expose for the good of the community, and whom it would afford a kind of pleasure to expose. Dr. Adler replied that so long as this feeling existed, he should be less trustful of his own judgment in the matter. The boy urged that it might be a clear case of dishonesty. Then the teacher said the informant should try to rid himself of the feeling of pleasure it gave him to inform. Practical school questions, such as what should be done in the case of observed cheating at examinations, came up; this resolved itself into a series of efforts; first, privately; secondly, by appeal to the class;

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\* In the lesson referred to, libel was spoken of as justifiable if true and having no malicious intent.

only in the last resort, and then by means of a class députation, should the matter be brought before the teacher. But, said a boy, supposing the majority cheat! And so the lesson was made to yield point after point, and was brought down to the level of the children's standards and interests.

[The following statement of the history and aim of these schools, and of the course of study pursued in them, is taken from the prospectus of 1900-01:

A school was established on January 2nd, 1878, as a free kindergarten (the first of its kind in the city of New York), and upon this as a foundation the institution has gradually been erected. It was intended to contribute to the solution of the great social problems by means of a profound reformation of the system of education. And its social and ethical outlook, which was the characteristic feature of it from the beginning, has become more and more salient in course of time.

In the history of education the school holds the place of having been the pioneer in introducing manual training as an integral and valuable part of elementary education, without reference to special industrial uses, and solely for the sake of the general educational advantage to be derived from it. The attitude thus taken toward manual training has been sanctioned by the opinions of leading educators throughout the world, and this kind of instruction has since been largely introduced into the schools of France, Germany, the United States, and other countries.

The school has also given greater breadth and richness to its curriculum by adding, besides shop work, elementary art and science to the ordinary English branches. But its chief purpose, as stated above, has been an ethical one. It seeks to restore, at least so far as the elementary school and the high school are concerned, that unity which was once supplied by a common religious creed and which in the educational system generally is now lacking.

The end set up is a social, an ethical one. Briefly, the plan may be described as an attempt to fit the pupil to contribute to the progress of mankind in some one direction, and to inspire him with the enthusiasm of progress. As the first means to this end, the evolutionary point of view is kept in mind in the treatment of every branch of instruction; and in the high school the idea of evolution is sharply accentuated with a view of making it the conscious possession of the pupil. Thus, in the science department, in addition to teaching the subject matter of physical science, a brief account is given of the steps by which the human race has gradually arrived at its present stage of scientific knowledge; and especially the personalities of the great promoters of science are put into the foreground, from the Greeks down to Newton, Galileo, and a few of the moderns. In the department of art a short account of the development of the arts is given. In the department of social history a brief survey is undertaken of the successive systems of labour, from slavery through serfdom to the present wage-earning system. In the department of poli-

tical history the evolutionary point of view is particularly important. (The word "evolution" is here used, not in the sense of any special system, as, for instance, the Spencerian, but in its widest, ethical connotation.)

Mankind, the human race, stands out, in this conception, almost as if it were a single huge being, struggling from the beginning to manifest its latent powers along various lines, and working out its salvation through higher and higher self-expression. If the pupil can in a large way appropriate this story of struggle and striving, he can be led, unconsciously at first, more and more consciously later on, to identify himself with this whole of which he is a part, and to see and criticise the work of his life in the light of what it may mean in the larger story.

The attempt is here made to build up a school frankly based upon the idea of progress, of evolution. This is its distinctive character, and this is the claim which it makes upon the attention of parents and educators.

The ethical ideal which pervades the school is not something that stands apart from the scheme of instruction, impressed by preaching or spasmodic appeals to the feelings, but is intimately interwoven with work in all departments and modifies the course. It is ingrained into the mind by strictly pedagogical methods, and the application of it leads to distinctive pedagogical propositions.

#### *Elementary School.—Course of Study.*

In general the aim is to develop creative power, humanistic and scientific interests and ideals, and habits of social service. Manual training, art, music, and calisthenics are employed in all grades as essential elements in education, but in no sense as substitutes for thorough work in English, mathematics, history, and natural science. Ethical principles, besides affording subjects for special instruction, are important factors in the selection of literary and historical material. Attention is paid to the correct use of English in the teaching of all subjects. German is taught in the four upper grades, primarily as an aid in acquiring a careful and accurate use of English.

*Reading.*—Good literature is presented in the first reading lessons, with the purpose of awakening interest and arousing the impulse to read. Mother Goose rhymes, fairy stories, short poems by Stevenson, Tennyson, and Longfellow, tales of other lands and peoples, *Æsop's Fables*, *Hiawatha*, *Robinson Crusoe*, Greek myths, and stories of pioneer life, are typical of primary work.

In the upper grades longer classics are read in addition to selections from standard readers.

The reading is largely selected upon ethical and historical grounds, and is further utilised as affording opportunity for the correlation of other subjects.

Reading aloud is practised in connection with the regular class work, and in preparation for declamations and class exercises in the general assembly.

*Phonics and Spelling.*—Drill in phonics is regularly given; by the end of the first year new words are recognised as phonic symbols. This drill is continued in the higher grades in connection with reading and spelling.

In all grades, lists of words for spelling are given; in some cases selected from composition and reading lessons, in others, selected and grouped on the basis of type words.

*Penmanship.*—The vertical style is adopted as the model. Freedom of movement is considered to be as important as form. Unruled paper is used from the first. All written work is expected to be neat and legible. Writing lessons are omitted during the greater part of the first year, being replaced by drawing, painting, the use of letter cards, and other occupations.

*Grammar.*—As a knowledge of grammatical forms and constructions becomes necessary for the interpretation of the reading lessons, grammatical terms and processes are introduced. A text-book is used in the two highest grades. The formal study of English Grammar is aided and supplemented by a study of the German language.

*German.*—In order to promote a more accurate use of language by means of translation, to aid in the comprehension of grammatical forms and arrangement, as well as to contribute to the pupil's general culture, a second language is introduced. German is studied in all grades above the fourth. Special attention is given to phonetics and pronunciation. Classic poems are read and memorised. Eclectic Series, *Viertes Lesebuch*; *Sagen und Mythen*; Leander, *Träumereien*; Schrakamp, *Erzählungen aus der deutschen Geschichte*, are used.

*History.*—In the primary grades, general historical ideas are acquired in connection with the reading lessons, geography, excursions, occupations, anniversaries, and holidays. The story of primitive life (as of the Indians), childhood in other lands, Crusoe, pioneer life, and the study of the City are preparatory to the use of historical text-books. The history of the United States is begun in the Fourth Grade and continued throughout the course. Parallel with the development of American history is carried on a brief course in Greek and Roman history, selected chiefly with a view to biographical and ethical content.

*Mathematics.*—The conception of Number is founded upon a concrete basis. The perception of form and quantity is cultivated in the kindergarten and primary grades. The activities of the children are employed in occupations involving measurement and computation. Manual training and science instruction throughout the grades reinforce the conception of form and number. Frequent drill is given in the fundamental processes.

In each grade attention is given to rapid and accurate mental work.

*Ethics.*—The Ethics teaching is intended to present to the children in the various grades such simple, and yet fundamental, ethical conceptions as they are capable of grasping. The method

employed varies with the age of the children. In the earlier grades simple stories are told, and almost no discussion follows; while in the upper grades of the school situations and characters that have appeared in history are presented briefly to the class, and the greater part of the period is taken up in leading the class to develop the lesson for themselves.

The object of the teaching may be stated as twofold: first, to fix in the minds of the children certain ideas of duty; and, second, to awaken, by means of historical example, interesting incidents and appropriate stories, the admiration and love of right doing.

The course of instruction laid out in Adler's *Moral Instruction of Children* is followed generally, except in the upper grades, where historical material is taken for the basis of the work done.

*Nature Study.*—The Nature Study work of the lower grades attempts to conserve the child's interest in natural objects; to develop a sympathetic appreciation of living creatures; and to utilise this interest in forming habits of observation and comparison, and in promoting facility and correctness of expression. In these grades the work is closely associated with the literature.

In the upper grades the work is more closely related to the geography, offering opportunity for the laboratory treatment of many geographical principles.

*Geography.*—The physical and social conditions of the home environment furnish the means of interpreting the conditions under which men live in other lands, where the study can be carried on only by means of pictures, maps, and other illustrative material. The information thus obtained is again applied in a more intensive study of the home environment in the higher grades.

*Manual Training.*—It is the aim of the Manual Training courses to give a greater breadth of interest to school work; to prepare the child to understand human civilisation on its mechanical or constructive side; to develop constructive ability; to train in methodical thought and action; and to inculcate habits of industry and a love for law and order.

In the primary grades the effort is to cultivate the thoughtful use of the hands with only the simplest tools, and to deal with elementary ideas and methods of construction.

Above the third grade the work of the girls and boys is differentiated. The boys go to the shop, where more emphasis is laid upon accuracy in thought and method; and the work with the heavier tools affords more difficult construction. The girls are instructed in sewing, basketry, weaving, elementary millinery, and dressmaking. In some of the grades the girls are given opportunity to take bench work.

Class projects form an important feature in all classes, and voluntary home work is encouraged.

*Art.*—The purpose of the Art teaching is to develop in the pupils the appreciation and love of the beautiful in nature and in art, to cultivate and refine the taste, and to develop creative power and ability in expression. The work is planned to meet the demands of class teaching and at the same time to give occasion for the exercise of individuality.

While this department is not and cannot be an art school in the accepted sense, it nevertheless aims to surround the child with a true artistic influence, and to bring about genuine art development as far as the elementary nature of the work will permit. The method followed is not primarily to provide discipline and technical training, but to appeal to the imagination, and to secure the natural expression of some purpose. For both observation and expression a wide range of materials is utilised. Excursions to the Metropolitan Museum of Art are arranged to supplement the school collection of photographs, casts, pottery, and objects of primitive art.

The forms of art work employed include clay modelling, water-colour, drawing, paper cutting, bead work, decorations of baskets and pottery, and applied design. The selection of the subjects treated is, to a considerable extent, influenced by the nature study, history, and reading. However, in the selection both of medium and subject, freedom is permitted, and no rigid course is prescribed.

*Music.*—In the instruction in Music the endeavour is made to preserve the light voice, the natural one for the child; to supply a repertory of songs suited to the child voice; to cultivate an appreciation of the beautiful in music; to secure such ability to read notes at sight as is possible in class work; to co-operate with the work in English and literature; to teach clear enunciation and correct pronunciation.

Opportunity for the study of more difficult songs than can be undertaken in the regular class work or the school assembly, is provided by a special voluntary chorus which meets once a week.

*Physical Training and Vocal Training.*—Exercises in calisthenics are given regularly in all grades. Vocal training is carried on in connection with the training of the body. The aim is to secure control of breath and tone, to correct vocal faults, and to gain power of natural expression.

#### *High School.*

Pupils are admitted to the high school at the beginning of each year upon presenting evidence that they have satisfactorily completed the equivalent of the Grammar School Course of the Public Schools, or they may enter at any other time, provided they give evidence of ability to take up the work of any one of the classes.

Applications for admission should be made on the form which will be supplied by the school, and which requires full particulars



of the student's previous record, the nature of the course to be taken, of the elective studies chosen, and if possible of the college (if any) which the student contemplates entering.

Special courses may be arranged to meet special needs.

*Course of Instruction.*

The course of instruction, while it meets the requirements for admission to any of the colleges, does not restrict itself to these requirements, as regards either the subjects taught or the field covered in each subject. The high school is not regarded as a half-way house on the road to college merely, but is designed to meet the larger as well as the more immediate needs of students of high school age. It aims to open up to them the various opportunities for further development which life may have to offer them; to help them to discover their own special gifts, to deepen their sense of responsibility for the development of such gifts, and the efficient employment of them in social service.

*Required Subjects.*—Every student is required to take in the first two years, the work in English one foreign language, mathematics, history, science, and ethics.

*Electives.*—The student may elect any two languages of the four at present offered—Latin, Greek, French, and German—during the first year, and thereafter any three. So far as his special course of study will permit, he may also elect art and manual training (shop work for boys; dressmaking and millinery for girls).

*English.*—The main purpose of the English work is to develop the power of appreciation; to quicken the higher emotional and intellectual life of the student; and, mainly through the development of the literary sense, to stimulate and improve the powers of self-expression. The student is familiarised with the masterpieces and the leading types of literary art, his studies in English being reinforced by his literary studies in other languages. Special attention is paid to good interpretive reading and declamation; not a little work in memorising being required in this connection. In composition, the work advances from the simpler to the more complex forms of expression along the line of narration, through description and exposition in their various forms, to argument and persuasion.

*Latin and Greek.*—These languages are studied not only for their disciplinary value, for the development of a scholarly habit and conscience, but for their literary importance, and as aids to a comprehension of what was distinctive in the civilisations of Hellas and Rome, and of the genius of the peoples who built them up. The work is correlated with the work in history and English.

*Modern Languages.*—Not merely the linguistic discipline and practical usefulness, but the culture value of the study of foreign languages, is kept in view. To speak and read and write a foreign tongue correctly and fluently, to get a sense of the genius

of its people, and to see and feel some of the excellencies and charms of its literature,—these are in general the aims pursued in all the language work.

*Mathematics.*—The aim is to train in independent thinking and in the accurate expression of thought. It is believed this aim can best be achieved first, by developing most of the work (especially in the early stages) in the classroom; second, by studying the methods of attack so as to render the student as independent as possible of the text-book; third, by insisting not only upon a knowledge of principles, but upon readiness and accuracy in applying them.

It is a further object to unify the entire course by making evident the coherence of the various branches, with especial emphasis upon the connection between mathematics and science. To this end the course is planned so as to show how the sciences in their growth have given impetus to the development of mathematics, involving a brief survey of the historical development of mathematical theories.

*The Natural Sciences.*—The natural sciences are so taught as to train the pupil in habits of observation, in logical thinking, and in the use of clear and concise forms of expression; to furnish him with the main facts and general principles of the most important of the sciences in the light of modern knowledge, and with an epitomised account of their historical development; and to cultivate a sympathy for living things, and a reverent attitude toward nature. The method is that of the laboratory, combined with lectures, class discussions and recitations.

*History.*—The aims are those already explained in the opening statement on the history and aim of the school. Having gained in the intermediate grades a general working idea of the course of European history and a detailed knowledge of American history, the pupil now begins a more systematic study of the subject, beginning with the civilisations of Greece and Rome, of the middle ages and Renaissance, the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, with more attention to the relation of cause and effect, and to the political, social and industrial developments of the modern era.

*Art.*—The work in art is continued on the basis and with the general aims of the work done in the elementary grades (see page 125). In the high school, as in the earlier grades, the art study is given for its own sake, and for the deepening of the impression made on the pupils by the work in literature and history. While Greek literature and history are studied, the pupils learn to appreciate Greek ideals in art as expressed in architecture, sculpture and painting. Subjects for composition are selected from the same sources. This idea is carried out further in Roman and Medieval studies. Water color, black and white and modelling are employed as means of expression.

*Manual Training.*—This is an elective study, and is planned with a view to the special needs and aims of the individual student.]

Valuable and influential as this experimental effort is, one cannot give Dr. Adler's full view without quoting the opening words of his address at the Ethical Society's Conference at Philadelphia, April, 1900, which were to the following effect:—The personality of the teacher is the most potent factor in moral education outside of the home. I do not care so much about the particular system or method if the teacher has a sacred view of the relations between teacher and class, and a consciousness of the influence which every word and act will exercise on young minds. Systems and suggestions for teaching morals many of us may have, but nothing that we can devise or systematise can, in the absence of the teacher's personality, have a moralising influence.

## CHAPTER XI.

### THE TEACHING OF CIVICS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

The introduction of civics teaching into the schools and the method of it have been more and more discussed in America during the last ten years. To some extent the public schools are claimed to be a kind of object lesson in civics, destroying national clannishness and helping to remove the feeling of class in favour of a realised democracy. Also the consciousness of civic relations underlies some of the forms of discipline that have been referred to. But something more than this is demanded. "The American people," as was said at a meeting of the Committee on teaching civics and patriotism in the public schools of New York State in December, 1898, "have grown to feel deeply that public schools supported by public money should return intelligent training in American citizenship."

One of the most important educational documents that has been published of late in the United States is the Report of the Educational Commission of the city of Chicago, 1899. Article XIX relates to "training for citizenship," and the Commission recommends:—

Section 1.—That the Board of Education give in all grades of the public school more detailed, specific, and systematic preparation for good citizenship;

Section 2.—That this preparation be adapted to awaken an enlightened sentiment of patriotism, to give instruction in the history of other leading forms of government and their relations to our own, to communicate a thorough knowledge of our local, state, and national forms of government, and to emphasise the duties as well as the rights of American citizenship;

Section 3.—That hereafter, every candidate for position as teacher in the elementary schools be required to show proof of ability in this kind of instruction.

The report has not become mandatory, but this section of it

shows the direction in which American educators are looking. It was with interest, too, that a reprint of an article by Professor James Ward, taken from the *London Journal of Education* on "Education Values," was found in use by Professor Hinsdale's students in the university of Michigan. One of the most important propositions there maintained was that "as every pupil must look forward to being not only a man but a citizen, the training and knowledge requisite for the efficient discharge of social and political functions must form part of his education, and have a place and attention proportionate to its obvious importance. This is soon said; it seems true; but to carry it out would involve very considerable changes in the prevailing curriculum." The purpose of this section is to describe some of the ways in which this teaching is carried out in the United States. These may be roughly grouped as (1) methods of observation; (2) methods of organisation; (3) civics courses given in the schools; (4) efforts to inculcate patriotism.

(1) At Brookline the high school pupils attend town meetings and study different departments of the city government; after which experience they organise their own town meeting; sometimes they personate the U.S. Senate and invite outsiders. Washington is noted for its civics teaching, and there is little doubt that this is owing to its being the capital city where a large part of the adult population is engaged in Government service of some kind, and where there are quite exceptional opportunities for observation. So also in cities further west, in the State of Minnesota, for example, the permission of the Mayor is given at times to classes from the high schools to attend a council meeting. This method stimulates interest, and at the same time gives reality to the study. Hence, too, a class-method is met with which, as just seen with regard to Brookline, is closely related to that of actual observation. It is a form of objective teaching, and consists in the class resolving itself for the time being into court, council, or senate. An example of this has already been given under the heading of discipline.\*

Miniature town meetings are held now and again in the schools about the time when the towns are holding their meetings, and the proceedings in the school are compared with the newspaper reports of the actual town meetings. It is a common thing in Massachusetts to transform the class into a town meeting for a civics lesson; or into a board of aldermen or a common council. In the same way one frequently hears children who are studying the constitution personate individually the Government officials. "I represent the President of the United States, William McKinley of Ohio. To be eligible for the presidency one must be thirty-five years of age, must have been a natural born citizen," and so on. So a class may divide itself into sections representing senators, one part to indict, another to stand on its defence, as in a case of impeachment, some actual misdemeanour being sometimes tried by the juvenile senate in this way. Or, in discussing slavery in a city bordering on the south, it is quite

\* Page 86.

possible to find children from the Southern States who have a leaning towards it, these take the one side and the opponents of slavery the other.

At an Indianapolis school for grammar grades only, where some very interesting work is being done, there is a voluntary association going by the name of the Junior Forum. The programme for the Junior Forum announced on the blackboard for the coming meeting was: Music, Parliamentary practice, a declamation, a debate on the resolution that Mr. McKinley did right in not declaring war at first at the time of the blowing up of the Maine; music. This was to be held after school hours.

The foregoing are indications of ways in which objective methods are applied in teaching civics.

(2) Forms of school organisation. In nearly all the grades of the schools, wrote the superintendent of Atlanta, there exist societies among the children, over which a chairman, chosen from among their number, presides. These prove to be a most effectual means of giving moral lessons in an unconscious and indirect way. The teacher, of course, guides and directs the policy of these organisations. The principal and staff of the Horace Mann School, New York, are just now trying a plan whereby it is hoped to cultivate a community spirit, and give an insight into citizen life. Each grade above the third elects delegates to the "Horace Mann Grade Assembly," which is a sort of school parliament elected to deal with matters of concern to the pupils themselves. Their first efforts at law-making avoided the strictness observable in the regulations drawn up by some school assemblies. In connection with the play during recess one of the first measures of the pupil parliament was an extension of privilege. Snowballing had been forbidden. The Grade Assembly resolved that such safeguards could be put upon it that they might have the exercise without infringing the rights of others. So, too, with regard to the use of rooms in the basement. There had been serious restrictions. The children felt that they could have larger liberty, and enjoy it without abuse. The teachers have already found one benefit from the organisation, namely, that the children are much more inclined to look at both sides of a question—that of the school as well as that of the pupil.

The most aggressive and most debated form of pupil-government is one which has already been discussed in the English press, known as the "School City." The object is by a practical method to raise the standard of citizenship; and in the process to purify and increase the comfort, zest, and happiness of child life, to add comfort and effectiveness to the teacher's work, and to bring into clear relief before teachers and pupils the supreme object of education, which is that the individual shall be led into habits of thinking and acting honestly and generously towards others, and under all circumstances to govern himself wisely and fearlessly. How is this to be accomplished? The answer given by Mr. Gill of New York, and a large number of those who have adopted the plan in their schools, is that it is to be done by organising the school after the pattern of the city with its

citizens, officers, public departments, and public services. The immediate motives are stated as follows:

(a) To engraft into the character and habits of the citizen of the school-city the principle of the golden rule, as the necessary foundation of all successful popular government.

(b) To lead to a fuller appreciation and use of the benefits of education, and of other privileges of American citizenship. If the child-citizen gives vote, oversight, and care, he begins to exercise his responsibility and so to grow in character. The purpose is not to mimic manhood and womanhood but to help to make both, by means which are thought to be real and practical to the child.

(c) To lead the "citizens" to use carefully and economically the public property entrusted to them, books and general school supplies, and so to guard against such injury to character as might possibly arise from their being made recipients of public bounty. An extension is contemplated of the citizen spirit whereby plans for "betterment" shall be set on foot, such as school ornamentation, pictures, a winter garden of flowers; and whereby the social and æsthetic life shall be more fully developed.

(d) To train—and here it is an objective method of teaching civics—in the performance of the ordinary duties of American municipal, state, and national life.

(e) To provide a more effective check upon tendencies to wrong doing, through the "police" and "judicial" systems.

(f) To enlist the co-operation of the children with the public authorities outside the school, in such a way as to prevent the littering of the streets, the defacing of public property, etc.

(g) To relieve the teachers of large part of the police duty or supervision which attaches to school government, so that their undivided strength may be given to the work of inspiration and instruction, and their opportunity increased both as teachers of subjects and as trainers of character. The school city does not interfere with the teachers' supremacy in the class-rooms, but indirectly, and in some instances directly, it lightens the burden of discipline. The idea is only some four or five years old. Yet it has found warm supporters in Brooklyn, Philadelphia, New Paltz, Syracuse (N.Y.), Chicago, Minneapolis, Lincoln, Omaha, Milwaukee, and Kansas City; and many others have either adopted the plan or are moving towards it.

The Principal of the Normal School, Columbus, Ohio, wrote: "Two large buildings are organised under what is known as the 'self-governing system,' while in nearly all the other buildings in our city the pupils are trained to something of self-government, but under the supervision of principal and teachers. One of the buildings mentioned above has the 'school-city' plan, pure and simple; the other modifies it somewhat."

At the same time, there are a great number of criticisms of the scheme, and all that can be done is to report some of the *pros* and *cons* without any attempt to decide between them.

The idea had its origin in connection with a badly disorganised school in the north of New York city. A successful disciplinarian had been sent to take charge of one department, but he, too, found himself in difficulties. After some persuasion Mr. Gill, the recognised founder of the school city scheme, prevailed upon this master to put the responsibility of the discipline upon the boys, and let them have the worry instead of himself; the plan suggested was to organise them on the lines of civic government, with a mayor, policemen, and committees. The result, though a State, rather than a city, organisation was adopted, was so eminently satisfactory, that other schools began gradually to take it up. It was advocated, and by those who adopted it looked upon, as a reappearance of the accepted doctrine "learning by doing!" As such it appealed to the President of the Board of Education at Philadelphia, and he urged the board to experiment upon it there, feeling convinced that it would succeed. One of the most difficult schools was selected for the experiment, with a lady-principal who knew little of politics, the pupils belonging to nearly every nationality represented in Philadelphia. The "school city" charter was modelled upon the municipal law of the State of Pennsylvania, the preamble stating that "the principal and teachers of the Hollingsworth Combined Public School, in pursuance of the authority given them by the Board of Public Education, grant the following charter to the pupils of the school." Miss McCormick, the principal of the school, was interviewed, and spoke in enthusiastic terms of the success of the plan, though at first she had entered upon it with fear and trembling. Each class is a city ward, and has its representatives on the council; these select mayor or president, clerk, and other officials. One of the teachers is present at the weekly council meetings, and the children choose who it shall be—in this case it is the principal. After the council has passed a law the principal reads it to all the citizens. The playground was the first sphere of influence; it also was divided into wards, and if any boy did what he should not, he was taken by a "policeman" to the school magistrate. It was rather a trial to the teacher at first, for every boy wanted to be arrested, and every other boy wanted to arrest him; but the novelty wore off in time. At first, too, boys who were arrested resisted the officer, which they never do now. There is a board of health which, through its inspectors, insists on cleanliness in each class-room, cleans the blackboards, and amongst other things, insists that every child shall have a handkerchief. The director of public works sees that the fish are fed in the aquarium, and looks after the hydrant. A board of charities collects and distributes the gifts on Thanksgiving Day.

The truant officer has even come to be looked upon as an ally and a friend, he is a sort of co-operating official of the school-city, working in line with its aims; truancy is said to be at an end, and the police of the district say that now they have no trouble with the children belonging to the school; the children taking the duties of school-city policemen fortnightly and in turn, the district police are now of their own kind and calling. The

principal finds in it a double advantage. In the first place, it is objective civics teaching; in the next place, it enables her to talk about things, and to lead the children in ways which ordinary school life does not permit, at the same time bringing out and developing what is good in the children. There are ample opportunities for moral instruction, not *ex cathedra*, but in connection with the actual business of "city" management. One little child bribed a police officer with a bun to allow him to play in prohibited ground; this came up in court, and had more effect as an object lesson than a very great amount of mere talking about bribery would have had. Hence, Mr. Gill speaks of it quite as much as a method of teaching morals as of teaching "civics," in the formal sense, by training the child to do things that have been preached for nineteen centuries. The same kind of effect was witnessed at the Montgomery School, Syracuse. The children are under no compulsion to be citizens, and some one or two in the fifth grade refused because they did not want to be controlled by others, but the class as a whole declined to give it up, and stress was laid upon the idea that the officers were not "bosses" but public servants. Boys and girls alike are policemen, and the pupils have already got to the point of realizing that these officers are not there to watch good citizens. The writer went into two classes after the teachers having been suddenly called out had been absent for fifteen or twenty minutes conversing with him in the headmaster's room. The order was perfect, and was attributed by the children themselves to the fact that they were "citizens." The principal of the Hyde Park High School, Chicago, spoke in terms of great satisfaction of the working of the plan in his school. At Minneapolis, it has been adopted in the Madison School, which consists almost entirely of American children, and with the same success, though it is regarded, and perhaps rightly, rather as a matter of discipline and character-forming than of teaching civics. It is evidently fundamental to the scheme that the children must report misdemeanours; and this is justified, as against the non-tell-tale spirit of many American as well as of English schools, by the argument that boys bred not to tell tales are not those who are going to lift up their voices against unrighteousness in public life. With the schoolboy code still sticking to one, this new theory of community allegiance gave rise to more than one protesting word, but even against one's will American teachers made one to see that there may be two sides to the question, and that the old non-tell spirit, which most of us as schoolboys felt to be, if not the best part of us, at least, abstinence from the worst, may have come out of the notion that school was the arena of a strife of masters *versus* boys.\*

\* Horace Mann was one of the first to attack the established school code, when president of the training college at Antioch. Mr. Mann set his face like flint against the so-called "Code of Honor," by which one student was to look with favour upon the misdoings of another. Those who had given some attention to his teachings on this subject have frequently failed to understand their scope, and have regarded him as in favor of the spy system,



Naturally, there are various modifications of the "school city plan, to suit the views of individual teachers and principals. The principal of the Franklin School, Minneapolis, had such a plan; yet she strongly disagreed with some of the dilutions of the self-government principle which seemed to her to form the school into a large committee for telling of each other, the punishment being left to the teacher. The pupils in her school have their governor, who is judge in Supreme Court cases, those, that is, concerning the playground or other than classroom offences, and a mayor, who is judge in the lower court which tries cases of classroom discipline. The penalties are left to the decision of a jury of twelve, two taken from each of the grades, in the Supreme Court; in the Lower Court the whole class is the jury. Here the modification of the school-city plan is mainly that the idea of having "policemen" is avoided: instead of which there are "Marshals," or typical citizens. The election of officers begins with the third grade, the two lowest grades being subject to the rules, as minors. The boys have made a rule that no tobacco is to be carried to school, and that there is to be no smoking; a matter in which the teachers had some difficulty previously. There is a rule as to the possession by each child of a clean handkerchief, and so on. Petitions are sometimes presented; e.g., "that the rule forbidding children to stay on the steps be changed, and that children may stay on the steps on a rainy day." There was a long list of signatures, including that of the governor, but it was thrown out by the Council. Several reasons were advanced, that the steps would get muddy, that big children would crowd off the little ones, who would have to stay in the rain any way, &c.

Mr. Winslow, principal of the Thayer Street Grammar School, Providence, wrote:—"I have not adopted the so-called 'school city' plan, which is in operation to some extent in New York and Chicago.

"The purpose of that plan, as I understand it, is to give an object lesson in civics, and to tone up the *esprit de corps* of the school as a whole. My purpose has been to go a little further, and to place all the pupils in each of the rooms upon a basis of continual self-government, with reference not only to the larger matters, but to all the details of discipline. It is manifest

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which he thoroughly detested. He held that "one is a good citizen and worthy of the gratitude of the community where he dwells, who knowing that an offence is about to be committed, promptly interposes to prevent it," and that "in college he is a good student and true friend of all other students who, by any personal influence which he can exert, or any information he can impart, prevents the commission of offences that are meditated or helps to redress the wrongs already committed. No, my young friends, it is wholly a false code of honor which prevents any student or citizen from preventing wrong doing. It is as false as the code of duelling in the South; false as the code for revenge among the Arabs or the North American Indians. It is wholly a false idea of sympathy which would suffer wrong to be done without interference, but would then interfere to ward off the consequence of the wrong."—*Teacher Sermons, Testimony against Evil a Duty*, pp. 122-4. [From a University Thesis presented by Mr. G. A. Hubbell M.A., and published by order of the Columbia University.]

that a general organisation in imitation of a city or State Government is too cumbersome to be applied to all the individual offences against good order in all the rooms of a large school.

"I have made each schoolroom a separate unit of organisation, and I have aimed at the greatest simplicity in form of organisation. The pupils in each room choose each month, by ballot, a 'committee on self-government,' consisting of five members. It is the special duty of this committee to take notice of any offences against good order and propriety.

"At some proper time, usually at the close of school, the chairman of the committee presides over the class for a brief period, and presents the charges against offenders. The pupil charged is allowed to say what he chooses in defence or explanation, and the pupils decide by vote what the punishment shall be. The teacher is an *ex officio* member of the committee, and places in the hands of the committee any complaints which she may have to make against any pupils. She reserves a power of veto, which she exercises in case the judgment of the pupils at any time seems to be improper.

"This experiment, which has been practised during the present year, has been successful beyond our expectation. The pupils themselves have been earnest in adopting it, and are anxious to retain it. The teachers are unanimous in reporting good results. In many individual cases a complete change has been wrought in the disposition of pupils toward the matter of discipline. The attitude of the school as a whole exhibits a marked change. In most of the rooms the notion that the teacher is to watch the children to prevent disorder and idleness has passed away. There is quite as good order when the teacher is absent from the room as when she is present.

"The plan has seemed to be especially successful in developing a feeling of *social responsibility*. When a pupil who has not generally been well disposed toward school authority finds that the majority of his fellows vote him down, this seems to put a new aspect upon the matter."

Of the criticisms that are brought against the "school city" a word must be said. There are those who think that it is only training boys to be "politicians," and that there is a danger of its being largely a means of putting them into the way of electioneering and wire-pulling. This is the extreme view, though bribery has come to light in more places than one. The same criticism, more mildly stated, is that there is a danger of preparing for the merely practical rather than the ethical side of citizenship. Of course, children come to school to learn citizenship in a certain way, but not cut and dried citizenship. The school city laying so much emphasis on the machinery phase of government, this being the part which first appeals to the children, and which forms the play element in the device, some do not feel sure that it will make clear the sense of political duty, rights, and obligations. Knowing the machinery of government will not save the city from corruption. And if the more advanced the civilisation the longer the period of childhood, it may be full early for third grade children, and those even

younger, to be thinking of office and responsibility. Again, if poor representatives are elected, it is bad for the city; whereas, if the principal practically selects the representatives, the children lose the discipline that comes by the liberty to make mistakes. The experiment was tried in Indianapolis, and it was found that if the teacher held the ideal closely before them the children usually chose the right leaders, but when a wrong choice was made, perhaps, as with larger governments, for the sake of a change, pupil government proved a failure; in this city the effort has died out altogether. Some object to the personal element being so consciously introduced, as in voting and electing officers, and also to the reporting or tale-bearing feature. To others the plan is cumbersome and only likely to be successful in the hands of a strong principal. Some think aldermanic morals to be at so low an ebb that it is no honour to elect children to bear the civic title. And others say that self-government is not government by others. Doubtless, many of these criticisms could be answered by the school city advocates as soon as raised. But a more fundamental objection seems to be that the city and the school are not really germane the one to the other. The purposes of the organisations are different, and so should be the forms. The school city appears to be a case of a very partial Pestalozzianism applied to behaviour. And as an application of the doctrine of "things, not words," it may be more real and effective than mere moralising, or than talking about civic functions. But is not the "thing" still unreal? The boy is not a citizen, he may even feel the artificiality of the name. Girl-mayors and girl-policemen are probably not "learning by doing" any of the duties which twentieth century civilisation has in store for them. It partakes, for them, more of the character of an object-lesson than of a natural form of activity. Social organisation and the art of it do require to be learnt in every wise and helpful way in a country where the more direct processes of assimilation and digestion are engaging the national vitality. But the criticism just given asks in effect—Does the school city correspond to any of the types of organisation which are natural to children of elementary school age? The children can play at it; it corresponds to certain English and American instincts of self-government; but does it finally amount to anything educative? Is it legitimately real to the children? Mr. C. B. Gilbert, city superintendent of Newark, New Jersey, wrote:—

"I am not sure that the school city does not expect the employment of adult processes by immature minds, and so centre the attention upon the mechanics of government as to lessen the moral training which school life should give. The children are not so much in need of acquaintance with the machinery of government as they are of the power of self-control and self-direction in society. I am quite disposed to the opinion that this can better be given under the natural government of the family and the school aided by elders than in institutions wholly controlled by the children themselves.

All subjects may be taught so as to inculcate ethical princi-

ples. Especially useful for this do we find literature and history, but in general we aim to have the whole school life natural and moral, so that whether at work or at play the children shall be following genuine interests, and directing themselves with a view to the good of the community and the happiness and general well-being of the children about them. Life prepares for life; and the school is real life. It does not need to be anything but school. It does not need artificial interests, such as a school city would introduce, to offer an unlimited opportunity for the development of self-control, social feeling and power. We endeavour, both through the curriculum and through the school life (what is commonly called the discipline of the school) to make children better and stronger."

Yet if the words of President Jordan, of Leland Stanford University, uttered in a totally different connection, are final, the question might be answered in favour of the school city:—

"The function of democracy is not good government. . . . Its character is a secondary matter. The function of self-government is to intensify individual responsibility, to promote abortive attempts at wisdom, through which true wisdom may come at last. The republic is a huge laboratory of civics, a laboratory in which strange experiments are performed, but by which, as in other laboratories, wisdom may arise from experience, and having arisen may work itself out into virtue."

As to how much time is consumed in school-city management, the answer seems to be, less than would be expected; and the meetings are all held out of school hours.

(3) The general way of civics teaching is by courses of lessons in the ordinary school-work; Dole's "American Citizen," or some similar work being used as a text-book.\* The historical relation of present day feeling to past experience was fully put before the writer by Professor Hinsdale, of Ann Arbor: "The growing interest in the teaching of civics is an outgrowth of various causes, some encouraging, some not. Society always tends to become more and more complicated. Government becomes more complicated, and its affairs more difficult to understand. There is an idea in the mind of the more enlightened public of America that things are not altogether well with us, there is both a latent and an expressed dissatisfaction with some of the workings of democracy. Not that they would give it up! Yet there is not the strength of conviction and ardent fervour of years ago." Changes in opinion also have had a tendency towards the study of civics. The growing opinion is to the effect that something more is wanted than the old-fashioned book of civics which was simply a compendium of Governmental facts. The desire is to inculcate some of the ideals of character which are involved in good citizenship—to give ideas about society, what it means, and what the relations of men are to each other in society. This interest in civics is "a phase of the ethical

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\* Mr. Dole's books are a great contribution to the teaching of civics in schools, as he possesses the power of writing for children of almost all ages, and always in an interesting way.

movement and the new sociological thought which has touched religion and everything else in the last 25 years." Dr. R. G. Boone, now superintendent of schools at Cincinnati, speaking of the best work being done in the way of moral education, mentioned three things—good literature throughout the grades, art work and the study of pictures, and the commencement of history in the association with social and institutional life from the lowest grade. Ideas of community life are given by references to the family, the school, the public services (postal, &c.)—"anything that helps to give the child a notion of the impersonal personality which we call the public." The purpose, as a Yonkers principal stated it, is to begin with the child himself, and to extend just as far as the outlook of the child reaches. The civics work begins with the duty of the child to the neighbour beside him. "We try to bring things into the practical life of the child with just as little theory as possible. I should be sorry to have the child feel that he was being instructed in the matter of behaviour. We are to do it by the aid of pictures, literature, biographies and the influence of music." The Cleveland course in civics, entitled "conduct and government," begins in the first grade with home revelations and home duties; gradually introducing, side by side with these, school life and the public services of the fire brigade, &c., in the three next grades; the social consciousness being widened in the fifth grade by the study of geography; sixth grade, growth of the Union and the beginnings of city government; extended in the seventh and eighth grades, and accompanied by a study of the Cleveland system of school government. Peoria has an interesting course in which literature plays an important part; in Minneapolis history and literature together lead up to "civics." Dayton has the following course in social and institutional life: each circle representing two grades:—

#### FIRST CIRCLE

Conversations twice a week on the occupations of men and women; on modes of travel and transportation; on home and school relations; on morals and manners.

Preparation of lists of implements and utensils, conveyances, and traveling outfits, occupations, and relationships.

#### SECOND CIRCLE

Conversations twice a week on trades, commerce, manufactures, agriculture, and mining; on the chief officials of city, county, State, and the United States Government. Preparation of corresponding lists and outlines.

#### THIRD CIRCLE

Talks, readings, and outline work twice a week on modes of securing food, clothing, shelter, and matters of domestic economy; on government and warfare; and on the rights and duties of citizenship.

#### FOURTH CIRCLE

Talks, readings, and outline work twice a week on the means of civilization; on art, science, literature, religion, education, commerce, industry, the administration of justice, and public philanthropy; on forms of government and social conditions, with special emphasis on the value of freedom.

Those familiar with the Kindergarten will see in this course instances of the skilful way in which the Dayton superintendent carries forward the Kindergarten life and spirit into the grades.

The outline of studies for the schools of Denver, Colorado, contains a section on "conduct," having a similar outcome. Some of the features of the course, which is intended to be largely incidental to the general school work, are shown in the following extracts taken from the general remarks and the more detailed outline:—

The atmosphere of the school room is often too grave. Stories that are humorous without being cruel or coarse, incidents, experiences among the children—these should be used to train the child to a discriminating sense of humor, and teach him the art of being happy as the first step toward making others so.

With the serious work of life pressing persistently and exactly upon the teacher, mirthfulness is in some cases a task; but it is worth the effort, for it is a preservation of health of body and sanity of mind for both himself and his pupils.

Where references are made to animals, we deal not with their natural history, but with their social side. It is meant to give children a true idea of what animals are, to interest them in animals, to dignify animals by pointing out their likeness to ourselves, to arouse the love, admiration, respect and sympathy of children for them on their own account.

REFERENCE BOOKS FOR TEACHERS:—

The work of the Herbartians is largely along the line of moral training through regular instruction and discipline. For method of treatment, see De Garmo, McMurry, and other writers.

Also, see "The Moral Education of Children," Felix Adler; "How to Teach Manners," Dewey; "The American Citizen," Dole.

For the first grade, the opening exercises and similar intervals taken during the school hours serve to bring before the children a realisation of their social environment in the class, and their relations to familiar animals, as well as the practice of the simple forms of good behaviour.

The outlines for the second and third grades, include familiar conversations, readings with explanations (stories, examples, precepts, parables, fables, treated with reference to the ideas of right and wrong): the essential likeness of animals to ourselves; characteristics like ours; their rights. Teachers are urged to appeal constantly to the moral feeling and judgment of the pupil himself—often making him the judge of his own conduct, and of the value of the moral and intellectual efforts made by himself and others; allowing all reasonable freedom of speech and of action, but leading the pupil to discover his errors for himself.

Fourth and fifth grades are to take up specific duties to others and to ourselves, very much on the lines suggested in Dr. Adler's book. Then follow these subjects to be treated in the sixth, seventh and eighth grades:—

1. The family. Reciprocal duties of parents and children; reciprocal duties of employers and employees.
2. Society. Necessity and benefits of society. Justice the essential condition of all society. Mutual responsibility; human brotherhood.

Application and development of the idea of justice ; respect for life and liberty, for property, for one's word, for the honor and reputation of others, for opinions and beliefs ; habitual respect for the rights of all living creatures a safe rule of conduct.

Charity. Take up the virtues and the corresponding vices and show them to be, respectively, phases of conformity to or departure from this rule. Devotion or self-sacrifice the supreme form of charity ; show that it can find a place in daily life.

The teacher, without entering into metaphysical discussions, will make plain to the pupil : 1. The difference between duty and interest, even when they seem to be confounded ; that is, the imperative and disinterested character of duty. 2. The distinction between the statute and the moral law—the one fixing the minimum prescription which society imposes on all its members under determinate penalties, the other imposing a duty upon the conscience of everyone, which no one compels him to discharge, but in which he cannot fail without feeling himself blamable.

3. What one owes to his country—obedience to the laws, the services of citizenship, defence in times of peril. Taxes and duties—condemnation of all frauds against the State. Voting—morally obligatory, it must be free, conscientious, disinterested, intelligent. Rights corresponding to these duties—individual liberty, liberty of conscience, liberty of labour, liberty of association. Guaranty of the security of the life and property of all. The national sovereignty.

The superintendent of Hartford, Connecticut, wrote :—

"We do teach civics. We begin it by helping the child to understand his place in the home, on the playground, in the school, and on the street. We go from these elementary ideas of civic relations to town, city, state, and nation—these last in a formal way. But in so far as it is possible, we teach the pupil to observe the workings of political institutions as he comes into contact with school officers, postmen, etc., and as he keeps his eyes open on election days and on days when there are various civic parades, etc."

And from Grand Rapids, Michigan, the following reply was sent :—

"All pupils in the public schools of this city are given direct lessons in civics. In the earlier grades these are largely oral, and partake of an individual nature which, in the later grades, goes with the careful study of text-book and city charter. The older students are often taken to the different city departments and there made acquainted with the general methods in vogue."

The lessons that go by the name of civics when taken up in isolation as eighth grade and high school studies, are, as a rule, formal and technical in character—a sort of skeleton study. This cannot be said of the Brooklyn High School course, however, which starts from a historical sketch of Brooklyn, and studies local life and conditions with considerable exactness and research. Defects and problems of American cities ; other modern cities, Glasgow, Birmingham, London ; the ancient Greek city-state ; Brooklyn's future government, are other topics ; thence to the county, the state, and the federal government. This is followed by a short course in political economy. Civics and economics are taken up in conjunction at the Cleveland Central High

School, in the Chicago high schools, and in other places. Excellent work is done at Brookline, Mass., in the study of local history, the origin of local customs, and the evolution of forms and methods of government.\*

(4.) Patriotism. After the first few days in New York, one visiting the schools begins to feel that there is too much exposure of the flag, almost to the point of detracting from the sacredness of the national emblem. The flag appears on all fine days above each public school, not to speak of the numerous other buildings which are not public schools. But New York, one has often to be informed, is not America; it is cosmopolitan. In inland and western cities there are flag days, commemorative of great events in national history, upon which the flag is hoisted, and which give it meaning and educative value. New York requires the more continuous floating of the symbol of a new nationality for the sake of impressing its constant stream of new comers, and those who are already staunch Americans have to suffer a familiarising of the flag which they would not for themselves prefer. The flag is known to have had a great effect in building up a national sentiment in the Southern States. The ceremony of saluting the flag, frequently taken on one morning of the week as part of the opening exercises, is not only extremely serious, but the spirit of it is thoroughly entered into by the children, and is commonly accompanied by a patriotic song—"Guard the Flag," "Hail Columbia," "The Battle-cry of Freedom," "The Star-spangled Banner," "The Battle Hymn of the Republic," or "America." The last is sung to the same tune as the British National Anthem, and begins:—

My country 'tis of thee,  
Sweet land of liberty,  
Of thee I sing;  
Land where my fathers died,  
Land of the pilgrim's pride,  
From every mountain side  
Let freedom ring.

The superintendent of Seymour, Connecticut, describes the method adopted in the schools of that city, as follows:

On the morning of every flag day the large flag is run up on the pole. The children observe it, and are expected to ascertain what national event is celebrated thereby. During the opening exercises each teacher questions her pupils on the subject until an accurate answer is given. Then she gives them a brief talk on the significance of the day and its event, and the exercises close with the singing of some patriotic song, which, by the way they all know by heart.

This method saves the wear and tear of the flag, makes it

\* Two prizes are given annually in the senior class of the Brookline High School for the best original contributions to local history. Some of the essays are published as small pamphlets, and are extremely praiseworthy efforts. Cf. the prize essay for 1897 on the "Brookline Town Meeting



less common in the eyes of the children, and prevents it from being regarded as a mere ornament.

Most teachers are careful to bring the idea of patriotism to bear upon the near and immediate duty.

Emphasis was laid upon this last point by the New York State Superintendent of Public Instruction in a recent address:—"I want a patriotism which is good every day in the year, and which means an understanding of public duty and a determination to perform that duty."

There is an increased demand for healthy patriotic instruction founded on the truths of history. "Patriotism," said the President of Leland Stanford University, to the graduating students of 1898, "is the will to serve one's country; to make one's country better worth serving. It is a course of action rather than a sentiment. It is serious rather than stirring."

The following statement is taken from the report of the Minister of Education of Ontario for the year 1899:—"Canada is fast making history for itself. Already the youth of our country realise the grandeur of their relations as citizens of the British Empire. On the 23rd of May last, the day before the commemoration of Her Majesty's birthday, the schools of this province, as well as of the other provinces of the Dominion, celebrated what will hereafter mark a step in the advancement of that unity of the Empire to which so much attention has been given of late years. . . . It may be presumed that hereafter its annual recurrence will be devoted to exercises of a patriotic character, like those of last year. . . . It must be evident that exercises of this character cannot fail to impress the children attending our schools with the great blessings possessed by those who have reaped the advantage of centuries of progress towards the highest type of constitutional government."

The patriotic exercises are taken in pleasing combination with the spring festival or "Arbor Day." The early hours of the day are given to patriotic exercises: at eleven, the ceremony of planting trees and flowers takes place: the afternoon is a holiday when the schoolboys turn out on parade in forty well-drilled companies, and take part in decorating the soldiers' tombs.

## CHAPTER XII

### INDIRECT MORAL TEACHING IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

Human knowledge, so far, at least, as the schools deal with it, has to do with the relations between man and man. The three R's are mediating helps in human intercourse; the three H's, frequently said to occupy the premier place in American education, stand for the preparation of the individual for such intercourse. Trained hand, head, and heart have much to do with

the higher social uses of the most elementary education. Hence American education does not profess to stop with the three R's. The mere ability to read is no part of a true education if the educator neglects to impart guidance as to why to read and what to read. To create a distaste for the "dime novel" is as important a duty as to give a mastery over the printed page. To acquire the power of expressing thought clearly and well, and not to be ashamed to express the best thoughts one has, is as really a part of education as the mechanical art of writing. As for arithmetic, President Eliot, of Harvard, believes that it is quite possible by teaching a boy more than he will ever require for use to sharpen his calculating propensities, and so, instead of subserving the ends of human intercourse, to feed his unsocial and speculating instincts. Dr. Rice, in the course of conversation, expressed the view that the school deals with the three R's simply to conquer them, and that they can be reduced so as to occupy only 30 per cent. of the school time without detriment. In order to establish his view, Dr. Rice has spent something like seven years over the problem, testing over 100,000 children.

He found that those who gave forty minutes a day to spelling and those who gave ten minutes claimed equally good results. He also found that so far as quantitative results were concerned children that belonged to "mechanical" schools came out as well as those as those that belonged to "thought" schools. The reason he gives is that the child thinks for himself, whatever kind of teacher he has; moreover, he lives in the world, and the methods of the teacher are not the only intellectual influences that play upon him. Social evolution would seem, in Dr. Rice's opinion, to have reached a point at which the three R's are capable of being acquired by the average child in two hours and a-half per day, thirty minutes for arithmetic, sixty minutes for language, ten for spelling, twenty for reading, ten for penmanship, thirty for oral work. This leaves about fifteen hours per week for other subjects. These subjects, as found in the majority of American schools, are literature, history and geography, nature study, art work, music and manual work. One's business at present is not with school curricula, but with moral education as emanating therefrom. Hence the references to be made to these subjects are only of a kind to represent the feeling of American educators as to the indirect moral teaching which they convey.

The superintendent of the Cleveland Schools singled out three directions taken by the educational movement in his city. There is the new interest in art as contributory to a complete education; the general softening of the methods and spirit of discipline; and a movement more gradual than either of these, but quite as real, to give the child a personal interest in study instead of trusting to the teacher to work everything with him. The last point implies that the studies themselves shall be such as to win him to industry. "The ethical motive which has to work *in vacuo* does not go far with the average human being." To secure attention, the content of

the subjects of study must have some direct interest. Granting this, moral influence may follow. "The schools gained a great engine for the teaching of truthfulness"—these are quotations from a class lecture by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler on Moral Education in the public schools—"when the scientific study of nature was introduced into education. Truth is the correspondence between thought or word and fact. In many subjects we cannot control both thought and fact, the fact being some years or some distance away. Nature study as a school subject helps to open the eyes and unbind the fingers of children towards their immediate environment."

"The habit of accurate observation and exact description, and the setting up of standards of action which have that accuracy as basis, is a habit of accuracy which is at bottom a habit of truth." This habit is "as fundamental as anything can be to social order, inasmuch as we are more and more dependent on other people and on secondary sources of information." History has an ethical value inasmuch as "every human example of devotion to principle makes an appeal to our imitation." It is much the same with literature. The advantage of lessons which have only a more or less indirect moral reference is that the ideas last longer. Indeed, they "become more compelling with time."

So it happens in almost every American city that if one asks principals and teachers in what the moral training of their schools consists, they say that it is what they are doing all the time. At teachers' meetings the conversation frequently turns upon ways in which some part or the whole of the work may be made to foster the love of the good, the beautiful, or the true. (Compare with courses of study shown on pp. 122-128.)

1. LITERATURE.—The subject that is named first on the list of those having a moral influence is almost invariably literature. This implies something far more satisfactory for school use than disjointed readers. During the last fifteen years, according to Dr. McMurry, of New York, one of the foremost authorities on elementary school subjects, the tide has set in favour of literary wholes; now the youngest children have stories, and complete poems and prose pieces. Methods of teaching have been profoundly influenced by this change. Children reading from an illustrated *Hiawatha Primer* within the first week of entering school are but one illustration of this. The superintendent of the Brooklyn schools has invented a combined word and sentence method consisting of a series of readers accompanied by a manual for teachers. Other first grade readers following the plan of sentences from the outset, were examined with great interest, for example, a version of *Æsop's Fables*, and the first volume of a series of readers, entitled "Lights to Literature," containing stories of Confucius, Lincoln, and others; in this way the children acquire from the first something of the art of reading between the lines—what Dr. Harris calls "eye-mindedness"—and so learn to draw their own "morals." Another excellent first grade reader full of ethical suggestion is "Old Time Stories, retold by Children." Its purpose in common

with several other similar readers, such as "In Mythland," "Myths of Old Greece," "For Childhood's Days," "Round the Year in Myth and Song," is to acquaint children early with the heroes who have come down to us in song and story; and to create a taste for literature. The author of "Old Time Stories, Retold by Children" has followed out Dr. G. Stanley Hall's suggestions in his monograph, "How to Teach Reading," where he asked for "true child-editions, made by testing many children with the work piecemeal, and cutting and adapting the material till it really and closely fitted the minds and hearts of the children." Various stories were given to the pupils; discussion followed. After a time the story was produced orally by the children. Notes were made on expressions used and points of interest dwelt upon. Later the story was either written on the blackboard or mimeographed and put into the pupils' hands to read. The language in all the readers named is simple and musical, and likely to make children enjoy the act of reading. The writers evidently feel that little children are about them, listening to them; this is said, indeed, to be one of the determining forces in the new literature that is growing up in the United States; many are adapting themselves, in heart and spirit, as well as in mode of speech, to "The Listening Child." This is the title of a selection of poems for children used in the New York schools, the preface of which is an address to the children and closes with the words:—

"Some of you may be among the singers. But those who are hearers only, if they hear well and faithfully, will be doing their part of the work. For poets cannot sing to stupid or heedless ears."

It is in this environment of thought and aspiration, of desire to bring the charm of good literature home to the hearts of child readers, that Lucy Larcom has said:—

And I, for one, would much rather,  
Could I merit so sweet a thing,  
Be the poet of little children  
Than the laureate of a king.

Nor is it any cause for wonder that a tastefully devised edition of R. L. Stevenson's "Child's Garden of Verses" is everywhere popular. In one of the Rand McNally readers again, the aim is to present the best thoughts from many minds; and whilst living in the child's own world and leading him so see "that which is good and true and beautiful," at the same time, "to lay the foundation for an elevated literary taste and establish the basis of a correct literary judgment." [See also Appendix II., "Reading," and page 68.]

Geography readers, *e.g.*, "The Seven Little Sisters," who are really children of seven of the typical races of the world, and history readers, like "The Ten Little Brothers," start from the human interest, the instinctive sympathies of little children with children everywhere. The spirit of these simpler books is carried out for the third and fourth grades by the

Worcester superintendent, in a series called "Around the World," which aptly illustrates the American view that geography is not geography until man figures in it. The chapter on Switzerland, for instance, opens with the words, "Up among the Alps lives Jeanne," and the geography is introduced incidentally with the story of her life in the mountain farmstead, which brings in Mount Blanc, St. Bernard, the lakes, the chamois, the edelweiss, and the people's industries. One realises at a glance the difference between true geography readers and mere graded text-books.

The use of quotations for blackboard and class mottoes, bringing gems from different authors under immediate observation, has been noticed. There are several other ways in which the literary spirit is being cultivated which must be touched upon, however briefly. In a third grade class at Indianapolis, the points in the story of Odysseus were picked out by the teacher by asking questions, to which each child's reading in turn gave answer. In this way the story-interest was kept up, and each piece of reading became a source of information, rather than a mechanical rendering of printed symbols:—"Did all the princes return quickly and happily?" "But one prince named Odysseus," &c. "What position had Odysseus held in the army of the Greeks?" "Odysseus had been one of the wisest and bravest," and so on. In the best schools care is taken not to present poetry to the children until the images it deals with are already in their mind, and they are, therefore, prepared to recognise familiar knowledge in a new and more beautiful literary setting. Minneapolis stands out conspicuously for the excellence of its literature teaching. There the first poem by an author, say "The Children's Hour" by Longfellow, which is read in the first grade, is introduced by a word or two about the poet, who in this instance is spoken of as the "children's friend"; the object being to show that a writer of good literature is really a friend, an effort which is greatly helped by the fact that the "Perry pictures" include portraits of American and English writers which can be purchased for  $\frac{1}{2}d.$  and  $\frac{1}{4}d.$  One boy wrote to the primary grades supervisor of this city to say that he had sold newspapers till he had been able to save 4s. 6d., with which he bought the volume of poems by the Sisters Carey; next he bought the portraits of the writers, and what was specially noteworthy was that his favourite poem was really the best. "Give children a chance, and they are found frequently to choose the best."

Professor Baker who presides over the work in literature at Teachers College and Horace Mann School, New York, and gives special Saturday lectures to teachers, believes that the artistic effect of literature is its most abiding and satisfactory moral influence. And in the Forestville School at Chicago, which is very widely known for the way in which literature is made the mainstay of the school life and spirit, the principal says that she is getting more and more to believe that the general tendency is to underrate the æsthetic and literary instincts of children.

If these instincts are sufficiently appealed to and developed—if, for example, the children grow to appreciate a noble play, they have no desire either for dime novels or for ten, twenty, or thirty cent. shows. "If we are pessimists," she added, "we can do nothing in the matter. If we are optimists, we ought to give our best." At first the teachers in this school were told by outsiders that they were teaching stories and poetry instead of the three R's; to which the principal replied, "I am giving twenty minutes a day to literature; next year I shall give an hour. This year I give an hour to arithmetic; next year I shall give half an hour." A practical confirmation of Dr. Rice's theory—for here the children stand well in all their subjects—arithmetic included. "The children want variety in the lessons just as in their diet"—a point which will recur in the next section on curriculum and character-building. The response of the children themselves was partially indicated by the appearance of the seventh grade class room, which was decorated with pictures illustrating Greek life and art, which the class had collected the previous year, when studying the subject matter of the Iliad and Odyssey.

Literature has also been advantageously used in many places to enkindle a higher intellectual life in the teachers. A step of this kind was at the foundation of the early success of the Indianapolis schools. At Minneapolis, the supervisor of primary grades, had told her teachers that at the teachers' meetings the next year (1900-01) they would not study methods, but some of the finer poems. In this way they would be lifted out of the routine of school-life, which tends to a certain deadness, for they would be growing themselves, and so would inevitably create a higher literary feeling in the class-rooms.

Training colleges give much attention to literature. At Teachers College a number of classes are held, one of which the writer was privileged to attend; it is just an indication of the kind of work done, that after a careful study of the "Vision of Sir Launfal," one whole lecture or discussion was given to the moral teaching of the poem.

The Worcester Normal School is well-furnished with books on a great variety of subjects; each student is the librarian of one's shelf; there is no room which is called the library, but the books are placed in whatever part of the building they are most likely to be wanted. It is made as easy as possible for a pupil who wants a book to be able to get one. Strong work in literature, with the ethical bearings kept well in view, is being done also at the Oswego Normal School.

It is quite as much a part of the effort to bring literature near to the people, and especially to the young, to make it possible for school children to obtain books easily. In a Washington eighth-grade room, holding a class of 48 children, there were 26 small dictionaries, two large standard dictionaries, biographical and pronouncing dictionaries, and one or two encyclopædias; the "Encyclopædia Britannica" (ninth edition) is to be found in several

schools. Sometimes a grade will furnish itself with reference books by what would correspond amongst older people to sales of work. There are some excellent high school libraries\*; and city libraries, as a rule, grant teachers and pupils, not only every convenience, but every encouragement to make use of their books. The city librarian of Washington said recently that the public school children were his greatest patrons. At Worcester the public library sends books to the schools every two weeks; the principal's assistant, or some other member of the staff, collects the cards from the teachers indicating the books wanted; orders go in on Wednesday, and the books are brought on Friday. The children take the books home, and, as they generally bear in some way upon the school work, are often called upon to give a *résumé* of what the books contain.

In one of the poorest districts of Cleveland a school was visited where the teachers sign the children's cards of application for books from the public library; in the preceding four months about 600 scholars' cards had been signed at the school without a single complaint having been received about the books not being returned. The Minneapolis schools are regular receivers of books from the city library, 100 being sent out to each school every six weeks. The principal of the Sheridan School, situated in one of the poorer districts, keeps a record of the books most frequently asked for in the different grades. Books on American and English history are in demand as soon as they arrive at the school, and during the six weeks pass through many hands. The stories of the early colonies and their Puritan founders are preferred even to fiction. The most popular books in the seventh and eighth grades of this school are books of travel and history, and books on nature, such as "Our Common Birds," "Life and Her Children," "How to Know the Wild Flowers." Books that have been studied in the lower grades remain favourites throughout, such as "The Seven Little Sisters" and "Hiawatha." Between the third and sixth grades books like "Old Times in the Colonies," "On Plymouth Rock," "The Story of Columbus," "Old Norse Stories," "Stories from English History," "Boy Travellers in Central Africa," are the most sought after. Annual stories are general favourites. Peoria has an arrangement whereby schools at some distance from the library have each a small branch library of 100 books, which are changed fortnightly to the teachers' order. The Indianapolis library sends out parcels of 50 for the use of one or two grades which remain in the care of the school for a

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\* It will be remembered that in America the high schools are part of the public school system of a city or township. The proportion of public high school pupils to private (i.e., those attending denominational or proprietary secondary schools) is not as yet so large as in the case of elementary education; the latest figures procurable being 449,600 pupils attending public secondary schools, 103,225 attending "private" secondary schools. The high school movement is an outgrowth of the elementary school movement; and is so much in favour that in one or two cases (there are doubtless more) a board of education seemed to have crippled itself for a time by an almost extravagant expenditure upon a costly high school building or buildings.

whole year, parents often wishing to read them; the rule made by the school is that books are to be brought back each morning for the teacher to report on them.

A school in New York (No. 77) has a library founded by one of the pupils. Some trouble had arisen out of the presence of a number of dime novels in his class-room; the boy sympathised with the masters, yet saw that cheap novels would continue to be read if nothing took their place. He was taken ill, and his last thought of his school was to bequeath his savings, 300 dollars, which his father increased to 3,000, for the purpose of founding a school library. This was the first public school library in New York, and from it has grown a fully organised system of school libraries throughout the city.

The provision made by a city Board of Education for school-reading is in nearly all cases most generous. There seems to be a widespread custom of providing three or four required readers for each grade, and of having in addition, in sets of twenty, thirty, or forty, a number of "supplementary readers." These are sometimes used in class, sometimes taken home. By the care with which these are selected, the children unconsciously acquire a taste for good reading. The American Press is more sensational omnipresent, and pictorially (!) attractive than the English; and as a daily paper may contain the most incongruous mixture, some trained discrimination is wholesome, and one hopes, if only in a fair number of cases, permanent. Chicago was one of the first cities to adopt the system of supplementary reading, and the board appropriates from 1,000 to 2,000 dollars yearly to each of the eight school districts for the purpose.

The Cleveland supervisor of literature and English publishes for use in the schools\* a type-written list of the supplementary readers for each grade. There are 80 books on the list of the upper grades (fourth to eighth); 40 copies make one set of each, and there are as many as six sets of some of the books. A set remains in a class for about five or six weeks, and is then exchanged, an entire redistribution taking place three times a year. The books sent out are adapted to the individual schools as far as possible, the right of choice being left to the children to some extent. "The moral bearing of the books," said this gentleman, "is one of the strongest influences we have outside the living personality of the teacher."

One of the socialising uses to which a child's knowledge of literature is put is to train him from the very first grade to tell the substance of a story or incident to the class. One may often enter a class, and think for the moment that no work is being done; the teacher is sitting on one side and one child is "standing out before the class," the rest sitting still and silent. But one soon finds that the boy or girl is not standing there for punishment, but is telling a story he has read which none of the others know, or repeating a story which they have all listened to, but telling it in his own way. One very little boy was found telling,

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\* Fifty-nine in number.



as a reward for good work and behaviour, a story from "Grimm's Fairy Tales," which he had read at home. This story-telling by the children is done with much ability. It is oral composition *plus* the development of a social instinct. A teacher will often suggest that a story be told at home as a means of adding to the "general pleasure of the home life." Another form in which children give back what they have received is in the form of essays, or now and again in very effective manuscript magazines, and sometimes in printed school magazines. Articles from current magazines are sometimes brought by children to the school because they bear upon one or other of the lessons; others *e.g.*, the seventh grade of the Forestville School, Chicago, are expected to write a book-review each month, selecting any book they like, giving an account of its contents, and of how it impressed them. Another method adopted in this school is to have a calendar made by each of the children, with a quotation for each day of the year. Quotations are brought in by the members of the class to a common stock; each child is encouraged to bring in one contribution of his own, and it is a great honour if one of their contributions is considered good enough to have a place on the calendar. "It makes the children spiritual," was the principal's comment. The pupils in each grade of the Douglas School, Minneapolis, present either the principal or their teacher with a manuscript collection composed of the best work of each child in the room. The first grade in 1898 presented the Story of the Pilgrims as they had told it in their little essays. The sixth grade worked upon the story of Siegfried in a similar way, and "affectionately dedicated" the book of selected essays to the principal; each child having his or her own book of collected essays to take home. Similar things were seen in other Minneapolis schools. One of the second grade compositions in the Sheridan School was on

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

"I know an honest man. His name is Abraham Lincoln, and in summer he had no shoes on. He was very happy in the woods, and knew a great many things.

At first he had poor clothes.

Abraham Lincoln has made us like him, for no one does not like him. He used to write his lessons with a stick that had been burnt. Sometimes he wrote on a shovel.

Once he went a great many miles to a friend. He wanted to study out of a book.

Abraham knew some nice little stories. His mother told him them from the Bible.

Abraham Lincoln was a president of our country. I like to write about Mr. Lincoln."

The Franklin Elementary School, Minneapolis, has its own printed magazine, "The Franklin Republic," which contains selected pieces from the composition work done in the school, and is the organ of the "school city," publishing "recent laws made by the council" and other matters.

The best manuscript magazines were seen at Brookline, Mass. The contents of "The Attempt," the fourth grade magazine at the Edward Devotion School, for February, 1900, were:—My favourite picture, The story of St. Valentine, George Washington, Washington and the cherry tree, The little dog, Abraham Lincoln, The school, Three little dolls, H. W. Longfellow, Switzerland view, A brownie story, The pyramids, and St. Valentine's Day. The average age of the children in this class was between nine and ten. The fifth grade publish a school book of stories, which they collect and bind together.

These things are indications that the immense effect of literature upon the growing mind, as at once the completest expression of human life to the child, and the appeal to his fullest consciousness, is being widely insisted upon. "Literature," says Miss Cropsey, "is not to be used primarily as language-teaching, but for its influence upon character." "It is," said the president of the National Educational Association in his address in 1896, "one of the inspiring facts of our civilisation that the English language is so comparatively clean, and so true to the highest moral ideas."

2. ART.—The second of the great ethical forces playing upon the schools, which comes under the head of indirect moral teaching, is that of art. "Children should leave the elementary school with a great love for the best in art." Doubtless, there is a very decided tinge of emotionalism in elementary school education constituting a danger when allowed to prevail too long as a dominating feature of school education. Dr. Rice says, *e.g.*, in his book on "The Public School System of the United States," "When natural methods are philosophically applied by the teacher, the child becomes interested in his work, and the school is converted into a house of pleasure. When, on the other hand, the child is taught by mechanical methods, his mental food is given to him in the most indigestible and unpalatable form, in consequence of which he takes no interest in his work, learning becomes a source of drudgery, and the school a house of bondage." It would appear as if Dr. Rice, and many American educators, fail to see that a growing mind needs other ingredients in its food than the immediately palatable. Some one in America has coined the phrase "soft pedagogy,"\* and it is expressive of something that needs saying. But this truth is not stated here to detract in any way from the dignity and almost incalculable moral benefit of the movement which has swept like a wave across America from east to west, replacing barrenness with beauty, and making the very walls of the school-room vocal with messages from the past. All that it seems necessary to say here is that literature, art, and music, even with the three R's and manual training, may pall upon the taste if too exclusively pursued, and

\* Apparently, Professor W. James: See his "Talks to Teachers on Psychology," p. 109. What is said here has really more bearing upon the subject of the following chapter, the relation, namely, between curriculum and character-building.

that a seventh or eighth grade "house of pleasure" may be more intellectually and morally numbing even than "drudgery."

Fuller references to the way in which, by means of Art Associations, parents and friends of the schools, both in the United States and in Canada, are combining with teachers and pupils to fittingly adorn the school buildings, are made in a report presented to the Gilchrist Trustees.\*

The new feeling for art in the schools is more striking in some ways even than the attention devoted to literature. It is a further indication of the receptiveness and assimilative aptitude of the American mind up to the point at which it arrived at self-consciousness; from this point it began to react upon and Americanise what it received. A great evolutionary movement has characterised the world's relation to art. Travelling from the far East, where man's art is expressive of his subordination to surrounding forces, of his bewilderment and often terror in the presence of nature and her powers; passing through an intermediate stage in the Greek standards which make man a study to himself, place him on an equality with nature, and seek to express ideal manhood in forms of art; Christian art has emerged, and is fundamentally expressive of the triumph of man as spirit over all material surroundings. A growing conviction that art is a necessary element in all grades of education is noticeable in Canada and the United States; many going so far as to maintain that, if care is taken to develop this side of child nature, every child will be found to have some artistic faculty. Some of the finest examples of ancient, but more especially of Christian, art are placed before the children (at a very low price because the practically universal demand requires large quantities to be produced) in miniature reproductions. The Perry pictures are the best known, but the Prang and other publishers have excellent school reproductions.

The history of the movement is more or less familiar. In 1872 the people of Massachusetts resolved to avail themselves of South Kensington experience, but by 1880 it was found that the effort which had aroused the interest of the leaders of public educational opinion did not altogether satisfy American demands. The new ground taken up by Mr. John S. Clark, of Boston, and others, under the influence of the social and educational problems with which America found itself confronted, was that art was the utilisation of the facts of the material world in the interests of human development, social and individual, as well as commercial. "Art is the utilisation of nature for the highest needs and purposes of humanity." Modern social conditions have to be studied, and so far as art can go, solved in terms of art. That is the mainspring of the new enthusiasm which the writer traced from Boston through Toronto, Cleveland, Detroit, and Chicago, to Minneapolis, and which reaches across the continent to San Francisco. In a very real way, this is one part of the effort teachers and educators are making to solve the immediate social pro-

\* *Individuality, etc.*, pp. 218-223.

blems with which America is confronted. The following is taken from a statement of the position of art in education in an inaugural address before the Indiana State Teachers' Association, December 26, 1899:—

"In our eager haste for material progress we have lost sight of some of the finer things of life and have all too narrowly kept our minds and energies turned toward the purely practical as an end and have laid hold of the means that would enable us to reach that end most surely and most directly. . . . The present art movement grows out of the recognition of a need beyond the reach of science and intellect unaided. The people are becoming conscious of an abundant and beautiful inheritance into which they have not yet come. It is the high duty and privilege of the public schools of America to bring our whole people into full possession of this new-found inheritance of beauty. It is their special function to form a proper social life. . . . From the supremest moments of social experience as embodied in art, the public schools may bring to the life of the individual child the beauty wrought out and kept by humanity, and then turn him over to society capable of enlarging and beautifying social life, and strong to share in and enjoy the life thus enlarged and beautified. To so develop in a whole nation the universal art instinct that its people may come into the inheritance which the world of nature and humanity holds for them is an unusual task, but it is too sacred to admit of a thought of failure. In a varying degree the art instinct exists in every rational individual, making possible the bringing of the whole people into this inheritance of the beautiful."

"Beauty," says the Philadelphia Schools Report of 1893, "is a native element of the heart of a child." Dr. J. H. Canfield, of Columbia University, tells of the first spontaneous movement towards class-room decoration which occurred at Aurora, Illinois, several years ago. The darkest, meanest room in the darkest, meanest schoolhouse was chosen; the floors were cleaned, the walls tinted, and the place made generally brighter. When the children came back on the first day after re-opening, they stopped at the doors, hesitated about going in, and for the first week walked on tip-toe, and whispered when they spoke to each other. The class-room had become suddenly sacred to them. It is a sort of culmination of this early beginning that the latest book on "School Sanitation and Decoration," to which the writer's attention was more than once called, is plentifully supplied with suggestions of pictures (reproductions of which are given) suitable for class-rooms of different grade, and of other objects such as casts, vases, cut and growing flowers. The truth is everywhere accepted, and is acted upon in the ways just indicated, that "To look on noble forms makes noble thro' the sensuous organism that which is higher." Or, in the language of one of the leaders in the art movement, "Spirit is acted upon more through the contagion of what is itself spiritual than through the incentive of what is itself material. . . . The perpetually inspiring power of any truly great work of

art is one of the best examples of the truth of George Eliot's saying, 'Fruit is seed.'" One picture seen in almost every school that was visited, Hofmann's representation of the boy Christ, taken out from the group of doctors where he stands in the original picture, is doing more for American discipline as a silent inspiration to the children to strive to be good than can be well described. Yet the pivot-point of American school effort is rather what the child *does* than what he *sees*. The basic thought finding expression in American art teaching seems to be rather the converse of George Eliot's, namely, that *seed is fruit*, i.e. that the child's humble efforts to make something beautiful, expressive of a thought or of some admiration of his own, is itself the fruition then and there of a true child-instinct which holds within it the potency of noble living. "The world," says Dr. Harris, speaking of this theme, "is not for itself, but a cradle for the development of individuality." Beautiful work was seen in many places—Worcester, Toronto, Cleveland, Detroit, Dayton, but especially in Minneapolis and Indianapolis. In these two cities the art work of the children is a very successful expression by the aid of brush and pencil of the impulses stirred by observation and study of nature, helped by simple literary interpretations in prose and verse.

The supervisor of manual work at Minneapolis told of cases which had come to his knowledge, though not directly within his jurisdiction, in which brush work had become a most effective means of arousing interest in school duties generally. One principal in the roughest part of the city had said that if she had to rely on one subject for its disciplinary value she would choose the colour work, partly because, being done with the hands, it appealed to her pupils, but chiefly because the colour itself took such hold of them. To quote an example: There was a big boy of sixteen in a seventh grade class whose painting exercise was one day posted up in the class-room for its excellence as compared with his general school work. It was the first time that anything from his hand had been commended. When he returned in the afternoon he looked for the first time in his school experience as if he had taken pains with his personal appearance. His father had promised him that if he passed that grade he should go to the High School. The boy was bent on doing this and becoming an artist! The instinct for colour, however crude the product may really have been, was the means of "reorganising" that boy.

Very interesting testimony of a similar kind was given by the art supervisor in Detroit. The teachers find the incorrigible children often take delight in art work, and that it has become a means in certain instances of almost transforming a boy's habits, giving him something on which he spends his time at home instead of wasting it on the streets. Improvement in other studies, also, not infrequently follows the introduction of art work into a school. The disciplinary value of harmony of colours is coming to be seen; jarring colours being sufficient to

cause an irritability without either the children or the teacher knowing what causes it. [Mrs. Hughes, of Toronto, said in a public address before one of the School Art Leagues of that city, that the colours of a teacher's tie or dress might cause an unconscious irritation by jarring on the children's nerves.] A new capacity for admiration of beautiful work, new taste in dressing, and interest in home decoration have been noticeable results of the art work in Detroit.

**3. MANUAL TRAINING.**—Closely allied to the art movement in essential aspects is the interest now being taken in manual training. Most careful study is being given to this department of school work at the Ethical Culture School, New York, at Dr. Dewey's School, Chicago, at Washington, Minneapolis, Dayton, and other places. At the New York school there is a definite purpose to give ideas of construction in every grade by bringing the knowledge or information side of school work to bear upon the practical or manual and constructive. Thought and doing, idea and work, are held together in close association. The doing is to be as much as possible the child's own; the systematic manual instruction is the basis or the backbone around which the power to do grows. Round that as centre the children may make as many applications, or models, or plans as they choose so long as they contain the same operation.

The work is carefully graded and carried on throughout the entire school. In the first grade: twine-weaving and cord work, a continuation of some of the Kindergarten practice, a little sewing with coarse materials (which would not be introduced excepting that most do sew already, fine work with needle and thread being distinctly discountenanced, as implying too much nervous strain and too exacting a use of smaller muscles).

In the second grade, the children make things in connection with their history work, moccasins, snow-shoes, wigwams, canoes, bringing in just a little knife-work. [The course is a regular one from the educational point of view and is so adapted as to develop power, but to do so by making things which the children want to make on the spur of some other school interests.]

In the third grade: net-work, either as nets or bags, chair-cannig, sewing, basket-work cord-twisting for bag handles, and a little work with the knife.

In the fourth grade: basket-work, after the models of Greek vases, for both boys and girls, who here, however, begin to divide, the boys going to the workshop, and the girls taking up the sewing course. During this year there is some interchange, as the girls do a little shop work and the boys have half an hour a week at basket-work and netting. The girls follow on with plain and artistic sewing (fifth and sixth years); millinery, and elementary dressmaking. The pronounced aim running through the manual work at this school is to give it a place as part of the educational aim of the school as a whole. (See Appendix II.) Under the heading of art work, clay-modelling forms part of the course for the first four years, and reappears in the eighth.

The fourth grade boys are mainly engaged in learning to handle the tools, and to judge quantities and values, though even at that stage they begin to want to make things.

In the fifth grade the thought element begins to be introduced; each problem after being stated consists of three steps; the 'testing idea,' or principle, which is to be applied to the solution; the method; and the application to wood or metal. Similar work of more advanced kind, bringing in elementary questions of stress and strain, is carried out in the higher grades. The outlook from the manual training room is not towards a trade but upon life. "Life in the large sense is an activity; literature and information apart from practical ways of acting and expressing thought are only secondhand life; experience gives a child knowledge of himself and helps to build up character." It is quite possible for the literary side of education to go on ahead of the real life of the child; hence the need for the touch between thinking and doing, idea and work. If the school is actual living and not a process preparatory to living, the feeling must be given to boys that they are dealing with life itself. "A boy likes to deal with forces," as in the building of miniature bridges, boats, etc. Moreover, the manual room furnishes the boy with a purpose. He is full of the feeling, more or less near to the surface, "when I am a man I want to do this," which really means that, being a boy, he is being instinctively led to try to do it now; and "the world wants doers, not readers of magazines."

Sewing classes for girls were visited, which are animated by just this spirit. At the Dennison School, Washington, a room is set apart as the centre of the sewing work for eleven schools. There was an entire absence of the feeling that the children of eleven and twelve years of age who were busy there were "learning" sewing. They were actively living along the line of their interests. There was no dull predominance of whites and greys, but plenty of colour, even the celluloid pin-trays being of rose-pink. The children were dressed brightly and in excellent taste, and some were wearing dresses (amongst them two which were especially pretty and tasteful) which they had made themselves. Many of them were working to make dresses for children belonging to poorer school districts, even subscribing amongst themselves to buy the materials. This is certainly learning to sew, but it is also learning to live. An incident occurred in a coloured school at Washington which the teacher spoke of as "the first work of love we have yet had in the school." There was one very poor child in the sewing class, and the others determined to make her a dress; she herself worked on it, and it was fitted on her without her knowing their intention, and was given to her on Thanksgiving Day. Since then the child's mother had died, and the class was engaged in making her mourning. The girls' cooking classes sometimes open up ways in which the girls learn to live as well as live to learn. In one district in Chicago, for instance, no grocer kept wholemeal flour until the girls wanted it in their cooking class, and now no grocer in the district cares to be without it.

The best work that is being done at the University Elementary School, Chicago, side by side with the art work, is the textile and manual work. The children really puzzle out elementary industrial problems, and for this purpose they learn to work in groups. This phase of the manual work in many schools has been already spoken of in the section treating of the development of the community spirit. One of the most remarkable examples of spontaneous combination upon a phase of manual work occurred at Minneapolis, where, owing to lack of funds\*, the manual work has been for a time suspended. At the Franklin School, where there are no children beyond the fifth grade, the boys had combined together, and made a rough but usable bench bringing the material from their homes, as well as the wood from which they make articles for school or private use. Any teacher may call upon the children for simple articles, merely putting the dimensions on the blackboard, and the boys will make them. When this interesting manual self-training room was visited one boy was engaged upon lattice-work for the flowers on the window-sill in one of the classrooms; another was making an easel for a picture. The children are mainly poor, and the principal finds in the industrial work one of the great ways of appealing to the children's individuality, as well as of developing a social feeling. Other schools in the city have made a valiant effort to keep up the manual work, and the Board of Education has just decided to reorganise the work upon a new scheme, commencing with the first six grades, instead of, as formerly, commencing with the seventh. Washington does admirable manual work, from kindergarten to high school. There the conviction obtains that to introduce the training in the upper grades without previous hand training throughout the earlier school course is a loss of time, money, and power. A fair number of the special teachers in this city have the power, according to the supervisor's observation, to "grip the man in the boy" by appealing to his industrial instincts and to his ambition. This has been one of the chief aims of the supervisor in directing the work. In this phase manual training is consciously part of a broad theory of discipline to help to make boys manly by giving them ambition and self-command. The manual training room stands pre-eminently for achievement. "About half the men," said the supervisor, "appreciate the fact that they are teaching boys rather than a subject." As a result, when the war created a demand for men to work in the Government workshops, several of the Washington high school boys were sent for, and did first-rate service. The President of the Dayton Board of Education testified to the excellent effect of the introduction of manual training upon the *morale* of the schools. For one thing it has made many parents more willing to pay the school-tax, but the real ground of this has been that there were boys, some

\* This arose from a change affecting the municipal financial year and the time when the payment of taxes fell due. The Board of Education had been spending in advance of its receipt of income, and was for a time seriously crippled.



of them from the best families, who could not do much at their lessons, and whose whole deportment has been perceptibly improved. The value of manual work as a discipline for incorrigible boys has been proved in several places, some teachers of "special" schools for troublesome boys relying almost entirely upon a large amount of manual work for the hold they gain upon them.

The following is taken from the Course of Study for the schools of the City of New York :—

REVISED STATEMENT OF THE MANUAL TRAINING COURSE FOR  
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, 1899.

GRADES 1A AND 1B. FIRST YEAR.

*Freehand drawing*: Natural and other familiar objects; drawings illustrative of other branches of study.\*

*Colour and design*: The spectrum illustrated by means of the prism and colour charts, the six standard colours; use of colour in simple designs.

*Constructive work*: Simple forms with paper, splints, clay, etc.

GRADES 2A AND 2B. SECOND YEAR.

*Freehand drawing*: Natural and other familiar objects; drawings illustrative of other branches of study.

*Colour and design*: Colour tests and harmony; tints and shades in designs.

*Constructive work*: Simple forms with splints, paper, clay, etc., folding and cutting of simple forms and solids. Simple solids and useful articles, etc., with paper and clay.

*Sewing (Girls)*: In the second half of the year.

GRADES 3A AND 3B. THIRD YEAR.

*Freehand drawing*: Natural and other familiar objects; drawings illustrative of other branches of study.

*Colour and design*: Colour tests and harmony; tints, shades and hues in designs.

*Constructive work*: Simple solids and useful articles from drawings made with the aid of ruler; simple objects in clay.

*Sewing (Girls)*: See Sewing Manual.

GRADES 4A AND 4B. FOURTH YEAR.

*Freehand drawing*: Familiar objects and geometric solids.

Historic ornament (from the flat).†

*Design and colour*: Borders, rosettes, and surface patterns;

\* "Drawings illustrative of other branches of study" should grow out of the work in other subjects. They should be made when, in the judgment of the class teacher, favourable opportunities occur, and therefore should have no fixed period in the weekly programme. If, of the whole time allotted to Manual Training, thirty minutes a week be devoted to these exercises, abundant practice will be secured in memory, imaginative, and pictorial drawing.

† The Pang Educational Company has some very remarkable sets of coloured illustrations of historic ornament.

simple problems in surface decoration. In connection with designs, the study and use of colour.

*Constructive work (Boys)*: Simple solids and useful articles from mechanical drawings.

*Sewing (Girls)*: See Sewing Manual.

Optional Exercises (Boys and Girls).

Figure sketching and illustrative drawings.

*Modelling*: Natural objects from model and in illustration of other lessons.

#### GRADES 5A AND 5B. FIFTH YEAR.

*Freehand drawing*: Familiar objects and geometric solids; historic ornament (from the flat).

*Design and colour*: Borders, rosettes, and surface patterns; simple problems in decorative designs; simple conventionalisation of plant forms; the use of colour in designs.

*Constructive work (Boys)*: Simple solids and useful articles from mechanical drawings; familiar objects and geometric solids mechanically drawn in plain, elevative, etc. Elementary woodwork may be taken in second half of the year.

*Sewing (Girls)*: See Sewing Manual.

Optional Exercises (Boys and Girls).

Figure sketching and illustrative drawings.

*Modelling*: Natural objects from model and in illustration of other lessons.

#### GRADES 6A AND 6B. SIXTH YEAR.

*Freehand drawing*: Familiar objects, singly and in groups. Study of historic ornament from pictures, etc.

*Design and colour*: Free conventionalisation of plant forms and their application in problems in decorative designs; the use of colour in designs.

*Mechanical drawing (Boys)*: Working drawings of simple models.

*Shopwork (Boys)*: Elementary exercises and simple useful articles.

*Sewing and pattern draughting (Girls)*: See Sewing Manual.

*Cookery (Girls)* in second half of year: See Cooking Manual.

NOTE.—In schools without shops, boys will take a course in inventional geometry, knife work, or additional work in mechanical drawing.

In schools without kitchens, girls will take a course in inventional geometry or in advanced sewing and draughting.

#### GRADES 7A AND 7B. SEVENTH YEAR.

*Freehand drawing*: Objects singly and in groups. Study of historic ornament from pictures, etc.

*Design and colour*: Application of conventionalised plant forms in problems in decorative design; the use of colour in designs.

*Mechanical drawing (Boys)*: Working drawings of simple models.

*Shopwork (Boys)*: Exercises in joinery and their application in making useful articles.

*Cooking (Girls)*: See Cooking Manual.

NOTE.—In schools without shops, boys will take a course in inventional geometry, knife work, or additional work in mechanical drawing.

In schools without kitchens, girls will take a course in inventional geometry or in advanced sewing and draughting.

The Superintendent of Milwaukee, Wisconsin, published a statement of the number of cities having manual training up to 1899, based upon replies received to a circular letter of inquiry. Ninety-four cities having more than 20,000 inhabitants replied. Of these 50 had no manual training. It was to be found in the high schools only of eleven other cities (including St. Louis with a population of 638,000). Only, indeed, in Boston, Washington, Cleveland, Denver, and Camden did it appear to be organised throughout, from kindergarten to high school. Yet this is to a growing extent the American ideal. From the hand and eye work of the kindergarten to the research work in the post-graduate courses of the University there is an increasing disposition to make the hand the fellow of the brain, setting practice by the side of theory, concrete by the side of abstract, doing by the side of learning. Moreover, the list here referred to is far from exhaustive, as the published courses of study show that Minneapolis, Dayton, Brooklyn, and Orange (N.J.), of which the writer gained personal knowledge, might be added to the list of cities having constructive work throughout.

4. NATURE STUDY.—President D. S. Jordan, of Leland Stanford University, addressed the National Educational Association in 1896 on "Nature Study and Moral Culture." His words link on this study to the line of thought underlying the foregoing paragraph:

"The chief value of nature-study in character-building is that, like life itself, it deals with realities. Nature-study, if it be genuine, is essentially doing. This is the basis of its effectiveness as a moral agent." These words are quoted with a twofold purpose, partly because they state, from the standpoint of an eminent educator, the underlying parallelism between nature and life, noted by many writers from Comenius onwards, partly because they present the study of nature as an integral part of the training of intellectual and moral character. The directors of the Horace Mann School at New York have a threefold purpose in introducing nature-study into their course. It is "to prepare the individual for life by training his mental power of observation and of generalisation, by deepening and rationalising his emotional life, and by increasing his social worth."

The Superintendent of New York State is actively interesting himself in the formation of children's Nature clubs; the children go out on collecting expeditions, are encouraged to adorn the

walls of the school buildings with artistic pictures of domestic and farm life to beautify the home garden or school premises, and even to care for the public highway. One of the aims of the movement is to create an improved public sentiment with respect to country life, and to stimulate habits of thrift and of contented enjoyment of one's environment.

Similar effort is being made in Massachusetts. Referring to Nature-study in the lower grades the public document issued by the State Secretary for Education says:—"Here is one study, at least, where mere acquisition may be thrown to the winds; one study where the higher aim is not so easily missed—that of keeping the child in an ever-enlarging sense *en rapport* with the world that excites his wonder." In the same connection strong support is given to the efforts of the Audubon Society for the protection of birds, as meaning very much for the "boys and girls whose minds and hearts they tend to unlock." Mr. Warde Fowler, reviewing a book which hails from Minnesota on the study and protection of birds, said recently:—"If boys and girls can be taught to take an interest in the simple facts of bird-life, if they can learn the arts of protecting and encouraging it, they will in time become as much interested in the preservation of birds as in their destruction. It is no good to tell boys that bird-nesting is cruel; that is a frontal attack on their position which is sure to fail. You must take them in flank by rousing their interest in the living birds their habits of life, their food, and the other needs they have, the causes of their increase or decrease, their migrations, and so on. We want such an institution as the 'Nature and Arbor Day,' which the State of Minnesota established last year to be observed in all colleges and schools in the State, 'for the promotion of a spirit of protection to birds and trees and the cultivation of an appreciative sentiment concerning them.'"

What is intended is not the technical side of Nature-study. Much of this, it is believed, will come in gradually and almost unawares. Part of the course at Worcester, where Dr. Hodge, of Clark University, acts as supervisor of Nature-study, is to plant school gardens and grow flowers. Respect for plant life and for other people's gardens has grown there by leaps and bounds. Nature clubs are formed for the defence of birds; the children learn their habits and their uses and become their protectors. Cornell University has associated a Nature-study programme for schools with its University extension work by the formation of junior naturalist clubs and providing special teachers. It is thought that Nature-study in country schools may have the effect of deepening interest in country life and surroundings to such an extent that as the children grow up there will be less temptation to rush off to the cities. This would be an economic effect resulting from enlightenment and enlarged sympathy. Another social and economic result claimed for the study is that it prepares the way for a better mutual understanding and appreciation on the part of various classes of workers by awakening the sympathies of town children with

rural industries as well as with some of the attractions of country life.

One of the directors of this branch of work at Cornell\* wrote:—"Our Nature-study was introduced in the public schools with the view of interesting the children of the rural schools in some of the common things about them. It has developed somewhat in that direction, but the schools of the towns and cities have taken it up out of all proportion to those of the country. I have been trying to interest some children in England to organise junior naturalist clubs, hoping that the diversity of the two countries would give an exchange of compositions that would be interesting."

In a recent address on "The Love and Study of Nature as a part of Education," Dr. G. Stanley Hall refers to the ethical and spiritual influences of the study. Out of "science, art, literature, religion, and human history and society" nearly all the courses of study in the world have been framed, "and every one of them roots in the love and study of nature." The sciences have this origin; nature has been the inspiration of artists in all ages; "the same law holds in literature, provided we consider only those lands in which it had an indigenous origin;" . . . "hymn books of many faiths have been studied to show us how dominant natural objects and phenomena have been in shaping the religious consciousness of the world"; whilst from the side of human life and history, "to parody the old apothegm of the relations between the Old and New Testaments, in nature man lay concealed and in man nature stands revealed" . . . "Unity with nature is the glory of childhood." . . . "Here, as everywhere, the technical should be preceded and long preceded by the human interest generating studies" out of which more technical studies have grown. "Meteorology begins in child fancies. Children, like savages, see in cloud forms and colours everything with which they are familiar enlarged and glorified in the sky. . . All kinds of judgment day scenes, regal robes . . . battles, the forms of heroes and demigods . . . are seen and watched with breathless eagerness and interest by children in this great school, which has had more than any other to do in creating the imagination of the human race, . . . and has generated a whole body of weather lore and metaphors which still dominates human moods, so that the weather curve affects even crime and school discipline." In such words Dr. G. Stanley Hall commends the study of nature from the larger poetic point of view, and rejoices in the "revival of the love of nature abroad in the world to-day," as seen in numberless new books, magazines, and lecture courses.

A great deal is being said and written in America about the success of country-trained youths in building up city enterprises. Largely this is due to better physical endowment and a broader sense of liberty, but may it not also be due in part to the possession from childhood's experience of a purer mental

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\* Professor Bailey.

imagery? As though such a possession were felt to be of great moral and personal value, children in many town schools are being taught to observe and note down nature's changes with sympathy and wonder. In the kindergartens where seeds are sown, indoors and out, and where the chrysalis is kept till it becomes the gorgeous moth of spring, a beginning is made. In the grades, the blackboards often hold a record of the changing year. In one school-room a spring picture, drawn by the teacher in chalk and crayon had developed week by week from the frosty whiteness and stillness of winter as the children brought in tidings of the coming spring. The stream was set free from its mantle of ice; bud and bird, leaf and nest, and finally young birds appeared on the branches; fresh grass and coloured flowers grew in the meadow by the brook; and so winter's picture had changed stage by stage to that of spring. In another school, entries were made upon the blackboard in the writing of the children, who felt an individual interest in being the first observers, as follows. —

## Signs of Spring.

- Feb. 6.—Crows.
- Feb. 13.—Boys playing marbles.
- March 8.—Pussy willow.
- "   8.—LILAC BUDS BURSTING.
- "   13.—Woodpecker, etc.
- "   29.—A Caterpillar.
- "   " —Snowdrop.
- "   " —Crocus.
- "   " —Robin.
- "   " —Bluebird.
- "   " —A worm.
- April 2.—Girls jumping rope.
- "   " —A butterfly.

In New York State "Arbor Day" is observed on the Friday following the first day of May in each year. The Arbor Day annual for 1900 is a compendium of happy suggestions and inspirational extracts in prose and verse. In his address to the girls and boys of the Empire State, the state superintendent says: "I wish there were more days when you could lay aside your schoolroom task and go forth into the fields and woods, until, like Hiawatha, you have

'Learned of every bird its language,  
Learned their names and all their secrets.' "

A "State Flower" has been selected by vote of the children; on a second vote the rose headed the list by a considerable majority, but no less than 130 flowers were suggested in the open ballot. The suggested programme for arbor day begins with a responsive reading from the Scriptures on the lesson of the season, and contains songs, readings, recitations, and essays by pupils on five reasons for planting trees—(a) climate, (b) health (c)

economy, (d) birds, (e) ornamentation—followed by a marching song, "The Song of the Trees," and the ceremony of planting.

Some excellent mounts were prepared by the city borough of Brooklyn for the Paris Exhibition of specimens collected in the ordinary way of Nature-study rambles. The rambles were taken by pupils and teachers after school, all the high schools having them as part of the ordinary course.

Of the teaching at Indianapolis Dr. Rice says: "In the lower grades much more stress is laid upon the life of the plant and the relation of the child to the plant than upon its structure; and the child is taught how to preserve and to protect it rather than how to dissect it, so that lessons upon plants (and animals) partake as much of moral as of science lessons."

As an indication of what is meant by Nature-study in American schools, one may refer to the outline of the course of study in the first grade at the Horace Mann School, New York. Time: Three thirty and two fifteen minute periods weekly throughout the year:—

I. Garden work in the fall: Study of common vegetables planted in the previous spring when the children were in the kindergarten; the plant as a whole, making simple drawings; form of leaves and flower; seed forms; vegetables as food (if the vegetables are good, healthy ones, they should be given to somebody or made some use of, as for rabbits, but not wasted).

II. Trees. In the autumn, the oak (of which there are good specimens near); in the winter, the pine; in the spring, the apple tree.

III. Fruits, especially the apple.

IV. Squirrel and rabbit. (Squirrels are plentiful in the Central Park and in the University grounds close by).

V. Effects of frost: On plant life; on garden soil; on water.

VI. Effect of thaw, on the ground, the river, the twigs of trees.

VII. Sediment in water; comparing soil water and rain water after heavy rain.

VIII. The duck: form of feet and body; kind of food and shape of bill; covering.

IX. Garden work in the spring. Planting seeds as peas, beans, pansy, poppy, onion, asparagus (the plants to be studied in the fall).

X. Weather records—condition of sky, direction of wind, presence of rain, snow, fog, &c.

Minneapolis has a carefully worked-out plan for all the seasons of the year, whereby Nature-study is related to language work, literature, drawing, and constructive occupations. The course has as its aim "an intelligent interpretation and appreciation of the beauty by which we are surrounded," and that the teacher "shall so study nature with the children as to inspire in them a feeling of abiding interest, love, and reverence." This may be seen from the scheme of general lessons for the first and second grades issued by type-written circulars to the schools, September 1899. (The third grade follows more or less upon similar lines.)

## FIRST GRADE.—GENERAL LESSONS.

These "morning talks"—based upon observation supplemented by stories and poems—are for the purpose of awakening and arousing the mind and heart of the child. They thus afford the thought-basis of the day's exercises in oral language, drawing, modelling, industrial work, form-study (preparation for number), written spelling, and, so far as possible, of the reading lessons.

## GENERAL SUBJECT.—HOME; HOME LIFE AND ENVIRONMENTS.

1. Home love (mother, father, brother, sister, etc.); the home relations and duties (what is done for us—what we owe to and may do for others); home amusements and home pleasures.

2. Home plants (the familiar flowers, fruits, grasses, and trees); the familiar phenomena of nature (wind, rain, frost, snow, ice, etc.); home skies (sun, moon, stars, clouds); home festivals (Thanksgiving and Christmas); home pets (cat, dog, etc.); our heroes and our poets (character-ideals).

3. Home life among primitive peoples—the Indians and the Eskimos—as compared with our own.

September and October	{ Home Life and Environment, including plants. (See course of Study.) General Preparations for Winter. * Daily Phenomena.
November	{ Home Life and Environment, including special study of familiar fruits. (See Course of Study.) Thanksgiving, the Home Festival. Story of the First Thanksgiving in America. * Daily Phenomena.
November and December	{ Indian Life. The Lights of the World. Christmas.
January	{ Indian Life (continued). Sun, Moon, and Stars (continued).
February	{ Children of the Cold. Birthdays of Our Heroes. * Daily Phenomena.
March.	{ Home Animals. (See Course of Study). * Daily Phenomena.
April	{ Home Animals (continued). Awakening Life in Seeds: Buds; Roots and Stems. (See Course of Study.) * Daily Phenomena.
May and June.	{ Familiar Plants. From Seed to Flower. (See Course of Study.) Patriotic Day. Poet's Day. Friends of the Children.

\* Clouds, wind, dew, rain, frost, snow, ice, hail, etc., as opportunity offers.

## SECOND GRADE.—GENERAL LESSONS.

These "morning talks," based upon observation, supplemented by stories and poems, afford the thought-basis of the day's exercises in oral and written language, written spelling (dictation), drawing, modelling, and industrial work.



## GENERAL SUBJECT: LIFE—LIFE IN NATURE AND HUMAN LIFE

The general thought is a continuation of that of the first grade, but the "home" is now bounded by a wider horizon. The children are led to think of our country as our home: of those that made it possible for us to have homes here (Stories of Colonial Life); of those that have helped to make them what they are (Stories of our Great Men); of our poets and story writers as entering into our lives, and helping to make them bright and beautiful, by giving us happy and beautiful thoughts (Literature.)

Autumn and spring: Nature, with related literature.

Winter: Human life.

1. Acquaintance with a mode of living simpler than our own, but more complex than that of the Indians and Eskimos.

2. Character-ideals, as portrayed in history and in literature.

September and October	{ Familiar plants, "From Flower to Fruit." (See Course of Study.) General Preparations for Winter by Plants and Animals. Familiar Fruits. (See Course of Study.)
November	{ Familiar Fruits. Thanksgiving. The Pilgrims.
December	{ The Pilgrims. Christmas. The Christmas Tree.
January	{ Evergreens. Hiawatha's "Building of the Canoe." Pictures of Home Life. Carey Sisters.
February	{ Carey Sisters. Stories of our Heroes. (Washington and Lincoln.)
March	{ Animals. The Wind. Points of Compass. Awakening Life. (See Course of Study.)
April	{ Out-of-door Observation of Returning Birds. Nest-building. Other Signs of Spring.
May and June	{ Plants. (See Course of Study.) Daily Phenomena.

Throughout the year the daily phenomena of nature will be noted and discussed as opportunity offers.

The Superintendent of Toledo, Ohio, wrote:—"One of our main instruments in cultivating the higher nature of the child is our *course in general culture*. This occupies twenty-five minutes daily. The course includes Nature-study, general information, and literature. Nature-study is sub-divided into: plants, animals, minerals, and physical phenomena. General information includes some acquaintance with our national heroes, trades and occupations, civics, current events, geography and travel, business operations, biography and history. The course in literature includes some knowledge of standard authors and their works, folk-lore, fairy tales and myths, and historical stories. The work is very much simplified for the lower grades, and

teachers are instructed to use their best judgment in following the course, giving the children only what they can take easily."

5. MUSIC.—Interesting developments of method for adapting music to the schools are being studied at Washington and Minneapolis. At the latter place songs selected for their rhythm and melody are taught without books or printed notes for the first two years, a little formal study being taken up in the second year; the primary purpose being "to make life happier and more beautiful by translating part of it into song and to make life itself in its purer phases more interesting." The application of the spirit of the newer education to music is in its very earliest stages. At Chicago, some of the singing that was heard in schools was most melancholy, as though the music writers had been seized with the notion that there was something peculiarly æsthetic in a minor key. One had to listen to a "Vacation Song" of a most mournful character; and to another called "The Lonely Rose," of which the leading idea was in the lines, "O rose so fair, O rose so sweet, I wish we ne'er had chanced to meet,"—with music to match.

Excepting that something remains to be said about the kindergarten and its influence, this section concludes the general survey of what is known in America as the new education, new in practice as well as in theory. The whole movement is summed up in a few sentences taken from the American edition of Mr. Oscar Browning's *Educational Theories*, in a chapter added by the American editor: "As the nineteenth century came in, there were no appearances in the skies to indicate that a better day for the school was soon to dawn. . . . The discoveries of Pestalozzi were brought to America—the best soil in the world for them; no governmental authority had fixed the method of teaching, the teacher was free to employ the best. . . . To understand the views of Pestalozzi more clearly, Mr. Mann (in 1837) visited Europe; . . . he became an inspired educational reformer of the highest type. To no one is America so much indebted for the advancements made in common school education as to Horace Mann. . . . The effects produced by the impact of the Pestalozzian wave on the shores of America had been only partially comprehended and employed before the ideas of Froebel challenged attention. . . . The American school is no longer the crude institution it was half a century ago. . . . The dissemination of the ideas of Pestalozzi and Froebel has produced a type of teaching so widely different from that pursued under the old routinism, that a 'new education' has really sprung up."

[Note :—History is not referred to here, because it was seldom, if ever, referred to as a medium of moral education. See, however, pages : 51, 62, 123, 127, 128, 137, 138, 141, 142, 148-150, 165-166. Two striking phases of the teaching of history in American schools are referred to in *Individuality and the Moral Aim in American Education* (Longmans), pp. 226-7; with which compare page 242 of this report. The War of Independence occupies a large place in the historical consciousness of American children,

## CHAPTER XIII.

## CURRICULUM AND CHARACTER-BUILDING.

Under this heading the writer has to suggest the most serious criticism to which American schools at the present moment seem to be open. The prevailing æsthetic tendency of public school education, which has been evident in preceding sections, is corrective of the cold bareness and the stiff, drill-like character of the older education. These are things which ought to be done, but there are other sides of education, in the sense of a right upbuilding of manhood and womanhood, which ought not to be lost sight of. In the primary grades there is hardly any room for adverse criticism so far as the spirit that is being sustained and the methods that are being followed in the best schools are concerned. Even in these grades,\* however, the work will probably settle down upon its more permanent lines when some influence has been brought to bear upon it by improved conditions in the grades above. There are already movements towards such improved conditions in many places, but, as a matter of general observation, the upper grades fail to impress one with the feeling of vigorous and progressive life which is so marked in the lower grades. One explanation after another suggested itself, each apparently having some justification, for, having arrived at some more or less definite views after the first ten weeks of his tour, the writer was able to compare notes with several of the leaders of educational opinion upon the matter. His first thought was, that as American children are precocious (often almost a year in advance of English children of the same age in the first two or three grades) their work is not only relatively more striking in these departments, but that nature seeks to be repaid for the rapid development of earlier years when the child approaches and enters his teens. But, for obvious reasons, this soon appeared to be the least likely cause of the comparative falling off. Then, it seemed possible that the teachers might be more or less unconsciously infected with a feeling, which even parents were quoted as sometimes expressing, that a girl of 12 or 13 was at "such an uninteresting age," or a boy of the same years at "such a disagreeable age." One easily sees that the freshness of young children naturally takes a teacher out of herself; and there is no doubt whatever that many of the

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\* A brief comparison of American and English classification or grading may help to make the contents of this section clearer. The American "grade" here indicated is identical with the English "standard" or school-year. As a general thing, American schools have eight elementary grades or standards, the four lowest being usually called the "primary" grades, the four highest being the "grammar" grades. As will be seen, some districts have nine elementary or sub-high-school grades; New York has seven, each with two sub-divisions, constituting for purposes of promotion fourteen grades, through which a successful pupil passes in seven years. Immediately above the eighth (or highest grammar) grade is the high school, usually with a course of four years. School ages are therefore, theoretically—primary grades, 6 to 10; grammar grades, 10 to 14; high school, 14 to 18. Compare also the chart in Appendix IV.

ladies who are teaching the upper grades are weighed down by their work into too great a seriousness. Another partial explanation seemed to lie in the fact that attention of late has been almost wholly given to improving the style and character of education in the first four or primary grades. At one time, it seems, the opposite was the case. But Horace Mann directed his energies to the uplifting of the work of the primary grades, and the new education has come to be in the main a study of primary methods. The normal schools turn out excellent teachers of primary work, and these almost invariably go into the lower grades. The American normal school seems to have become an eminently humanising institution, cultivating sympathy and all that goes to make right-hearted teachers. As three-fourths of the children attending American schools are in the first five grades, certainly there should be no less attention given to what shall be best for them both in spirit and in practice. But the new education, which, so far as it is at present developed, applies mainly to the lower grades, is not the whole of education; this is a naïve heresy underlying much of what has been said and written about education in recent years, and here the secret of the weakness of much of the upper grade work undoubtedly lies. By way of protest there are some who go so far as to say that the whole influence of the new education has been to undermine the upper grade work.

Mrs. Ella F. Young, of Chicago, late a district superintendent of the city schools, and now on the staff of the Chicago University, was one of many to express the view that the work in the schools, in the change from the old method to the new education, does not sufficiently appeal to the mental power of boys when they get to 14, 15, or 16 years of age. In this connection one may quote also the names of such eminent educators as Commissioner Harris and Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler. The matter "will come out all right"; but so much thought has been given to bringing everything down to the intelligence of the younger children that the need for the mind itself to take hold of material and manipulate it has been partially forgotten. It is a part of this absorption in the newer movements that, although very many cities have a primary grade supervisor, few have a supervisor of the grammar grades. Boston has a member of the superintendent's staff who meets the grammar grade teachers regularly, and in Washington the supervising principals are largely responsible for this department of the school work. (These gentlemen are not, like the supervising principals of Indianapolis, principals of individual schools at the same time.) Indeed, if what is done in the lower grades is to have its best effect it requires to be followed up. Men are wanted who will study grammar grade subjects and methods as thoroughly as primary grade subjects and methods have been studied. Not only have the primary methods and the primary spirit overrun these grades, but the primary subjects as well. The work in the grammar grades, especially above the fifth, does not make sufficient demand upon the growing minds of children. It is a

foundation principle of grading that each new grade should imply real progress in respect both of thought and material. This condition is not met when children are kept working too long upon the same lines. The Ohio State law says that children are to remain at school until they are sixteen, and in most States fourteen is the limit; if girls and boys are to be kept profitably at school to such an age as this, the consciousness of progress should grow with their years, and should certainly be the main purport of improved school-standing. Where this consciousness is not fully aroused, the school fails in its appeal to the moral nature of its pupils. Stimulus is lacking, the sense of attainment and achievement at a standstill. This is an experience which no boy can have without suffering in character, in moral grip of himself, as well as in mental grasp. The late Superintendent of Indianapolis, Mr. Goss, writes with some truth:—

“The American public school, especially from the fourth to the close of the eighth year of school life, presents, aside from mathematics, no body of science or language which, when mastered, is a worthy possession as knowledge, or in the attainment of which there is acquired a subtle skill or the elements of a generous culture. These five years of our school life are the especial slough of despond. The curriculum of these five years is enough by its very poverty and paucity of idea to drive a vigorous boy into unreasoning revolt against school order, or if he be less forceful, to train him to indifference and unscholarly habit.”

The grammar grade course in the city where these words were written consists of arithmetic, leading up to a little algebra in the eighth (possibly in the seventh grade), grammar, composition, literature, spelling, history, geography, with physical geography, writing, some knowledge of book-keeping (“practice in accounts” and business forms, used as copies), music, painting, Sloyd, and some slight calisthenics. No geometry, no language, no science! No subject all along the line, including the step from primary to grammar grades, with which the pupil is not already on terms of nodding acquaintance, unless it be the mere elements of algebra, some facts in physical geography, and a new kind of writing-copy having a commercial reference. Of course, there is progress made along the lines of the other subjects, but for a boy beginning to cherish anticipations of manhood there is far too little to rouse him to sterling effort, and to justify four years' schooling after leaving the primary grades. There may be some plea of thoroughness as a result of attention to the three R's, but as Dr. Harris said many years ago, “the time consumed in securing such high standards of thoroughness would have been better used by the pupil in mastering higher methods.”

Repetition may be carried on *ad nauseam*. It is not unusual to see at the outset of the course for each grade in arithmetic “revision of all the work done in previous grades.” In one school, where many good things existed, the sixth grade teacher was getting weary of holding the children to the prescribed course, yet if she were to teach them a new rule the seventh grade teacher complained that there was nothing new for the

children to learn when they came into her grade.\* This feeling of going over and over the ground too often was referred to in more than one city, and in schools having excellent principals and teachers. Much may be done, as the director of the Ethical Culture School at New York† suggests, by giving new studies a place in some larger unit rather than splitting up the curriculum into a great number of detached subjects. The way to get in the nature work, and by means of it to give an insight into geology, botany, and some of the laws of physics, is, he said, to "make it geography"; there is then a dignity and progressiveness about it which is lacking if a time is set apart for separate nature study. Simplicity and economy of time may be duly regarded, and the opposite dangers avoided of having either an attenuated and diffuse primary education spreading itself over the upper grades, or an attenuated and fragmentary higher education adapted from the high school courses.

At present, also, there is the further side to the question that the separation between grammar grade and high school courses is far too great. Far too much of the drudgery of commencing new subjects is left to the first year of the high school, and many begin to suffer in health in consequence. It is a common testimony that it takes some months for the pupils to feel their way into the methods of the high school, and a great number leave at the end of the first year. This is seizing young ambition by the throat, and giving a quietus to many bright hopes; for boys and girls entering the high school have something of the feeling of students entering college—it is part of their career.

Dr. Talmage spoke in tones of protest of the "line of infantile wrecks all across the country"; and said that an address of his on the subject had brought him letters from parents in all parts of the country, protesting that their children were being pushed on too fast.‡ So, indeed, they are on entering the high school, but it is mainly because they have to make up for lost time. Meanwhile, this sort of outcry reacts upon education generally, and the schools, as a whole, are charged with overloading their curriculum. This may seem true in one way, especially to parents who take note of some of the things which children are set to do by way of remedying the want of substantially progressive features in the upper grade studies. Research problems in history and kindred topics, scissors and paste work in collecting scraps of information—excellent in moderation—, the tackling of problems such as the nationalisation of railways already referred to, which the average adult knows little or nothing about; all this seems like, and, indeed, very often is, giving food to the

\* For a description of new movements, such as close grading and individual promotion, which are being adopted to remedy such effects, see *Individuality*, etc., Chapter III.

† In this school German is begun in the fifth grade; just as in many English schools French or algebra or both are begun in the fifth standard. (For the course of study at this school see Appendix II.)

‡ What is more significant, medical men say that cases of nervous break-down, by no means rarely, occur owing to the strain during this part of the school life.

children which they cannot digest. But in reality it is more of the nature of an apology for the poverty of the course and the insufficiency of the demand it makes upon maturing minds, than an indication that the children are, in any real sense, "being pushed along too fast." The kind of "indigestion" the pupils have is like that to which an ambitious Scotch student is said to have succumbed, who made all his meals of porridge because he could not afford meat. Owing to the growing mass of opinion in favour of strengthening the curriculum in the grammar grades, and the variety of forms in which it is expressed, the subject requires rather more detailed treatment—first, as to the nature and extent of the evil, and, secondly, as to existing or suggested remedies.

The moral injury of keeping children to lines of study that have become stale to them is, in the writer's view, the chief cause of the observed inequality between the upper and the lower grades of the elementary schools. This injury is immediate so far as the pupils in the upper grades are themselves concerned; it is prospective in respect of the discouragement and difficulty encountered on entering the high school.

In the first place, moral injury arises from an inadequate demand upon the growing mental energy of children between eleven and fourteen or fifteen years of age.

(The average age of seventh grade pupils, according to the published tables of all the schools in one city, is 13.3 years, taken at the end of the year, in June; in another city it is 14.1, and in the eighth grade 14.66.)

Now, as "the grade schools are the colleges of the masses," one would think the education given in them should be as complete in kind and as thorough in mental discipline as it can be made, meaning by this that subjects should be included which minister to all sides of mental development.

But there are those who argue the other way. For example:—"The elements of this best education are two: First, the subjects which compose the course of study and their correlation; second, the fitness and influence of the teacher in adjusting instruction to varying conditions.

"When less than one per cent. of all the pupils in the country are in college or university, it seems futile indeed to fashion any educational system based on collegiate or university training. It would seem to be more in accord with our institutions and the spirit of our government and laws to provide first of all for the thorough training of every boy and girl in the United States in the elementary branches pursued in the primary and grammar schools. In other words, to say that every one of the 16,000,000 of pupils must pursue these essential studies required for a common school education, viz., reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, grammar, American history, civil government, drawing and the underlying principles of hygienic physiology. If you ask, 'Why insist upon this course?' the answer is found in the fact that thorough instruction in these subjects will meet the

necessities of life, and give all the education that ninety-five per cent. of the masses of our children can ever hope to obtain.

"If this course is to be enriched, let enrichment come through the equipment of the teacher. Let not higher branches be forced into the lower grades, to crowd, mystify, and produce superficiality. By a proper correlation of these studies time and opportunity will be found for thoroughness of instruction which will give to the child consciousness of power, and at the same time lay a broad foundation upon which he can build as high as may be possible. The minds of the children can be turned by the teacher toward the enjoyment which a knowledge of nature brings, and there can be instilled into their own lives that humane sympathy, that kindness of heart which will lead them to deal gently with everything that has life, whether it be beast, bird or flower, not from sentiment alone, but from knowledge. Through this knowledge all the children may in theory or in reality come to know the delights and romance of real country life, and the children whose lives will be spent upon farms can be led to know that agriculture is not a drudgery, but a noble science and the possible source of great happiness." (Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, State of New York.)

This writer has in view an education that shall be "sound, strong, and complete," and that shall discipline the mind in the right channels. But only the very best teachers can or do lift the greater part of this course of "essential studies" very high above the ruts of formality. Given the second of the two elements, the teacher whose insight is keen enough, knowledge wide enough, and disposition sufficiently elastic to adjust instruction to varying conditions, and a liberal education can be made out of any programme. But the great majority require prepared plans, containing in explicit form and in outline of subjects all the elements which are to enter into the mental training of the children. The fact that the graded schools are the colleges of the masses would seem to demand the toning up of the education which they offer rather than a too careful separation of elementary from more really disciplinary studies, especially when a school course of eight years is in question. "Very few persons change their methods after they leave school. Hence the importance of reaching the influence of the method of higher education before one closes his school career." And again, "Education never did its best for any child whom it did not lead into voluntary, interested, long continued, hard study—study till obstacles are overcome, problems are solved, and confused ideas made clear." It is the lack of this virile ingredient which is the moral flaw in all seventh and eighth year courses which are unduly overlaid with recollections of what was done in the first three years at school. Here, for instance, are courses for 1899-1900 of the third and seventh grades respectively:—

#### THIRD YEAR OF THE COURSE.

Directions.—1. Recitations not to exceed twenty minutes.  
2. Reading, ten lessons a week. 3. Spelling, five lessons a week.



4. Language and composition, five lessons a week. 5. Arithmetic, five lessons a week. 6. Writing and drawing, five lessons a week in each. 7. Music, fifteen minutes daily.

#### SEVENTH YEAR OF THE COURSE (HIGHEST GRADE).

Directions.—Reading, five lessons a week; spelling, five lessons a week; grammar, five lessons a week; arithmetic, five lessons a week; mental arithmetic, five lessons a week; drawing, two lessons a week; United States history, five lessons a week; singing, fifteen minutes daily.

Remarks.—Regular instruction in writing will be at the discretion of the teacher with the consent of the principal in the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades. Drawing may alternate with any other branch of instruction which, in the judgment of the teacher and principal, is most needed.

Another case is from the published courses of study for the same year in the schools of an eastern city, that just quoted being from the West.

	Third Grade.	Seventh Grade.	Eighth Grade.
Opening Exercises . . . . .	50	50	50
Reading . . . . .	500	100	100
Spelling . . . . .	100	100	50
Arithmetic . . . . .	175	275	300
Language and Composition . . . . .	125	—	—
Physiology and Hygiene . . . . .	20	45	20
Geography . . . . .	—	150	175
History . . . . .	—	175	175
Writing . . . . .	125	100	75
Drawing . . . . .	75	90	90
Music . . . . .	65	65	65
Nature Study . . . . .	50	60	—
Manual Training . . . . .	75	90	90
Physical Culture . . . . .	50	50	50
Grammar and Composition . . . . .	—	200	200
Recesses . . . . .	50	—	—
Dismissal . . . . .	50	50	50

The arithmetic is evidently the great stand-by of the eighth grade. The work in that subject is as follows:—

## EIGHTH GRADE.

Review percentage and apply the principles in practical problems.

Teach Simple Interest, using the six per cent. method. Omit Annual and Compound Interest. Continue with promissory notes and teach how to write orders, receipts, notes and cheques in a practical manner.

Omit True Discount and teach Bank Discount. Have the pupils make original problems.

Teach Stocks and Bonds, Partnership, Ratio and Proportion, omitting Exchange and Compound Proportion.

Teach Involution, Evolution, Square Root and its applications.

Omit Cube root and its applications.

Teach measurements of solids as suggested by the text-books.

A third example is taken from a city in Massachusetts. The geometry of the Ninth Grade is Hornbrook's Concrete Geometry, the aim of which is "to awake gradually, by simple and natural methods, the mathematical consciousness of the child, and to guide his perceptions in such a way as to lead him to lay a firm foundation for demonstrative geometry by means of his own observations and inventions"—a book which might easily be commenced in the fifth or sixth grade, and the whole easily accomplished along with a considerable amount of demonstrative geometry before the child leaves the eighth grade.

Grades.	III.	VII.	VIII.	IX.
Morning exercises . . . .	50	30	30	30
Language . . . . .	2 55	5	4 30	4 30
Reading . . . . .	7 40	4	4	3 30
Geography . . . . .	—	3 20	3	—
Mental arithmetic . . . .	(Number)	1 20	1 20	1 00
Written arithmetic . . . .	5	3 35	3 35	3 25
Book-keeping . . . . .	—	—	—	1 20
History* . . . . .	—	40	3	3 00
Writing (copy-books) . . . .	(Penmanship) 1 15	1 30	—	—
Drawing . . . . .	1 30	1 20	1 20	1 20
Sewing . . . . .	—	—	—	—
Music . . . . .	1 40	50	50	50

\* Including the elements of civil government in the ninth grade.

Grades.	III.	VII.	VIII.	IX.
Physical exercises . . . .	1 15	70	70	70
Physiology . . . . .	—	30	30	30
Geometry . . . . .	—	—	—	1 20
Physics . . . . .	—	—	—	1 20
Nature study . . . . .	1 20	—	—	—
<b>Total time . . . . .</b>	<b>23 45</b>	<b>23 45</b>	<b>23 45</b>	<b>23 45</b>

(a) Language includes spelling, sentence writing, letter writing, business forms, copying selections of poetry and prose from memory, compositions, technical grammar.

(b) A part of the reading should be for the purpose of cultivating a taste for reading.

(c) Physiology and hygiene are to be taught with special reference to the effect of alcoholic drinks, stimulants, and narcotics on the human system.

(d) The time required for lessons on patriotism, morals, manners, etc., is to be taken whenever a favourable occasion is presented for inculcating these virtues.

The physics course consists of such experiments in mechanical physics as comparing weight of body with that of water displaced, determinations of specific gravity, the lever, the pendulum, and the elements of optics, the laws of mirrors and lenses.

Another city shows reading, arithmetic (so many pages per annum from four text-books distributed over Grades II. to IX.), physiology and geography (yearly portions similarly assigned), vocal music and drawing, running monotonously through the nine grades, the only diversion being that geography appears to be dropped in the ninth grade, and that language makes its appearance in the fourth, and lasts throughout.

It is of the moral rather than the intellectual influence of such courses that one has to speak here, though now that we have learned to regard man in his wholeness, and not as a mere system of faculties and departments biologically integrated, there is a necessary interplay between the two. From the moral view of the case, if there is a time when, at any rate, boys, and most think girls equally, require to be raised to their full intellectual height and helped in every way to a sense of the dignity of healthy achievement, it is when they are at the age corresponding to that of the upper grades in American schools. Professor Burnham writes with much force upon this point in an article entitled "The Study of Adolescence" (*Pedag. Seminary*, June, 1891). "There is a great evolution of energy at adolescence that must find outlet. Activity is imperatively necessary. — Youth must be given an opportunity to do something . . . It is moreover the period for manifold activities. If ever

Herbart's many-sided interest may be aroused it is now. Balance should be obtained by presenting many things," Dr. Burnham is referring to more general activities and interests than those contained solely in the school curriculum, but these are included; and if at any time the mind itself should be trained to all-round activity, it is in the years just preceding those of youth. The worst possible thing to do is to pass a boy or girl through a school which bears the description of "being in a deplorable condition of dry-rot, owing to the extreme poverty of subject matter offered by the curriculum," and in this intellectually anæmic state to introduce him or her to a high school course bristling with new studies taught by unfamiliar methods.

There is the twofold ethical consideration—the evil that is, and the evil that is to follow. Taking the case of those who do not go beyond the elementary school, it is dangerous for the school to have lost its grip upon its pupils before they leave it. A boy ought not to go out into the world in a spirit of reaction; a large proportion of a city's outlay upon his education is wasted if he does, and the state and city laws making education compulsory up to fourteen years of age may even have an injurious rather than a helpful effect. So soon as school ceases to be a place where the boy can live to the full his intellectual life, training his powers of reflection, judgment, reasoning, as well as continuing in a more intelligent strain the informational and objective studies of earlier school years, so soon does the intellectual *character* of the boy suffer, with all that that implies in loss of well-adjusted will-power, balanced judgment, self-esteem, and high self-command. The danger is increased by the comparative absence of sound teaching methods in the higher grades. The lessons frequently lie loosely apart; "plenty of beads, but no string to string them on." The subjects already in the course would be better worth the time that is spent upon them if history and literature lessons, as a rule, showed more plan. The writer cannot recall a single lesson which even faintly suggested that the Herbartians are strongly represented in the States. Herbart's name was often referred to in connection with the moral aspect of education. But never was anything done which seemed to express a belief that the logical training involved in a right use of the five formal steps may be as moral in its influence as anything he ever counselled. There is plenty of give-and-take between pupil and pupil or pupil and teacher, the ability to talk is encouraged, but, as one New York teacher said, "orators aren't going to manage empires." Moreover, Pestalozzianism is of limited application in the upper grades of a school. In his widely read and widely approved article in the "Atlantic Monthly" for May, 1900, Professor Münsterberg says:—"I am not afraid to push my heresy even to the point of seeing with serious doubts the rapidly growing tendency towards the demonstrative method in scientific instruction. No doubt all such illustrations strongly appeal to common-sense; our happy children, the public thinks

see and touch everything, where we had only words on words. But the words appealed to a higher power than the demonstrations; those spoke to the understanding, these to the perception; those gave us the laws, these the accidental realisations. . . . I wish only to point out that even here, where the popular agreement is unanimous, very serious hesitation is possible.<sup>h</sup>

As to the existing or suggested remedies a word or two should be said. Three valuable reports have been drawn up by Mr. J. T. Prince, agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education, on a "Course of Study for Elementary Schools," the last of them published in 1899.

Out of sixty places reporting to him, mostly in Massachusetts, none have grammar before the fourth grade, 34 have it in the seventh, 51 in the eighth, 40 in the ninth; 4 have Latin in the seventh, 5 in the eighth, 12 in the ninth; 3 have French or German in the seventh, 2 in the eighth, 3 in the ninth; 6 have algebra in the seventh, 11 in the eighth, 22 in the ninth; 6 have geometry in the seventh (two commencing in the fourth), 8 in the eighth, 6 in the ninth. There are some interesting testimonies and expressions of opinion from various of the reporting superintendents, *e.g.*: "Some pupils who are poor in other studies have been encouraged by their marked success in Latin, and the average pupil has made a great gain in thought power, in English vocabulary, and in the technicalities of English grammar." . . . "The consensus of opinion of the teachers of the subjects (French, Algebra, Geometry) is that the pupils as a whole have gained by the introduction of the new studies. The studies from which the time has been taken for the new studies seem not to have suffered thereby." . . . "Previous to this year I have been somewhat incredulous in regard to the propriety of "enriching the course"; but the interest taken by the pupils and the promising results obtained immediately warrant the expenditure of time and effort." Many other such expressions of opinion are quoted, and Mr. Prince arrives at the conclusion that "an extension of the elementary school curriculum so as to include the elements of science, algebra, geometry, one foreign language, and manual training, is both wise and practicable." Both at Dayton and Cincinnati the assurance was received that the children who take German as well as English throughout the school course become the strongest pupils in the upper grades.

Few schools do better work in general subjects, and certainly not in art and literature, than the Forestville School Chicago. There the seventh and eighth grade programme of studies is as follows:—

2	hours	-	-	Latin.
2	"	-	-	Mathematics.
2	"	-	-	Science.
2	"	-	-	English Grammar.
2	"	-	-	English Literature
2	"	-	-	Music.
2	"	-	-	German.
5	"	-	-	Study.
1½	"	-	-	Drawing.
1½	"	-	-	Manual Training.
1	"	-	-	Calisthenics.
2	"	-	-	History.
25 hours.				

Dayton schools introduce problem work in geometry in the sixth grade. Some of the Cincinnati schools are, like some Chicago schools, endeavouring to bridge over the gulf between intermediate or grammar and high schools by putting back certain of the subjects into the graded school, Latin (two years), algebra (one year); in 1900-01 geometry is to be taken also.

In many quarters the opinion is entertained that the right thing to do would be, instead of having four primary and four grammar grades followed by a four years' high school or secondary course, to divide the period into two, with six years of elementary work and six years of high school work. This was spoken of by more than one high school principal as one way of avoiding the benumbing loss of interest with which many pupils now leave the elementary and enter the high schools. As a practical illustration of how something of this kind might be done, the Horace Mann School, New York, has adopted a scheme of special subjects for the sixth grade upwards; these occupy about one-fourth of the time in the sixth grade, the other three-fourths of the time being given to ordinary class subjects; the same proportion of time in the seventh grade when high school subjects are really commenced, four or five hours weekly being given to French; and about one-half of the time in the eighth grade is given to high school subjects.

Other ways of overcoming the difficulty have been tried. For example, the superintendent of Providence, Rhode Island,

wrote:—" We have in Providence two courses of study for pupils of the grammar grades, a *pass course* and an *honour course*. The pass course is not materially different from the usual course in American schools. The honour course includes the pass course and adds one subject each quarter. The time for the additional subject is gained by doing the pass work in arithmetic, language, geography, and reading in three quarters of the year instead of four quarters. Hence, some one of the above-named subjects can be omitted each quarter, and its programme time and study period be devoted to some other subject.

"In this way, besides the pass work, the more capable pupils do work in elocution, mental arithmetic (as distinct from and additional to the pass or regular work), civics, book-keeping, literature, algebra, geometry, botany, and physics."

Speaking of the organic relations of studies in human development, Dr. Hailmann, of Dayton, says that we may profitably distinguish between two great periods of instruction, which we may designate respectively the elementary and the scientific period of instruction. The first of these embrace the kindergarten and, approximately, the first six years of school life; the second embraces the last two years of the grammar school, the high school and the college.

There is, therefore, a considerable consensus of opinion in favour of strengthening the work of the grammar grades, so that it shall more nearly correspond to the mental power and moral need of children in the last two years of the elementary school. Brookline and Peoria add to the mass of favourable testimony. The committee of ten and the committee of fifteen reported in the same strain. All these different witnesses testify to their belief in the intellectual value of a completer course than yet obtains in most places. The reason for referring to the matter here is that where intellectual stimulus fails moral earnestness will also flag. The point is sufficiently obvious. The consciousness of progress is part of our moral making. Rob a child of it, and he cannot but suffer in character. Or, looking once again towards the high school, the power to make progress is a strength akin to virtue. Replace it by a baffled feeling, and in place of the strength there will be hurtful discouragement.

There is a question of a similar kind which one is driven to ask even with regard to the lower grades, though, considering the age of the children, in a much less emphatic way. It is whether the doing by the children of what they are perfectly desirous to do, because it is made pleasing to them, is in any complete sense a training of character. Eighty per cent. of the children are said to leave school at the end of the fourth grade.\* Will the education given in these grades be found to stand them in perfectly good stead in the tests of practical citizenship, which are probably as severe in America as in any country? Learning

\* This is quoted from a paper reprinted in the reports of the Commissioner of Education, and goes to show that the estimate in an earlier part of the chapter that three-fourths of all attending school are in the first five grades is under rather than over the mark.

may err even on the side of its pleasantness. Glad as one may be to see the bright and tempting side of lessons made much of, there should also be the ingredients which tend to the stiffening of the will. American education seems to be in some slight danger of being too sentimental, and (to quote an American opinion) of lacking thoroughness. Right and good as most of the points dealt with in the preceding chapters are in themselves, they do not seem to add up to a complete moral training. The emotions appealed to are elevating in kind; and it is not by any means in a sterner discipline that one would think to supply what seems to be lacking. It is rather in subtracting somewhat from a tendency to sentimentalism, and in adding somewhat to the intellectual drill as distinguished from intellectual pleasure. There are many Americans who say this or something like it. Some plead for direct moral teaching as a means to greater "moral robustness." But the remedy would seem to be in a more conscious grappling with difficulties, and in a more definite accomplishment of tasks. There seems to be too much of the child's doing what he pleases under the name of respecting his individuality; which almost amounts to forgetting in some measure that there are years of real immaturity, during which the child is not capable of wisely choosing and cannot know what is best for him. It goes without saying that the strongest men and women in education in America are far removed from any advocacy of the sentimental note in primary or any other grades. But certain things in the history of American education have tended to turn the current of thought and practice rather decidedly in this direction. To single out one or two of these. (1) In the hands of the right teacher the kindergarten is not only excellent but unimpeachable for *little* children; *applications and extensions* of it may be with great advantage carried upwards into the graded schools; but the "little child" treatment must stop somewhere.\* The Froebelian philosophy, so far as it is applicable, requires to be translated into new meanings before it is carried forward from the infant to the upper school. Even the great principle of self-activity needs to be more broadly interpreted so as to mean sometimes a constrained, in the sense of a prescribed, activity; the activity, that is, of a self in the long run sturdier and more enduring than the self which throws the reins to its own free instincts. The child, especially if his education is to be cut short at the end of the fourth year of school advancement, needs to learn in good time the meaning of work. (2) Then, child study in its earlier phases was accountable for much of the relaxing of the grip of the school work upon the child. There was a talkiness of a sentimental kind which grew out of the child study of the earliest days, of which practical American educators have grown tired. There still remains a sensitiveness and a Rousseauian tendency to give

\* In England it is more generally the opposite mistake that is made, by drawing too rigid a line between the infant school, with its often more highly educative methods, and the lowest standards of the elementary school.



"nature" in the sense of individual aptness and preference too much play. (3) Then there is the child himself, with his not altogether negligible inborn depravity, sometimes encouraged by his family training to think himself the best worth pleasing. (4) Add to these elements the too great preponderance of women teachers—freely admitted by this excellent body of teachers themselves—especially in cities where the danger is greatest, and from these causes taken together there grows a very possible danger that the education even of the primary grades may do too little to develop the fibre and sinew which only come by wrestling.

This latter point is mentioned tentatively rather than judicially, and the writer would rather erase it entirely than appear to doubt the rightness in the main of the life and spirit of the primary grades. His feeling of disappointment with regard to the grammar grades, where he looked for a continuance of this excellence, speaks in itself of his sense of their naturalness and charm. The point is further worked out in the chapter on Individuality and School Discipline; *Individuality, etc.* pp. 114-116.

#### CHAPTER XIV.

##### THE KINDERGARTEN AND ITS INFLUENCE.

There is one factor in American education which really calls for much fuller treatment than can be given to it in a general report, namely, the kindergarten and its influence in moral education. The kindergarten has already had a history in America such as probably no single educational system has had anywhere amongst Western people, if exception be made of the Renaissance standards as set up by Sturm and the Jesuits. It was the writer's very great privilege to meet many of the makers of this history and to enter into the spirit of their work. Madame Kraus-Boelte, Miss Blow, Dr. W. T. Harris, Miss Harrison, of Chicago, Superintendent and Mrs. Hughes, of Toronto, and the leaders of the work at the Pratt and Armour Institutes were amongst this number. These are not all of one school, and part of the present section must be given to stating the different ethical ideas pursued by the two leading schools of interpreters and adapters of Froebel's thought. As is well-known, the only infant school in America is the kindergarten, innocent of all intrusion on the part of the three R's in however simple a guise, and yet containing a preparation of thought and capacity which is of great ultimate value wherever the primary grade teachers are sympathetic towards the kindergarten work. This is almost always the case; indeed, many intending teachers take a year of kindergarten training as part of their preparation for primary work.

Two points must be referred to, however briefly. (1) The American adoption of the kindergarten and its influence upon education generally. (2) The two schools of interpretation of the kindergarten.

(1) The American adoption of the kindergarten. An excellent condensed statement of the present position and influence of the kindergarten in America is contained in the report of the Massachusetts Board of Education for 1899, which describes the kindergarten in its best state, as a school of superb commonsense, based on a philosophy which is really "for all ages and all sexes, for the child in its mother's arms, for the student in the university, for the workman at his bench, for the citizen in the State." Accordingly, what one finds is that one of the kindergarten mottoes, "learning by doing," is widely adopted. It is the key-word to the organisation and management of the large coloured schools and training institutes at Hampton, Virginia, and Tuskegee, Alabama. The late eminently successful director of education in Indian schools also is one of the ablest interpreters of Froebelian principles amongst American educationists.

"There is no bookishness," the Massachusetts report goes on to say, "in the true kindergarten. It holds the reins of the child's irrepressible activity. There is the tide of suggestions rolling in upon the child from without; there is the child's wonderful responsiveness to those suggestions; there is the never-ceasing interaction between the little world within and the boundless one without—feelings, emotions, ideas for ever impelling the child. . . . Out of it all the human will, in its mysterious way, emerges, grows strong and shapes the character. . . . Indeed, the kindergarten is society and the State in miniature. Here are possible the finest beginnings in social and in civic life. . . . It is important that the young teacher shall early grasp this philosophy, and this is why the State Board of Education has authorised the normal schools to include the kindergarten in their model and practice schools. The primary purpose is that every normal student shall catch from it something of the spirit of Froebel.

"The work of the kindergarten is done in that most effective of all ways, if not in the only effective way there is—that of having the child persistently and personally do the things that are fitted to promote his development along the desired lines. It is no wonder that a philosophy like this should overflow from the kindergarten to the primary school, and at length so work its way throughout the entire school system as to leave almost everywhere the impression, if not the conviction, that education for every child should take on a more personal and active character."

The social aspect of the kindergarten is commonly regarded by American educators as the fundamental one. It is, with the University, the "greatest conservator of individualism," but it is an individualism which looks out upon the larger social whole between which and the individual action and reaction, imparting and receiving, are ever taking place. The Froebelian games or "Mother-play" are thus the very heart of the kindergarten; from these its life flows and radiates; gifts and occupations exercise brain and finger, but the Kindergarten has been established, and is being established over a wider area year by year, princi-

pally for the sake of the ethical and social culture which it gives. How far this movement is coincident in point of time with the movement known as the new education is significantly shown in a table issued from the Bureau of Education. In 1873 there were, as reported to that office, 42 Kindergartens, with 73 teachers, and 1,252 pupils; in 1898 there were 2,884 kindergartens, with 5,764 teachers, and 143,720 pupils.\* An actual Kindergarten programme drawn up by Miss Harrison, Principal of the Chicago Kindergarten College, for use in her classes at the Chicago Normal School, will show the lines upon which these infant schools are conducted.

OUTLINE OF ONE YEAR'S WORK IN KINDERGARTEN WITH A  
NORMAL CHILD FIVE YEARS OF AGE.

Aim: To direct the emotions; develop the intellect; strengthen the will.

CHILD'S DEVELOPMENT THROUGH

I. *Language:*

1. Stories—Lift the child out of his personal experience into a larger world; direct the imagination; present ideals.
2. Songs—Awaken a sense of rhythm; develop a taste for good music; furnish a poetic form for expression of ideas.
3. Talks—Give child opportunity to relate his individual experiences, to sympathetically participate in the experience of others, and to gain power of expression through language.

Much of the nature work comes into these exercises.

II. *Games:*

1. Give opportunity for bodily activity;
2. Strengthen sense perceptions;
3. Develop social instincts;
  - through
    - a. Rhythmic games for control of body;
    - b. Sense games for training of senses;
    - c. Representative games for—imitation of life in nature; imitation of activities of man.

III. *Materials:*

1. Constructive, as—blocks, clay, folding paper, weaving mats, etc.
  - a. Stimulate observation of objects in environment.
  - b. Furnish means of expression through material, thus developing imagination, judgment, skill, accuracy, etc., and leading toward art.

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\* Including all kindergartens, public and private, Dr. Harris estimated that there were in this year not less than 200,000 children attending them.

2. Nature as—leaves, seeds, nests, cocoons, stones, shells, etc.

- a. Cultivate interest in and love for the life in nature; knowledge of processes of growth; thus leading toward science.

- b. Appeal to the æsthetic sense.

Through the use of these materials fundamental perceptions are gained.

1. Form—Solid: sphere, cube, cylinder, oblong, and triangular prisms. Surface: circle, square, oblong, triangle. Line: curved, straight.
2. Colour—Six standard colours, and black, white, grey, brown.
3. Number—Knowledge of numbers from one to ten. Number relations expressed by  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\frac{1}{4}$ ,  $\frac{3}{4}$ .
4. Size—Large, small.
5. Measurement—Long, short, thick, thin, wide, narrow.
6. Weight—Heavy, light.
7. Texture—Rough, smooth.
8. Position—Front, back, top, bottom, right, left.
9. Direction—Straight, slanting, curved. Points of compass.

SUGGESTIVE OUTLINE FOR A YEAR'S PROGRAMME.

SEPTEMBER.

*I. Home—Family Life:*

1. Family relationship.
2. Experiences of home life.
3. Nature families—animals, birds, insects.

OCTOBER.

*I. Preparation for Winter in Nature:*

1. Review of family life.
2. Plants—seeds.
3. Trees—leaves and seeds.
4. Animals—protection and storing of food.
5. Birds—migration.
6. Insects—cocoons, etc.

NOVEMBER.

*I Preparation for Winter by Man:*

1. In the home—food, clothing, shelter.
2. On the farm—harvest.

*II. Thanksgiving.* [Thanksgiving Day occurs in November].

DECEMBER.

*I. Winter:*

- |                      |                       |
|----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Moon and stars,   | } Beauties of nature, |
| 2. Frost, ice, snow— |                       |

*II Preparation for Christmas:*

1. By others for us.
  2. By us for others.
- Christmas celebration.

JANUARY.

*I. Time:*

1. Division of time.

*II. Co-operation through Industries:*

1. Trades — carpenter, blacksmith, cobbler, weaver, baker, etc.

FEBRUARY.

*I. Patriotism:*

1. Soldiers.
2. Washington.
3. Heroes and heroic deeds.

MARCH.

*I. Forces in Nature:*

1. Water { Utilised } Water wheels, mills, navigation.
2. Wind { by man. } Wind-mills, kites, sails.
3. Heat—melting of ice and snow.

APRIL.

*I. Awakening of Life in Nature:*

1. Flowing of sap.
2. Budding of trees.
3. Butterflies.
4. Return of birds.

MAY.

*I. Life in Nature:*

1. Nest building.
2. Gardening.
3. The farm.
4. Bees, ants, fishes, etc.

JUNE.

*I. Beauty in Nature:*

1. Flowers, verdure, cloud, sky, rainbow, sunshine.
2. Excursions.

The two strands—the child's environment in nature and his human relationships are carried through the entire year, continuity being the basis of the Kindergarten.

The first public kindergartens were established at St. Louis. So far as the adoption of the kindergarten as part of the public school system is concerned, Dr. W. T. Harris was the pioneer, his efforts being seconded by Miss Blow. And the report of the St. Louis superintendent (dated December 1899) still contains one of the clearest statements of the function of the kindergarten from the point of view of public education. "While the

great idea of the Kindergarten is based on the eternal verities of human life, of which the crown and glory is neither knowledge nor scholarship, but good deeds, all the educational work of the Kindergarten must be based on the study of the physical and mental possibilities of the child, and the laws of his growth. The best way of preparing the pupil for school and life is to adjust education to the child as he is, making that which is noblest and best in him unfold and grow through his own activity in play and work, and according to the laws of his own being. . . . Although the Kindergarten does not aim at instruction, the child learns much. There is hardly any place in the whole educational curriculum where in the same space of time, the child obtains, incidentally, as much and as valuable information as he acquires during his year in the Kindergarten. Notwithstanding that information is discarded as a direct aim, he receives the most valuable insights into life, and gains important elements of knowledge which subsequent instruction in the school is to deepen; an interest in the great departments of school work is indirectly aroused. The hand is made deft through play, and thereby writing and the handling of the pen and pencil become easier; the play with building blocks develops the idea of number . . . which is the groundwork of arithmetic. The eye is trained in the recognition of geometric forms, and the learning of the forms of the letters is facilitated thereby. The songs of the kindergarten enrich the vocabulary of the child and train him in the elements of literary language, making his future reading lessons more profitable and intelligible."

There are good kindergartens everywhere, and a great number were visited in passing from city to city. The best, probably, are at Toronto, where the happy bearing and quiet self-command of the children are especially noticeable. Kindergartens are an integral part of the public school system of Ontario. New York has a double system of kindergartens, those organised by the Board of Education, and those under the care of the New York Kindergarten Association; there are eighteen kindergartens conducted by this Association supported by public subscription or individually supported by single persons or clubs, such as the New York Lawyers, the New York Merchants, and the Neighborhood Club. At Minneapolis, Board and Association co-operate in two of the schools, the Board providing room, heating, and janitor's services, the Association providing the teachers. It is hoped, however, that the Board will be able to give the kindergarten a definite place in its system. Chicago had an arrangement for a time on the same lines as that now existing in the two Minneapolis schools; the whole work is now in the hands of the Chicago Board of Education.

In preparing her monograph for inclusion in the handbook to the U.S. educational exhibit at Paris, Miss Blow received, through the Boston Superintendent of Schools, 163 letters from teachers of the first grade, containing answers to the general question. "What, if anything, have you observed as to the

characteristics of kindergarten children as compared with other children?" About one in five of the answers tabulated were unfavourable, not a large proportion for a city in which old traditions naturally linger. The moral gains of kindergarten as compared with other children, indicated in these answers and briefly summarised by Miss Blow, are that they "are neater, cleaner, more orderly, more industrious, and more persevering. They are also more self-reliant, more painstaking, and more self-helpful. They are less self-conscious and more polite. They obey more quickly and are more gentle towards each other. They have a more developed spirit of helpfulness. They are more eager, alert, enthusiastic, and responsive. They are interested in a wider range of subjects. They have finer sensibilities, manifest love for and confidence in their teachers and show special interest in everything pertaining to home and family life.

The reports of superintendents in many cities bear witness to the morally educative influence of the kindergartens, and the Chicago Educational Commission (1897-99), whose report is a first-rate summary of the best things that are being done in American education, recommends (Art. V Sec. 4) that a kindergarten open to children from four to six years of age be established as soon as possible in connection with each school in the more thickly populated districts of the city, and ultimately in every school.

Dr. Lyman Abbott recently lectured at Philadelphia on "Religion in the Kindergarten." It is the one part of the public school where sectarianism is not feared.

The following outline of a kindergarten course is taken from the report of the Sioux City Schools:—

#### OBJECT.

To form an easy connection between the home life and school life of the child; to lead him to feel the unity of the universe, his relationship to man, to nature, and to God; to lead him to see that loving service is the true object in life.

#### MATERIALS.

Songs, games, stories, poems, the gifts and occupations of the kindergarten.

#### LESSONS.

1. Relationship of child to family through bird life, animal life, and plant life. Love and helpfulness the chief thought. Great love shown by doing for others. The Christ child.
2. Relationship of child to his neighbour through trade and commerce. Interdependence of mankind the chief thought.
3. Relationship of child to country through the lives of heroes and heroines of the past. True nobility of character the chief thought. Patriotism.
4. Relationship of child to God, the loving Father, symbolised by the universal elements of earth, water, air, and light. The return of spring symbolic of immortality.

Some difficulty is still felt, as shown by replies given by Boston teachers, with regard to the transition from the kindergarten to the primary school. But the whole tendency of the newer education is to bridge over this difficulty. The editor of the "American Primary Teacher" would solve it by saying:—"The more nearly the lowest primary grade can be like a first-class kindergarten the better."

At Sioux City an interesting experiment has been tried. The transition from the spontaneity and from the absence of restraint of the kindergarten to that of the closer discipline of the public school was felt to be difficult, so the plan was devised of placing the two lines of work alongside of each other; the forenoon was devoted to pure kindergarten work, the afternoon to the preliminary first grade work. Such has been the rapid progress of the pupils in these two schools, that while they only devoted half as much time to the public school work as the preliminary grade pupils, they have done as much in the public school work as those pupils who gave their entire time to it, and, besides, have received a thorough training in kindergarten work. It was believed that the helpfulness of the kindergarten in increasing the working capacity of the pupils would compensate for the half time which could only be spent on the public school work, and this view seems to be confirmed by the results. Striking testimony to the same effect based on actual school statistics, comes from St. Louis. (*Individuality, etc.*, pp. 198-9.)

The kindergarten teachers of the city of Newark have taken the matter into their own hands. They have worked in such close unity with the grade teachers that the kindergarten spirit is slowly but surely pervading the entire educational system. This was most noticeable in the celebration of the Christmas festival and in a 'Froebel' reception given by the kindergartners to the principals and first year teachers. Others fall back upon the idea of a connecting class. It has been tried in several places, and is said invariably to have been of great use in leading the children into good school habits. But without much doubt the final solution will be found in a common spirit animating the teachers of kindergartens and of the lower grades. Already students in training are paying attention to the kindergarten work, and the primary schools are largely infected with its spirit and imitating its practice. The Boston "Course of Study for Primary Schools" closes with these instructions:—

"The occupations of the kindergarten should as far as is practicable be continued in the primary schools. When pupils in first grades have had no kindergarten training, the ordinary material of the kindergarten, as prescribed for kindergarten pupils, may be employed. In the case of pupils admitted from kindergartens, the occupations should continue and extend the work of the kindergarten. Paper-cutting, paper-folding, constructive work with card-board, clay modelling, weaving, and the advanced gifts may be employed in connection with the ordinary lessons of the primary grades. Many of the songs and games of



the kindergarten are suitable for use in primary classes. When possible, the kindergarten class-rooms\* should be used in the afternoon by primary pupils for games and marching, programmes being so arranged that several classes may avail themselves of this privilege. All primary teachers should have a thorough knowledge of kindergarten principles and methods, and should endeavour to build upon the foundation already laid in the kindergarten."

One remarkable thing which was spoken of at the training college founded by Mrs. Hearst at Washington, as well as at Pratt Institute, is the good effect upon the health of the students taking the kindergarten course. Some of this is due to the freedom and grace of movement acquired through the games, consisting of song and action, which the students learn in order to teach them in their classes†; but quite as much is due to the setting free of social sympathy and of individual aspiration to which the kindergarten makes constant appeal. "As the inner character grows," said the Director of the Pratt Institute training classes, "the delicate ones grow well, and hard work does not hurt them." "We give the spiritual point of view from the outset, working not upon technical lines, from the outside, but by building up from what is within."

## 2. American interpretations of kindergarten principles.

"The student of current educational thought must notice a change in the status of the kindergarten. There was a time when the kindergarten idea passed unchallenged among progressive educators, and to prove that Froebel said thus or so ended all argument. We no longer find that unanimity of thought nor that deference to the dictum of Froebel."

In these words the Principal of the Blaine School, Philadelphia, refers to one of the most stirring questions at present debated by American educators. It caused the writer more anxious thought than any other part of the investigation. There are said to be three schools of Froebelians, the stationary, the evolutionary, and the revolutionary, though the last is, perhaps, too strong a term for those to whom it has been applied. The writer did not meet any who said that they belonged to the first class. Those who seemed nearest to it could more readily, and with more justice, be classed as evolutionary. The evolution of the Kindergarten in America follows two distinct courses; one outwards towards parents, children's nurses, and the general public; the other inwards by study, fresh applications, and experiments in the Kindergarten itself. The Chicago Kindergarten College stands out amongst Kindergarten training schools for the wide reach of its influence, and the number of associated departments. "That classes for mothers should come

\* The kindergarten only assembles for the half day.

† One of the most noticeable features of the American kindergarten movement is the remarkably earnest way in which teachers and adult students play these games, alike with the children and when met together in the children's absence.

into existence," says Miss Blow in her Paris monograph, "was a predestined phase of the Froebelian movement. Practically however, the work in this direction amounted to very little until a mother's department was established in that unique institution, the Chicago Kindergarten College. I call this institution unique because it has consciously attempted the transformation of the girls' college into a school for motherhood." The director of the college, who had been a successful teacher before her marriage, was led into the Kindergarten work by the need which she had found it to supply in the training of her own children. This is one phase of the evolution of the Kindergarten. It has ceased to belong solely to the professional educator, and to the children in the schools. The home has been reached, and mothers' meetings are held alike in connection with the Mission kindergartens of the poorer districts, and in high class kindergartens, where ladies of social standing, after an hour given to lecture and discussion, sit to the tables and make the same mistakes in the clay modellings and other occupations which their own children had been making earlier in the day. The writer had the privilege of witnessing such a meeting in New York, at which the discussion turned upon the moral and religious training of children, especially through their play and social activities. A typical evolutionist from the inner point of view, and rediscoverer of some of Froebel's laws is Miss Minnie Glidden, of Pratt Institute. The work at this institute had its source in the Chicago Kindergarten College, but owing to its contact with a technical institute has been modified somewhat. Mr. Pratt had, however, come to the conclusion, as a result of his observations in Europe, that the Froebelian idea lay at the foundation of all manual training. Accordingly, at the Institute the kindergarten finds a natural home.

The Armour Institute at Chicago, similar in general technical aim to the Pratt Institute, is the centre of the "free-play" movement in connection with the kindergarten. This is what has been called revolutionary Froebelianism. Whatever be said of this more radical exposition of Froebel's laws, the existence of the two schools of interpretation side by side show how really the kindergarten idea is being Americanised and assimilated. Even a stationary Froebelian is driven to have some better holdfast than the *ipse dixit* of the great reformer. The word kindergarten is no longer a proper noun signifying always and everywhere the one, sole, original, and identical thing. It is a common noun, and as such is assured of a more permanent place in American speech. This generalising of the name has come about as one result of the pedagogical strife between the claims for spontaneity and prescription; or, to use the terms of the kindergarten, between free play and directed play, and, in the occupations, free work and directed work. To judge from actual observation, there would seem to be a considerable amount of direction even about the free play and free work, and quite sufficient freedom about the directed play or work. The free play theory savours somewhat of Rousseauism. On the other hand,

it is a danger of directed play that it shall present an exaggerated idealism—exaggerated, that is, from the standpoint of the child, and so become in unskilful hands forced and unreal.

Naturally there is a great deal that is common to the two types of kindergarten. Little gardens tilled and cultivated by the children under the direction of their teachers, the care for indoor plants and for animal life, the use of the gifts, and of some of the kindergarten materials in the occupations, are points in common: many of the games, too, are similar. Moreover, the advocates of free play and free occupations claim to be following as truly in the footsteps of Froebel as those who accept his typical games and constructive occupations. Dr. Stanley Hall, for example, in an article in the *Forum* on "Some Defects of the Kindergarten in America," says: "I believe heart and soul in the kindergarten as I understand it, and insist that I am a true disciple of Froebel, that my orthodoxy is the real 'doxy,' which, if Froebel could now come to Chicago or Boston, he would approve." Dr. Hall includes amongst the great ideas which the educational world owes in whole or in part to Froebel, that "Froebel taught self-activity and spontaneity, and that play was one of the great revealers of the direction of inherent interest and capacity. He first saw that if the play instincts are turned on as the great motive power in school, far more can be accomplished, and that more easily and with less strain."

The substance of the criticisms contained in this article are contained in two paragraphs which are a brief statement of the position of the advocates of greater freedom from the pure Froebelian examples.

"The most decadent intellectual new departure of the American Froebelists is the emphasis now laid upon the mother plays as the acme of kindergarten wisdom. These are represented by very crude poems, indifferent music and pictures, illustrating certain incidents of child life believed to be of fundamental and typical significance. I have read these in German and in English, have strummed the music, and have given a brief course of lectures from the sympathetic standpoint, trying to put all the new wine of meaning I could think of into them. But I am driven to the conclusion that, if they are not positively unwholesome and harmful for the child, and productive of anti-scientific and unphilosophical intellectual habits in the teacher, they should nevertheless be superseded by the far better things now available." At the same time, Dr. Hall admits that they now have a certain advantage of position, because so much meaning has accumulated about them.

"Another cardinal error of the kindergarten is the intensity of its devotion to the gifts and occupations. In devising these, Froebel showed great sagacity; but the scheme as it left his own hands was a very inadequate embodiment of his educational ideas, even for his time. He thought it a perfect grammar of play and an alphabet of industries; and in this opinion he was utterly mistaken. Play and industry were then relatively undeveloped: and while his devices were beneficent for the peasant

children in the country, they lead in the interests of the modern city child, a very pallid, unreal life."

Since the article from which these quotations are taken was published, a very able reply to it has come from the pen of Dr. Harris.

A large part of the discussion seems to hinge upon the relation between kindergarten play and the whole of the play-life of the child; and between the kindergarten occupations and the whole of the child's attempts at manual construction. Is the kindergarten, as a public institution, to take over games which the children know from well-established tradition, and which by the very fact of their persistence answer to some of childhood's native instincts, such as games with "shells," "spools," "whips," and "pop-corn"? Or is the kindergarten, as introductory to an education in the public schools, to make a selection from the most universal and apparently typical plays of childhood on the ground of some recognised educational value, some principle of unconscious instruction through the orderly development of these plays, some ideal outlook upon society and a certain amount of ethical content? Again, with regard to the occupations, are they to be such as children everywhere follow by sheer imitative instinct—the making of doll's house furniture; of paint and varnish brushes for spring cleaning; the making of playthings, etc., out of material easy to find in the home? Or are the occupations to be relatively more abstract, more related to the æsthetic side of the child's nature, forming with the gifts a preparation for mathematics, a means of constructing the complex from the simple, and of discovering the possibilities of beauty in the elementary type forms, the square and the circle? Stated epigrammatically, the question seems to be, is the kindergarten an organised play-room or a school? In the former case, the kindergarten is practically of a piece with the occupied life of the child out of school; in the latter case, it is a distinct enlargement of the child's life and thought and outlook. To say that the kindergarten cannot be a school without trenching upon the wholesome freedom of children, and upon the development of natural powers which are awaiting expression, would be to contravene the spirit of the whole school movement, which, as has been seen, is rapidly building up a nationally American education. Nevertheless, in so far as some of the more closely Froebelian kindergartens create a forced atmosphere, overstimulating the individuality of children, and inducing an artificial consciousness of achievement, the criticisms of the "free play" school have weight. So great a student of child-life as Dr. Stanley Hall is not likely to have associated himself with this school of critics without observing much that would warrant his action.

The writer recalls one or two impressions which would lead to a similar view. But the existence, in a minority of cases, of a too pedantic following of unassimilated precepts, or of an overstrained devotion on the part of some young kindergarten teachers to a very partially understood theory, and one only partially worked out by Froebel himself, does not appear to be a

sufficient reason for abandoning the lines which, running through the Froebelian scheme as a whole, make it a coherent and progressive system. To take examples from observation in kindergartens of each type:—The drama of nest-building and of parent birds caring for their young is surely more worthy as a type of spring's messages than the effort to enter into the spirit of spring-time by making cardboard furniture vans for removals, and by going out for a walk to look for houses to let. It may be that the "free play" Froebelians would not exclude the former, but it is practically certain that the closer followers of Froebel would not include the latter. The school should lift the child out of the often meagre and uninspiring environment of thoroughfare and kitchen; indeed, the younger the child the more necessary and possible would this seem to be. Dr. Stanley Hall, in the address upon "the love and the study of nature," already quoted, himself pleads for the opening of the eyes and hearts of children to life in its more ideal phases. At the same time, the purpose of the "free play" kindergartens is not merely utilitarian; their aim is to cause the children to relive and to interpret as many of the experiences of social life as possible, and to appeal by this means to their constructive imagination, as well as to cultivate self-expression. "Our business," said the director of one of these kindergartens, "is to let the children handle simple materials, to begin to test their power, and to enable them to realise that every material in the universe has its possibility. The child comes into a world of tools and materials which have at first no relation to him. We have to train him in hand and brain till he knows and can say: 'Life has things in it for me; it says things and opens up possibilities to me.'"

There was no feeling in the mind of this speaker of antagonism to the older style of kindergarten. "The free kindergarten would have no foundation without the old; the old need not be fearful of superstructure; superstructure is not destruction." Moreover, there is no element of finality in the attitude assumed by the newer school. Dr. Stanley Hall says: "Let me confess frankly that I do not, myself, know at present just what should be done or just how this grade of education should be best organised. One of my dearest wishes is to have adequate means placed at my disposal to experiment a few years, or until I could present a scheme of detailed work"; and when he speaks of the child as "full of helplessness and incapacity" he does not appear to discountenance adequate direction. One great benefit which has accrued to kindergarten practice in America, largely from Dr. Stanley Hall's protests, is the use of larger gifts (two-inch cubes, &c.) and of less fine and exacting exercises (*e.g.*, the thin strips used in paper-weaving). The freely admitted nervousness of the American child is in danger of being intensified by demanding work of too exact a nature in the infant school.

On the whole, however, the vast ethical influence of the kindergarten has undoubtedly come, and seems likely to continue to come, from the influence upon the lives of little children of teachers trained to *direct* their work and play activities in the

infant school. Moreover, with regard to the relation between kindergarten play and the whole play-life of the child, as Dr. Harris has said in answer to President Stanley Hall, "Froebel was not seeking to invent a substitute for the spontaneous play of the child, but, on the contrary, to invent a transition from the home to the school." The kindergarten was not intended to be "an organised substitute for pure child play, and people," Dr. Harris adds, "will very soon see that it is a waste of public money to attempt to do for the child what he can do better if left to himself." It may be, and doubtless is, healthier to have two kindergarten types than only one; each will supply correctives to the other. But the games which will educatively take the child out of himself are not the "jumping-rope" and "pop-corn," nor is it clear that "occasional whistling would, of course, be admirable." Rather should the stress be laid upon dramatised nature-plays, or games full of social reference, which shall open out before the minds of the children a world of right and true social relationships, and leave to the out-of-school experience during these years the almost inevitable acquaintance with kitchen occupations and traditional games. It might be well in the most orthodox kindergarten to devote time occasionally to the interpretation of the children's street games and housekeeping instincts, and so follow to some extent the hint given by Froebel's more radical interpreters. Yet, when one comes to measure the amount of ethical training which each kind of kindergarten seems prepared and able to give, the more purely Froebelian school appears to advantage.\* In any event, the general effect of the kindergarten movement in America, of whichever type, has been and is to help, if not almost to create, a kindlier feeling towards children, and an increasing recognition of their individual capacities and dispositions.

There are ways outside of the kindergarten itself in which its influence is being felt. For example, the best technical schools, such as the Pratt Institute, the Armour Institute at Chicago, and the Massachusetts School of Technology (with its symbols—book and anvil—and its motto—*Mens et manus*), stand for the Froebelian combination of thinking and doing. The kinder-

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\* The whole of this chapter is written in, so to say, an American atmosphere, and has almost no reference to the introduction of kindergarten elements into the English infant school. A nature game, as most visitors to English infant schools must have observed, lives a very pallid life as a mere interpolation between more serious lessons, including the elements of the three R's. Certainly, under these conditions, such a game and even some of the kindergarten games having a social reference are not games in which the children take a natural and spontaneous delight. Many of these games depend for their interest almost entirely upon the thought and feeling which the kindergarten in other of its aspects supplies; morning talks on nature illustrated by objects, and from the children's observation of nature's changing aspects, or recalling a visit to a bakehouse, a store, or a smithy; occupations, devised to illustrate nature-stories or natural scenes; pictures hung low upon the walls of nature scenes or human industries, etc. When the games are not merely interpolations in the programmes, but, as it were, the outcome and efflorescence of the programme, they become far more real to the children.

garten has emphasised the intimacy of the relation between mental and bodily activity, until, as at the Armour Institute, there is a strong feeling against a one-sided education. Technical students have to take a fixed amount of literature, history, economics, and to study the principles of logic, ethics, and psychology. "To have a bare scientific and technical training with no humanistic element is to make half a man; here it is the man first, and the engineer second." This is believed to be the way to make the best engineers. It was in harmony with this aim that, though it was a technical school, there were pictures everywhere: these are often lent by wealthy gentlemen. A valuable painting by Rossetti, accompanied by a brief account of the artist, was so placed that no one could go into the mechanical engineering room without passing it; the president of the institute being one of the greatest art critics in America. If such things as these do not directly emanate from Froebel's philosophy,\* which has regard to the completest development of child nature, they are at least fundamentally the same in principle. Further, the endeavour to identify the individual with wider social interests, and so really to enlarge his individuality, is equally the aim of the kindergarten and of the humanistic tendencies of the technical school.

#### CHAPTER XV.

##### PLAYGROUND LIFE AND RECESS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

The conditions are, as a rule, more favourable to collective outdoor games in country districts than in the towns. In the former it is not at all uncommon for the younger teachers to take part with pupils in their games; but in the cities the costliness of playground space is a serious hindrance to the physical and, so far as the social play spirit is concerned, to the moral development of children attending school. The Newark superintendent, for example, says in his report for the year 1900: "The entire question of recess is practically much more difficult than it is theoretically. Nearly all thoughtful teachers believe that pupils, especially young children, should have periods of action and of play out of doors at frequent intervals. The conditions of the city schools have rendered this almost impossible. Many buildings have practically no grounds, and none of the larger buildings have grounds that are at all adequate as playgrounds for the entire school. A school of a thousand children would require a very large piece of ground, hence the ideal recess is an impossibility in large cities. In its place it is necessary to have frequent periods of rest and freedom and such recreation as can be properly furnished in the schoolroom." These words describe the conditions in a very large number of American cities.

In Canada, according to the late Dr. Rand, of McMaster University, Toronto, whose opportunities of observation throughout the eastern part of the Dominion had been somewhat exceptional,

\* Cf. the view held by Mr. Pratt, founder of the Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, just quoted.

a fair amount of attention has been given to the play-life of school children during the last twenty or twenty-five years.

To all appearance, excepting in the high schools, many of which have their playing-fields, there is not as yet much question in the cities of the United States of games out of school hours, the children going home at the close of school, and only returning in time for the next school session. Considerable attention is given, however, to the recess, and, more particularly in the primary grades, to physical exercises and directed games in the class-room. Some cities have provided supervisors of physical culture. Objections have been raised in the past to the recess on moral grounds. As an interval of loitering it certainly gave some cause for such protests. There is no general tendency, however, to abandon the recreation interval. As the Cleveland superintendent says in his report for 1899, "The struggle for life has its truces, or even the fittest would not survive. The child who has been influenced by motives to his last resource must be allowed time for mental recuperation before he repeats the struggle for mastery."

There are three general ways in which, for the most part, recreation is at present encouraged in American schools: The setting apart of a certain part of the school period for games directed by the supervisor or the teacher; the use of the recess; and the summer playgrounds and vacation schools.

To speak of the three points referred to in order. (a) The purpose of teaching games in school is, of course, to influence the out-of-school life of the children, and at Brooklyn, Washington and Cleveland organized playground games are being introduced with this end in view; just as little children have been seen playing kindergarten games in the streets, and have attracted attention by the grace with which they played them. The course of study for Grades I, II, and III in the city of Boston includes for physical training and recess from three and a-half to four hours a week; Grades IV. to IX. have sixteen minutes physical training daily and twenty minutes recess. The students in the Washington Normal College learn from the supervisor of physical culture games suitable for physical culture in the first three grades just as they learn singing and music; and in the schools of this city special visiting teachers give what are called health exercises from ten to fifteen minutes daily. It is a part of the duty of the supervisor and her assistants at Washington to teach games to the children of each grade. Similar work to this was seen also at Brooklyn. Brookline, Massachusetts, has also introduced exercises during school hours. In the "school report" for 1900 the superintendent writes: "This phase of education is yet in its infancy. It occupies but a small corner of the curriculum, and is yet regarded as something extraneous which might possibly be omitted. As the years go on, it can be seen that physical training, like manual training, is essential for the proper rearing of boys and girls in city communities where the opportunities for exercise and for useful work are greatly restricted. If we are not to become a decadent race we must



increase and diversify those means which insure sound bodies and a ready use of the motor powers. The entire school life and home life should be strongly tinged with systematic muscular exercise and with manual and domestic work. The physiological ground for this is indisputable, and the social claims are equally strong. A good beginning has been made here in physical training. Games for the younger children and Swedish and various rhythmic exercises for the grammar schools are well established." A physical instructor has recently been appointed at the Brookline High School at a salary of 2,800 dollars. The gymnastic exercises taken during school hours at the Girls' High School, New York,\* are a further admirable illustration of what is being done. The Worcester Normal School has an excellently fitted gymnasium. (b) Here too was witnessed an example of the use made of recess periods; intervals between work being taken up in dancing† or some other healthful relaxation in the large class-room, and the long day, to use the principal's words, being made "porous with these little snatches of recreation." Almost the entire school spirit and discipline in one Worcester school emanates from a very simple form of gymnasium which the principal has started for the use of the bigger boys during recess. The boys organized and paid for the gymnasium themselves, and have decided on a subscription of 10 or 15 cents at the beginning of the year, and 5 cents (2½d.) monthly. At the end of the year there is usually a surplus, which is handed over to the principal to purchase pictures for the school. Boxing gloves are allowed towards the end of the year, the principal wisely withholding certain portions of the outfit so that there may be something fresh to introduce from time to time. As a result of permitting boxing as a pastime, not a single playground fight has been known for fifteen years. At this school, the playground space being small, the gymnasium answers more than one purpose. It takes the bigger boys out of the playground during recess; it gives them physical training as well as self-command and social spirit. The organization of the gymnasium is left largely to the boys. At the commencement of each school year the boys almost invariably ask the principal when he is going to open the gymnasium. He waits till he sees twelve or fifteen boys whom he can trust; he calls these together to choose their own officers, and so the reliable ones are the first to receive the privilege. As soon as the officers can manage 15, five more are added, and so on until by the time the cold weather comes there are as many as fifty boys using the gymnasium during school recess, self-controlled, and conscious both of privilege and of responsibility. The "gymnasium" rules are made from year to year by the boys themselves. Another interesting and, in America, very well-known effort to make the best use of the period of recess is at the Phelps School, Washington. Games of various kinds are provided in the halls of the

\* Since 1900 the name of this school has been changed; it is now known as the Wadleigh School.

† They are all women-students at this college.

building, combining exercise with skill; a recess of five minutes is taken at the end of each hour, and during the midday recess, from twelve to one o'clock, the children are free to return to the school at any time. "Once," said the principal, "get children out of the way of being ugly to each other, it is amazing how good they are to one another; the big ones will teach the little ones to play. Sometimes the children ask to be allowed to take charge of the recess games themselves; they have a committee, and a superintendent of games, who holds office for two weeks. The way to make the children want to do right is to do right with them." A teacher passing freely amongst the children may go up to where a group are laughing and talking, but a conversation never stops because a teacher comes up. It is four years since anything unpleasant occurred in this way. The teachers co-operate with the children in getting up entertainments to provide decorations for the building, such as pictures and statuary, and the children learn to speak of their school with pride. A reading table stands in the centre of the hall on one of the floors, and contains a number of illustrated magazines; other books and periodicals are accessible in shelves.

(c) Owing to the great heat of the American summer a long vacation is necessary in the schools. But ten weeks of the heated streets, with no elevating influences brought to bear upon the children, and with no proper employment, have been felt in many cities to present conditions which threaten to undo the work of the school year and to cause physical, intellectual, and moral injury. Hence summer or playground schools have been started where play enters largely into the programme; but, as was said in a recent report of the special committee appointed by the Newark Education Society for the management of the summer schools in that city, "even children weary of continual amusement, and a large measure of instruction can be given in a disguised form. . . . Teachers should be trained with the thought of the infinite possibilities of play as an educative force." On this ground the committee advocated that the summer playgrounds should be taken over by the Board of Education, and the most suitable teachers selected. The work done in them is much less technical than that done in the ordinary school. "Children are taught to read and write, but special emphasis is put upon the study of nature and upon manual training, hence the children are busy and happy and well employed, and are gaining that which is of great value to them. Of these summer schools there were during the last season eleven (11), with an enrollment of four thousand three hundred and fifty-three (4,353).

"They were established in six school-yards, where young women skilled in the care of children were placed in charge. Various games and suitable occupations were offered to the children, and the grounds were always full when open."

The Washington superintendent, on the strength of an experiment made in one of the schools of that city, pleads for an

increase in the number of vacation schools; the activities in such schools to be "much like those of the kindergarten in general principle, but adapted to the age of the child." Chicago, Providence, the State of Massachusetts, and notably the City of New York, have taken steps in this direction. Philadelphia opens its school-yards as public playgrounds during the summer vacation for all children of school age. New York has been to the fore in this movement. In the first place, there is an Outdoor Recreation League, an outgrowth of the Social Reform Club, which has organised three open-air gymnasia with instructors and classes; for small boys on Tuesdays and Thursdays; for big boys on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays; for girls the early part of each afternoon during the year. Kindergartners go to these playgrounds after school hours to play with the children and teach them games. There are sand piles for modelling, and general outdoor games are played; there is also a special shed with baby swings, and a welcome rest is given to the "little mothers" who have to take care of younger children. With regard to the more general movement, the first report published by the Board of Education of New York City (Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx) on Vacation Schools and Playgrounds is an extremely suggestive and valuable document. In May 1897 the Board of Superintendents made a recommendation in favour of establishing a system of vacation schools in the city, the course of study to consist largely of manual training, reading, writing, natural sciences, and a special effort to be made to secure the use of the parks for the purposes of nature-study. A sum of 10,000 dollars was voted for teachers' salaries in the summer schools of the year 1898. In this matter, as in so many others, voluntary philanthropic effort had led the way, the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor having maintained vacation schools in the city for four preceding years: in these the course of study had included games, nature-study, literature, modelling, drawing in charcoal, ink, and water colours, picture-study, sewing, iron and wood work.

By resolution of the Board of Education in June, 1898, eighteen school buildings, mostly in crowded parts of the city, were set apart for purposes of recreation during the vacation months; and during the same summer twenty-four playgrounds were thrown open in districts which were remote from the public parks. There were 153 directors and assistant directors of the summer playgrounds. These met in counsel with the superintendents and supervisors four times during the season; the burden of their discussions being how to secure through play the following points: "(1) character building, the freedom of play affording better opportunity for development and training of character than the restraints of the classroom; (2) co-ordination of physical powers (as hand and eye); (3) development of physique." Over a hundred games were taught in different playgrounds during the summer in addition to gymnastic and athletic exercises. One of the schools was the centre of some very careful work in child-study. The general impression made by this experiment

is contained in a few words of the published report: "The 'play-ground' is practically a social settlement, started in the one place where it was most needed. These children have not had many opportunities of associating with cultured people before. I know of no other way in which one philanthropically inclined has an opportunity of doing so much good."

## CHAPTER XVI.

### MORAL EDUCATION IN COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

One part of the moral and civic training given in the country schools has been noticed in connection with the efforts on the part of Cornell University and the New York State Superintendent of Public Instruction, to introduce nature-study into these schools of such a kind as to create a love for the country and country life. The method of conducting this work was described by Professor Bailey, of Cornell University, in an appendix to a report on rural schools presented by a committee of the National Educational Association in 1897:—

"The plan of effort in this teaching was to visit two schools during the day, one in the forenoon and one in the afternoon. The arrangements were made in advance with the school commissioners or the trustees, and the fact that the speakers were to be at the schoolhouse was ordinarily announced some days in advance, so that parents and friends could visit the school at that time if they chose. The teacher was in every case willing to omit the regular exercises for an hour or two, in order that our instructors might take up the work of object teaching with the children. The motive in this work was to find out just how the pupils could be reached by means of object-lesson teaching, and just how much interest they would be likely to manifest in agricultural matters in case it were ever found to be desirable to introduce such teaching as a part of the district school work. The instructor would first explain the reason for his coming. He then ordinarily took up some simple object lesson. It might be, in one place, a stalk of corn which he had in his hand, and the process of growth of which he would explain from seed to harvest; it might be, in another case, the germination of a bean or a pumpkin seed; it might be, in another case, the habits or structure of a potato bug or some other insect; it might be, again, the reasons why there were knots and knot-holes in the wood-work in the schoolhouse; it might be a very elementary talk upon the different plant foods which are in the soil; it might be, in other cases, a very brief sketch, with charts, of some fungus; and so on. These exercises were uniformly well received by both the pupils and the teachers, and this work has, I think, awakened more inspiration in the minds of our instructors than any other attempt which we have yet made to reach the people. The teachers in the schools have without exception expressed themselves as willing and desirous of taking up some such simple exercises as a rest for the pupils two or three times a week

if only they themselves could be instructed in the proper methods of carrying on the work. In order to afford this instruction to the teachers, we are now proposing to issue a series of experimental leaflets on object lessons and place these in the hands of the teachers." [A great number of these have since been printed, and are eminently usable.]

"There is no doubt of the necessity for work of this kind with the children. The love or antipathy of the farm is engendered at a very early age in the minds of the young. This has been demonstrated in these October meetings, when we have asked those children who live on farms and who still desire to do so to raise their hands, and we almost uniformly find that the number who desire to live on farms is far less than those who actually do live on them. With these children, ranging from six to fifteen years of age, the question of pecuniary profits upon the farm has appealed very little, but they are influenced directly by the environments under which they are living. These environments must be improved; and if they are, there is every reason to expect that children will love the country better than the city. We have thought, therefore, that it is eminently worth while to instil the love of nature and the knowledge of a multitude of living things into the minds of the children. An important question here arises: What is to be the future of our rural schools and of the agriculture of the State if the present generation, as seems so clearly indicated, is not satisfied with rural life and feels no interest in maintaining or contributing to the agricultural and educational interests of the State? While many more rural schoolhouses must become deserted, there are thousands of children already in our cities who are deprived of school advantages because adequate room does not exist for them to get into the schools of the city. The further problem also arises of the difficult economic questions to be met in our cities as the result of congestion of population. The standard of teaching had been much improved in New York State. It had been gratifying to meet so universally teachers who are not only well qualified, but who are doing excellent work in their schools, and who have the true teaching spirit. Our educational forces are thoroughly efficient and well equipped, but there is a need of different application of our school work in rural districts. The life of the district needs to be changed, and it can in no way be so effectively done as through our schools."

In a further supplement to the same report, Colonel F. W. Parker writes upon the "Farm as a centre of interest." He sketches the actual experience of a farm boy in New England, — an ordinary child, such as you may meet anywhere in this world of ours; and the insight into various branches of knowledge which he gained. He studied geography, observing hills, valleys, springs, swamps, and the brooks running through the old farm; he knew in an elementary way the nature of the soils; he knew all the kinds of grasses, the weeds, and the flowers, the trees, and the different kinds of timber; the animal life of the farm was very close to him, the wild animals and the birds. "His

ploughing, hoeing, haying, digging, chopping, lumbering, his mending of sleds, and making of cider, sugar, lye, and soap, were all so many practical lessons in life which exercised his body, stimulated his mind, and strengthened and developed his purpose in life.

"He lived to become a school-teacher, and taught school earnestly and bunglingly for twenty years before he had even a suspicion of the value of his farm life and farm work."

In the same connection, a sectional report was drawn up having reference to the enrichment of rural school courses by including subjects drawn from the environment and from the life of the pupils. The postulates upon which this special report was based were—That children should be taught to gather culture, knowledge, and inspiration from everything with which they come in contact; that the study of the environment is especially effective in discipline and inspiration, since it is tangible, vivid, and impressive; that it serves as a bond between the out-of-school and the in-school life; that in time it will create a bond of sympathy between the parents and the school. "We assume that a school, to be a true *rural* school, must take tone and colour from rural surroundings, and must contribute directly to the enrichment and inspiration of rural life. We believe that this will aid in giving meaning and attractiveness to life in the country." Studies of the landscape, hills and valleys, streams, and soils, in relation to the location of dwelling-houses roads, villages, social and civil life of the people, vegetation; studies of plant life, animal life, and atmospheric phenomena, were indicated as specially appropriate to country schools; yet not so as to narrow down the course to the study of the near and the familiar. As the report elsewhere says:—

"The course of study of the elementary school, whether urban or rural, should contain those branches which give the child an insight into the physical world and the means of conquering it for human uses, and also an insight into human nature and the motives that control the actions of men. The child should above all be taught how to combine with his fellows to secure reasonable ends. The windows of the soul are to be opened by the five branches of the course of study, thus enabling the youth to see (1) the conditions of inorganic nature by arithmetic and the elements of physics and chemistry; (2) the conditions of organic nature by studying plants and animals, the land, water, and air, and, besides these, the means that man invents and uses to connect each place with the rest of the world—these things belonging to geography. These two "windows" look out upon nature. The three others enable us to see man; (3) literature and art as revealing human nature, arousing pure and high aspirations in the youth, and freeing him from narrow and mean views of life; (4) the study of the structure of language, as found in the several subdivisions of grammar and rhetoric; (5) history, which treats of the greater self—of man as a social whole.

"These five branches belong to all schools, for they relate to the substance of humanity and are necessary for entrance upon civilisation. There are collateral branches that each school should include, and some special attention to the elementary principles of the useful arts practised in the neighbourhood of the school—namely, farming, horticulture, grazing, mining, manufacturing, or the like.

"In general these collateral branches should relate to the pupil's environment and help him to understand the natural features of that environment, as well as the occupations of his fellow-men in the neighbourhood."

Important methods of grading and arranging the time-tables of country schools are omitted here as more closely related to the subject of the report to be presented on individuality in education. But one or two examples of the actual working of country schools and their character-making influence may be given here. The day before the writer's visit to the Worcester Normal School, a letter (which permission was given to copy) had been received by the principal from one of his old pupils containing a frank and unstudied description of work upon which she had just entered. The writer of the letter had had some school experience in the West, and, after a brief experience in nursing, had returned to the work of teaching. Her love for books on nature-study led her to apply for a country school. She wrote, therefore, of the charm of tramping through scenes with which the books she had read had made her already familiar—"This was what I longed for." . . . "I found the schoolroom dingy, gloomy, dirty, beyond words to describe; a north-east room, thirty children who had ruled the roost climbed in and out of the windows, left the room at all times, staying out as long as they pleased, who all talked at the same time, tumbled over each other at recess, threw anything and everything on the floor, made a business of answering back when spoken to. I planned my first day's programme with care. I talked with them about Sir Edwin Laidseer, and showed them a dozen of his pictures which I had mounted. The boys were interested in his dogs and deer and in his life. My prism I hung up in the window, and, though we have only three-quarters of an hour of sun, it seemed all the more beautiful to them. I soon had them all at work, and to end with I read to them a part of Ernest Seton Thompson's "Raggy Lug," telling them something of Mr. Thompson and his lecture which I heard. . . . They marched out quietly, keeping step!

"Desks were stuffed with all sorts of things. These were cleared out, and I burned a barrel of truck, which I picked up in the school-room. Saturday I hired a strong Swedish woman to clear the school-room. I have to do my own sweeping, build my own fire. This last week was a little easier. A cleaner, pleasanter room had a good effect, though I had to shake two boys, thoroughly too. Since then I've had little trouble, and have settled down to work in earnest. I have the grades III to VII.

children ten to sixteen, majority Swedes, one tough German boy, three Irish children, few Americans. They are bright and interesting . . . and now I have them under good control. People are much pleased with the improved condition of affairs. I taught six years, and never shook up but one child; here I had to shake up two the first day, but I shall never have to shake another child in this school. This is not the kind of school I wished for at all, but it is interesting. I opened their eyes to the blossoms of trees, and they are on the alert now for flowers and birds; and now that I am getting them interested in pictures, flowers, and birds, I anticipate little trouble. There is a good public library here, and no limit to the number of books one can take." [It is said that country libraries are becoming so common that in Massachusetts there are only three townships without.] "Think of being able to get yesterday Hamilton Gibson's 'Eye Spy' and 'Sharp Eyes'; 'Bird Life,' by F. M. Chapman, with seventy-five coloured plates, illustrated by Ernest Seton Thompson; 'Wake Robin,' by John Burroughs; and the New England Magazine for April. [It is of interest to note that the writer of this letter years ago bought herself a book of reference by picking berries to pay the cost.] Three boys read 'Wild Animals I have known' every moment they can get after work is done. If you could walk in some morning they could tell you many interesting things about Landseer, Rosa Bonheur, Raphael, and Sir John Millais, and delight in telling you the names of the pictures I have hung up. I mean these children shall have something pleasant to look back upon at the end of this term.

"P.S.—I took down eleven old chromos of fifty years ago, and quietly put them away."

This letter is copied because it gives a glimpse of moral education in actual process, and also because it is said to be typical of transforming work that has been going on in New England for many years.

The following description of the country schools of Ohio has been kindly supplied by Mr. G. A. Hubbell, of Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, who himself taught for four years in the country schools of Ohio, and only three years ago spent some two months in visiting Ohio schools, a considerable amount of the time being spent in visiting country schools. For five years he was at the head of the Normal Department at Antioch College, and was in personal contact and correspondence with a great many Ohio teachers.

"Ohio, one of the United States, has an area of 41,060 square miles. The State has 88 divisions, called counties, not uniform in size.

"Greene County, Ohio, has an area of 450 square miles, and is divided into twelve townships. Beaver creek Township has an area of 50 square miles. It is esteemed for the culture and enterprise of its inhabitants, many of whom own the farms on which they live. This township has no towns or cities, and but two small villages or hamlets. The township has been divided



into 13 school districts, giving about four square miles to each; near the centre of each tract of four miles square is located a neat and substantial brick building of one room, capable of seating in single or double seats from 30 to 40 pupils. The school begins in September, and continues for a period of eight and one half months. It is taught by one teacher, who gives instruction in the subjects required by law—viz.: reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, grammar, history of the United States, and physiology. The pupil attends school from six to fourteen years of age, or until he has completed the studies of the eight grades into which the work is divided. Whenever possible, class instruction is given, but, of necessity where the classes are small, much of the instruction must be individual. Here, as elsewhere, the teacher is the soul of the school, and it must be said that as a rule the teaching is good, and the students who leave this school make useful and self-respecting citizens. Many of the students desire to pursue their studies further, and for such there is provided a Township High School, free to all students in the township who have finished the work of the district schools mentioned above.

“The High School building is located near the centre of Beaver creek township, and is reached over good roads with horse and carriage from any part of the township in less than an hour's drive. The school building stands in a healthful grove, and on the grounds are stables and sheds affording ample shelter for the horses and carriages until the students shall need these for their return home in the evening.

“The High School has an excellent course of four years. Instruction is given by a head teacher and his assistant. The head teacher is also superintendent of the district schools, and with the teacher of each school determines the promotion of all students from that school.

“The High School has a well-selected library, which is used extensively by the students and by patrons of the school throughout the township. There is also considerable apparatus for experimental work in physics. Every student in geology is required to make a collection of minerals and soils from the rich deposits afforded by the drift, which covers this part of the State.

“It has seemed best to describe rather fully the country schools of a township where the graded system has been conducted under supervision with gratifying results. Although little more than a fourth of the State has township supervision, and the graded schools only are found under supervision, it is safe to say that a country school in charge of a strong, competent, and energetic man or woman does wonders for its students, and there are hundreds of such schools in Ohio. The teacher studies every child with care, and, with a knowledge of his home surroundings, he strives to rouse him to the highest ideals and efforts of which he is capable.

“Ohio has many small colleges, and the first thought of the teacher is to turn the eyes of his students towards one of these.

Growth in character and in power is made an individual matter, and many a man now holding a position of trust and honour in political life is proud to trace his first inspiration to the rural home or the rural school. Many an educator can trace his line of ascent back through German or American Universities down to the small but important beginning in the country school. I do not claim that all country schools are good, but I do claim that many a one is blessed with a teacher whose personality is an effective agency in inspiring the student to seek high scholarship and sound character."

The importance of the rural school problem in America is shown in a chapter of the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1897-98, in which city and country schools are compared. Only 25.3 per cent. of the children attending the public schools were to be found in cities of over 8,000 inhabitants. Moreover, cities spring up very rapidly under favourable conditions. Elwood, Indiana, for example, which now has a complete and well-conducted system of public schools, including a high school, had a population ten years ago of about 500; to-day the population is between 12,000 and 15,000. Very general testimony is borne to the fact of moral education being well cared for in country schools. In Michigan, for example, teachers are said to be often appointed in country schools, not ostensibly but in reality, for religious qualifications, for the sake of their moral influence on the children. Dr. Noble, of Chicago, speaking from experience in various parts of the northern States, said that a good deal of stress is laid on moral instruction, "especially in the smaller towns and villages where there is not as great a foreign element to be encountered." Dr. Porter, of Baltimore, bore similar testimony, and especially mentioned the Southern State of West Virginia.

## CHAPTER XVII.

### TRAINING COLLEGE ETHICS.\*

A brief word of reference to the ethical training in the normal schools and colleges (eleven of which were visited, as well as seven kindergarten colleges) is necessary, if only to vindicate the claims made for the predominating influence in moral education of the personality of the teacher. An opening out of the nature towards the ethical aims and the ethical spirit of education is one of the directions in which the efforts of those engaged in the training of teachers most consciously flow. The widening of the young teacher's horizon in the intellectual sense is not regarded as in itself the essential *training of the teacher*. A right love of the right things is felt to be coequal as a teacher's equipment with scholarship. Hence there is an encouragement of social instincts—the Worcester Normal School is eminent in this respect—a desire to make the study of child-nature lead to

\* See also pages 52, 94, 101-103, 183 ff.

interest in and love for children. "Child study with the child left out of it" was a hobby that soon ran itself down.

To have passed through a normal college is a distinct contribution to personal development. The moral and social outlook upon life and upon the school, which is cultivated during the period of training, reacts upon the teacher and helps to create the personality of which all educators speak. The necessity for a more generous scholarship is felt and freely pleaded, but amongst the influences tending to moral education in American schools an all-important place must be given to the spirit of the training which States and cities are giving to the teachers. Nothing need be subtracted from the humane spirit of these schools, but rather to enrich the intellectual soil in which this spirit shall grow. A complete high school course is coming to be stipulated for as a minimum of academic preparation before entering the normal school.

One important feature characterising the American training colleges ("normal schools" and "normal colleges") is the distinctness of their individual life, and also the emphasis, the more real and valuable inasmuch as it sometimes seems to be largely unconscious, upon the individuality of the student. The ease and friendliness of the relations existing between teachers and students; the readiness to hear the students' opinions; the strong sense on the part of the normal instructors of grappling with national problems, especially social questions, through the schools and through the teachers they are training for the schools, are indications of the way in which the professional training colleges are adapting themselves to the social need. With reference to what is said in the succeeding chapter, it is of interest to note that at the great Southern institutes for coloured students, the teachers in training are all required to take manual courses.

The clearest outcome of the writer's observations of normal schools and normal colleges was that instruction in methods is not the principal aim of these institutions. "Method is the expression of personality," and the training of the teacher is essentially the making of a broader-minded, more open-hearted man or woman. Examinations figure but little in the normal school courses.\* To quote one striking and well-remembered example: The Worcester Normal School definitely aims at the enlargement and refining of the social sympathies of its students rather than the attainment of academic distinctions. It was from the Worcester Normal School that the teacher whose letter was quoted in the preceding chapter went out. The same tendency is eminently characteristic of the work at the Chicago Normal School (as might have been expected inasmuch as it has been for several years under the principalship of Colonel F. W.

\* *Per contra*, a student in an English training college said with a sigh to the writer at the end of her fifth whole or part week of examination in academic subjects (with a sixth to follow) within twelve months: "We seem to be always being examined." These six occasions were in addition to inspection and examination in professional subjects.

Parker). It is not, as just indicated, that scholarship is held in low esteem; but taking one's stand for the moment by the side of such men as Locke and Arnold (exponents of the attribute which Dr. Harris selects as common to the English and American school), it is the fulfilment of their thought that learning is the least part of education. This principle would seem to hold true in an especial sense, when it is the education of those who are to be leaders and helpers of young children. (It must be remembered that comparatively few men are to be found in the normal schools of America; men are mostly to be found at the universities taking post-graduate courses and preparing for some of the higher positions in the profession.) Generally speaking, no attempt seemed to be made, after students were once admitted to the normal schools and colleges, to separate periods of academic and professional training, but rather to suffuse the academic life of the students with the professional aim and interest. The great characterising feature of the colleges is the outlook upon life in its active, purposive, or social phase; an outlook which amounts in some measure to the realisation of Thring's well-known words in his address entitled *Practical Thoughts on Education after Thirty Years' Work*. "Education means training for life. Lives, not lessons, are dealt with." [It harmonises in an interesting way with the spirit of the new (1901) courses for training colleges and for the teacher's certificate of the English Board of Education, appealing more directly to the personal initiative and taste of the student, to be informed by so high an authority as the late Dr. Rand of McMaster University, Toronto, that the largest progressive force in the direction of individuality in school life in Canada is being poured into it from the side of the preparation of teachers. This Dr. Rand spoke of as one of the most hopeful things in Canadian education.]

A very striking feature of American school life, heightening its normal value alike by the interest it engenders and by the intelligence and progressiveness of spirit which naturally follow from it, is the continuous training of the teachers at the hands of the city superintendents, the supervisors of special subjects; by their own wide reading of educational literature; and by their attendance at teachers' "institutes," and upon classes for which they often voluntarily subscribe. It is this which has impressed such writers on American education as Thring (*cf.* his address to the teachers of Minnesota) and Sir Joshua Fitch; and which gives practical effect to the progress of educational science in the everyday working of the schools. The function of the normal school or college is largely, therefore, to give a student his bearings; to give during the years when ideals are taking root a right outlook and inspiration; and in this sense as much as any other to prepare for a lifework in which, as in every true profession, each day's thought and experience is to be a means of greater efficiency on the morrow.

## CHAPTER XVIII.

## THE COLOURED SCHOOLS.

One of the interesting features of American education is the presence in the schools of the negro or coloured children, either side by side with white children, or in separate schools where large sections of a city are occupied mainly by coloured people. It is an advantage, so far as one can see, to these children to have separate schools where such are possible; for, whereas in the lower grades they keep pace with children of happier ancestry without difficulty, so soon as the primary grades are passed, and the children are eleven or twelve years of age, they begin to fall behind. This, at least, was the testimony given in more than one school where white and coloured children were being taught side by side. On the other hand, of course, separate schools accentuate the separation of the races. In separate schools the education can be better suited to the natural aptitudes and temperament of coloured children. More of the method and spirit of the kindergarten seems to be required, not in any childish sense, but in its relation to a well-conducted system of manual training. Knowledge requires to be linked on to the bright and more active phases of school life. Before the war, practically all that the negro had, whether he would or no, was manual training. Since the war, as one coloured school principal said (himself, of course, a negro), the manual training side has been too much neglected, and the education has tended to become too intellectual in tone and character. He spoke of good results of a moral kind in his own school from the manual work, which is taken up in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades. For one thing, it keeps the children longer at school. They become interested in it because they can see the results of their work in a way that is not possible in a grammar or a history lesson. A boy has been known to give his teachers a great deal of trouble until he entered the class where manual training commenced; from that time he did some of the best work, and entirely ceased to be troublesome. A contributor to the report of the committee on rural schools (Appendix J), writing from Alabama, speaks of "the necessity for modifying our courses of study and adapting our methods of teaching to the wants of negro schools. It remains to be seen whether the instruction of an infant race can proceed along the same lines and by the same methods as that of a race whose culture is based upon centuries of struggle and self-effort, without involving the violation of all sound economic and pedagogic doctrine." He enunciates a principle upon which America is acting in the case of Cuban education, that of enabling a race to work out its own social and intellectual emancipation rather than to rely upon extraneous influences.

"If the education of the negro is to be anything more than a veneer, the race must obey that great law of human development which makes voluntary energy the source of power and progress

The intellectual power developed must be energised by proper incentives into self-activity; it must be made reproductive within the race itself. It is not enough that the race shall be environed with all the accessories of civilisation. Its consciousness must be aroused, its powers energised, its sense of responsibility quickened. It must be taught to work out its own salvation, if its progress is to be real and enduring. The gospel must be preached by its own preachers; its schools must be taught by its own teachers. It must consciously realise its own responsibility for the effective use of the means at its command in the work of race development.

"The position of the negro as a race has heretofore been one of dependence. Lacking the virtues of thrift, foresight, and economy, he is still very largely supplied from the white man's table, and, in time of trouble, confidently appeals, and seldom in vain, to his former master for aid and relief. The negro wears his master's religion, and sometimes his politics, very much as he does his old clothes, as something entirely foreign and external to himself. By perpetuating this dependence, intellectual and moral, we acquiesce in a species of spiritual bondage that is almost as unfavourable to race progress as slavery itself. "Our real friends," says Emerson, "are those who make us do what we can." Judicious aid to a dependent people is necessary and praiseworthy, but, in my judgment, it should stop short of doing all their intellectual work for them.

"To cultivate in the negro the sense of intellectual and moral independence, such avenues of service as will enable him to effect the uplifting of the race should not be closed against him. He requires these as worthy incentives to arouse his ambition and to stimulate his sense of responsibility. To be the teacher of his race is the one position of honour, dignity, and responsibility to which he may legitimately aspire.

"Race identity is an important factor in educational work. The teacher and the taught must possess a common consciousness, a mutual affinity, as a condition of proper intellectual and moral growth. The teacher must embody in his personality the historic race epochs and processes of development represented in the pupil, in order that the intellectual powers of the child may be invested with that atmosphere of sympathy and appreciation necessary to their healthy activity.

"Again, white teachers in negro schools can never realise, even approximately, the ideal relation that should exist between teacher and pupil. This is forcibly true in elementary schools. That relation requires love, not philanthropy; affection, not charity; sympathy, not pity. Occupying planes so widely separated, spheres of activity so diverse, without common blood or social ties, common history or common interests, common origin or common destiny, a white teacher and a negro class will never realise the ideal school. In such a case the teacher cannot appeal to the inner life of the pupil, and the craving consciousness of the child finds no responsive chord in the teacher.

"The principles here emphasised are not restricted in their

application to the negro race. They are true in their application to the American Indian and to the Mongolian, to the Fiji Islanders and to the Kaffirs of South Africa.

The coloured people strike one as a peculiarly warm-natured race. They are true children of the sun, and nowhere does merriment seem more at home than on the faces of their youths. But for this, which seems to be an inalienable feature in their character, where, as some of their native educators ask, would they have been after their long period of enslavement? It seems, though it will be a difficult question to deal with—excepting as their own honoured and trusted leaders advocate it—essential that the race element should enter into the provisions made for their education. A true education for coloured children would be bright, full of movement, more like the kindergarten in spirit, and less formal and bookish.

Coloured children readily show affection for anyone who treats them with kindness. The principal of the coloured normal school at Washington said that there was never any corporal punishment either practised or necessary in the associated practising school, the children yielding readily to control by kindness. Washington has a separate system of coloured schools, in which over 80 per cent. of the teachers have been trained in the normal school. Several of these are taking kindergarten courses so far as school hours permit of it, the bearing of the kindergarten spirit and methods upon negro education being keenly realised. There was a remarkable ease about the discipline in the coloured schools that were visited, partly due to the large percentage of trained teachers partly to the fact that many of them have had early responsibilities at home in the care of younger children.

A curious effect upon home discipline has arisen from the new standards created by the normal schools, under the influence of the general American movement already described. At first the schools presented a discipline differing from that of the home in that it was less rigid and severe. But the strictness of the home government which followed immediately after the emancipation has now to a large extent given place to milder measures. Twenty or more years ago, if a teacher appealed to a parent to co-operate in a child's moral training, the parent would say, "Take and cowhide him"; when the teacher declined, and expressed a belief in the power of kindness, the parent's own faith in the cowhide underwent some change. School life has in this way very perceptibly affected home life. Moreover, teachers have had to do missionary work in the homes.

None aspire for the elevation of the coloured people so much as the educated men and women of their own race. A considerable amount of space could be devoted to describing, in some cases, the genial hopefulness, in others the passionate earnestness, with which coloured educators are devoting themselves to the moral and social uplifting of their people. Another important factor is that a new type of home life is being built up by those who have passed through the schools. The every-day discipline of the school is cumulative in its influence: it has influenced the

parents, it is now influencing the children. As a proof of the latter point, there are figures in the reports of the Washington schools which show, in the earliest days of the schools, as many as 20,000 cases of unpunctuality. Now there are only about 4,000 cases, with an enrolment four or five times as large. Average attendance also shows considerable improvement, having risen from one or two points over 80 to 94 or 95 per cent. The two chief reasons for the improvement are said to be the gradual acquisition of good school habits, and the very great diminution of corporal punishment. [Suspension is sometimes resorted to, affording opportunity for interchange of views between teacher and parents, and, very rarely, expulsion.]

One of the clearest and most forcible statements of the ethical significance of the kindergarten was given in course of conversation by the newly-appointed supervisor of kindergartens in the coloured schools of Washington. In her putting of the case the conscious aim of national upbuilding reappears, How to begin to make the best American citizens of the coloured children? The kindergarten, this lady said, is helpful in itself, and its spirit supplies guiding principles for the whole of the elementary school course, because it appeals to the individual effort of the pupil, and because in it intellectual, physical, and moral training go hand in hand. There are no rewards or punishments excepting those that are implicit in the child's own deed. The instant he offends against the common-sense of the whole his attention is called to the fact that he is no longer a helpful but a harmful member of the community. If he does not act his part in a game he is no longer allowed to share in it. This a child, being essentially a social being, feels very keenly. Being also teacher of German in the coloured high school, some of the applications of Froebelian ideas to higher stages of education have engaged this lady's attention. On the moral plane, certain of these principles are applicable; for instance, that a teacher has not to try to break a child's will, and equally not to rely upon coaxing, but rather to adhere to ideal poetic justice that a wrong deed is its own punishment. Children of fourteen to sixteen in coloured schools are found to grasp this idea very quickly, not by presenting to them symbols of conduct and its effects as is done with little children, but by an appeal to their common-sense and to the knowledge they already possess. Discipline is in this way removed from the personal sphere, and pertains to laws which bind the teacher as thoroughly as they bind the children. A second great principle, and one which is brought out with especial clearness in Mr. J. L. Hughes's book on *Froebel's Educational Laws*, is that of self-activity, a principle which "not only runs right through the child's life, but makes a circular sweep and educates the educator." As to Professor Baldwin's assertion that the kindergarten is an excellent stimulus to the child of "sensory" or passive temperament, but that another kindergarten is needed for the child of "motor" or active temperament, this lady, speaking for a race which is sensitive, and at the same time ready with responsive movement, admitted that there



is a great danger of one-sided development in the kindergarten if the children are placed in the hands of unskilful and undeveloped teachers; then we need not "two kindergartens," but no kindergarten. But the right kind of kindergarten and kindergartner will "stimulate your little sponge and repress your little bombshell."

Through a rightly ordered education alone can the negro problem in America be solved. A large part of this education must be in the form of manual training upon the lines which are advocated amongst American educationists, giving the child at once a closer contact with and a widened outlook towards the external world, and giving play to his intellectual and moral as well as to his physical powers. How far economic and social forces can avail to make this training industrially effective and to give coloured craftsmen or artisans an equal chance to learn and practise a trade is another point, and one which does not belong to the present inquiry. A great difficulty exists here, however, and, realising it, the teacher whose words have already been freely quoted in this section said: "I tell my children that if anybody can do something better than anyone else, the colour of his skin will never matter. God cannot take back what He has given." And with regard to the negro contribution to America's life and larger possession of true liberty, "It is to that door of responsibility that I endeavour to open the eyes of my pupils; to live up to the highest citizenship and to the institutional life which America implicitly and ideally has, so that they may help to realise it explicitly. A great deal of the lack of harmony between the two races is due to misapprehension on the part of both as to what each really is and what both may become." Coloured teachers feel themselves morally bound to urge the children to live up to the higher ideal of American citizenship, and endeavour to make their pupils believe that the world wants what each child has if it is worth giving. "But the children do not lose sight of the fact that they are coloured. We have to 'lash' them into the consciousness that before they are coloured they are men and women, to impress it and impress it till it becomes ingrained, in order to counteract the other influence."

There is a brightness in coloured schools taught by coloured teachers. The saving grace of racial humour is not lacking, and the school has not unfrequently the character of a brightened home. The negro is ambitious to learn, and the little child strives successfully to keep pace with white children in schools where they are taught side by side; the falling off that occurs in the upper elementary grades seems, as has been said, to point to a need for some difference in the curriculum for white and coloured children. But the thinkers of whatever race ought, of course, to be enabled to come to the front. It may be that if the twelve school years were equally divided into six elementary and six secondary, this would give children (whether white or coloured) who do not take readily to the higher and more abstract studies an opportunity of spending, say, two years in each of the last grades (fifth and sixth), *i.e.*, one year, in each section

of each grade, and of doing a larger proportion of manual work, the boys ranking, perhaps, with seventh and eighth grade boys in the workshop, and the girls attaining to a similar grade in cookery and sewing. The boys' manual training room in the coloured school, No. 24, at Indianapolis was extremely interesting. Working out their own ideas of design, and to a large extent selecting their own exercises, so long as the required processes were included in them, the boys were mostly making articles to be taken home, such as towel rollers, towel rails, salt boxes, hat racks, comb and brush cases, small clock shelves or book racks, exercising their skill and making small contributions to home comfort at one and the same time. It is probable that work of a more formal nature would have failed to interest them.

One other point is worthy of mention. There is a freer hand in the matter of religious teaching in coloured schools. The principal of the Indianapolis school just referred to said that he had never heard of an instance in which any religious instruction that any teacher chose to give had been objected to. If teachers chose to go over the Sunday-school lessons in the opening exercises they felt free to do so; so long as they did not insist upon the special tenets of one sect or denomination. "Where there is a good home influence, it blends with that of the school; where there is not, it is a means of erecting a spiritual ladder into the school life." The difficulty is less because of the practical unanimity of view amongst religious-minded negroes in America, nearly all being either Baptists or Methodists. The teachers in training at Hampton (and probably also at Tuskegee) go out with the definite idea that they are to be religious leaders, the negro minister not always being one of the best educated of men. Morning exercises were attended at the Sumner (Coloured) School, Washington, where the children, after the marking of registers in the classrooms, assembled in the hall on each floor, and sang such hymns as "I love to tell the story" and "When peace like a river." The negroes are decidedly musical, as was shown by the feeling with which they sang, and by the easy rhythm of their marching to and from the morning assembly. At the Paterson (Coloured) School, Washington, and others that were visited, a similar order of things prevails—the Lord's Prayer, the singing of a hymn, and frequently a talk about the Sunday-school lesson, or upon some other topic ethical or religious.

No Indian schools were visited; but the spirit in which they are conducted is so admirably sketched by their late administrator, Dr. W. N. Hailmann, in his monograph on "The Education of the Indian," that, having received a copy of the pamphlet at his hands, one or two selections may be made from it here; although the brief sketch of thirty-six pages is well worth reading and even reproducing as a whole.

"The first successful attempts to colonise America on the part of the Anglo-Saxons were made during the first quarter of the seventeenth century. Immediately the struggle set in between brutal greed and a certain irrepressible spirit of fair play on the

part of the intruding race in their intercourse with the Indians. Greed saw in the Indian a hateful obstacle in the way of its advance in the acquisition of territory. Fair play, aided by a nascent spirit of broad Christianity and genuine philanthropy, emphasised in the Indian his essential humanity and laboured to lead him, for the sake of his own salvation, to a recognition of the fatherhood of God and to lift him into a condition that would render him worthy of being received as a full equal into the brotherhood of man. This struggle is still going on with shifting success. Yet, on the whole, humanity and fair play are steadily gaining.

"The present system of Indian education, under the direction of the Government of the United States, is in no way the outcome of a deliberate and carefully-conceived plan on the part of Washington officials. It is descended directly from the first attempts in Indian education on the part of Virginia, and more particularly on the part of New England. Here its seeds were planted. From these it derives certain inherent, vital principles, rooted in a broad Christianity and a fervent philanthropy which have enabled it to withstand blights of partisanship, of greed and rapacity on the part of spoilsmen, of incompetence on the part of teachers, of race prejudice on the part of settlers and other unfavourable conditions of environment and policy.

"In their present organisation the Indian schools under Government control are designated as day schools, as reservation boarding schools, non-reservation boarding schools, and as industrial and normal training schools.

"DAY SCHOOLS.—Day schools are located in Indian villages or near Indian camps or settlements. They are, as a rule, in charge of a male teacher and his wife, who acts as housekeeper, or—more particularly in the pueblos of New Mexico and in the Indian villages of Southern California—of a lady teacher and an Indian housekeeper. The children spend from five to eight hours during five days of the week under the care of these employees, and return to their homes in the evening. At noon they are furnished with a substantial luncheon, except in the pueblos of New Mexico and in the villages of Southern California, where they generally return to their homes during the noon recess.

"The instruction is of the simplest character. The children are taught to speak, read, and write the English language within narrow limits, to cipher, to draw, and to sing. In addition they get some rudimentary notions of geography, of natural history, and of United States history. The methods are borrowed largely from the kindergarten and from object teaching.

"Much stress is laid upon habits of cleanliness and order, mutual kindness, and prompt obedience. The boys receive some instruction in the use of tools, in gardening, and, in some instances, in the care of cows. The girls are taught sewing, cooking, and other arts of housekeeping.

"While day schools, as a rule, accomplish comparatively little in conventional schoolroom work, they achieve much in bringing to the Indians among whom they are located the message

and desire of better ways of living. The school as such serves as a concrete illustration of a civilised Christian home which the Indians learn to respect and in an appreciable degree to emulate. Where the teacher and housekeeper, at the same time, possess the inclination and the skill to attract to themselves the older Indians, to secure their confidence and to instruct them unobtrusively in the simpler arts of thrift and home-making, these schools become invaluable factors in the uplifting of the race. Moreover, they reconcile the Indian to the idea of sending his children to school, and render him more willing in due time to intrust them to the care of boarding schools, as well as more ready to appreciate and to accept the lessons of civilisation that radiate from these centres of education.

"RESERVATION BOARDING SCHOOLS.—These schools are located within the territory reserved for some tribe of Indians. They are in charge of a superintendent, assisted by a matron and such teachers, industrial and domestic helpers as the capacity and character of the school may require. In addition to the required number of school teachers, the school is provided with a cook, a seamstress, and a laundress, whose office it is not only to supervise their respective departments, but also to instruct the girls in these arts. Similarly, there is, for the instruction of the boys, a farmer, an industrial teacher, and, at larger schools, a tailor, a shoe and harness maker, a carpenter, and a blacksmith. An experiment to provide for more methodical instruction in the use of tools by expert manual training teachers failed because the Indian Office would not afford a salary for this position sufficient to attract competent men.

"In 1894 the experiment of connecting kindergartens with these schools was tried. The experiment proved eminently successful. The children entered into the work and the games with zest and intelligence. Their traditional shyness and reticence yielded naturally and readily to their objective interest in the exercises. They acquired the English idiom with much ease, and learned to express their ideas freely and with eagerness. At the present time there are forty kindergartens connected with boarding schools. Moreover, the use of kindergarten methods and of kindergarten material has entered the primary classes in practically all these schools and in many of the day schools with similar good results.

"The children spend from one and a half to two hours each half-day with the kindergarten. Other children, in the majority of these schools, spend half a day—forenoon or afternoon—in the schoolroom and the other half-day in domestic or industrial work of a character suited to their age. In a number of schools, however, which are lacking in facilities or in skill and goodwill on the part of the respective employees, the smaller children are detained in the schoolroom during the entire day, much to their physical, intellectual, and moral deterioration.

"Indeed, experience has proved that half-day instruction, which at first was forced upon the schools as an expedient, is one which every consideration of wisdom and prudence would

commend. The sedentary life of the more or less crowded schoolroom becomes irksome to these children accustomed to an active outdoor life; the interests of the school-room are foreign to their heredities and traditions. The industrial features of the work, on the other hand, appeal more or less forcibly to their habits and tastes, and stimulate practical interests which the parents can appreciate, and which induce them to look with favour upon the school and to aid in its work. The schoolroom itself finds in these interests material for practice and discussion directly welcome to the pupil; it can thus more readily overcome aversion and secure an appreciative and sympathetic attitude on the part of the pupils. It adds to the work of the schools in a large measure all the advantages of mental stimulation which manual training yields. It is, consequently, not astonishing that the children in schools in which the half-day practice has not been adopted make less rapid progress, are backward in physical and intellectual development, and morally less earnest and responsible than the children of half-day schools.

"The aim of the school, in so far as instruction is concerned, is to give to the pupils ability to read and write English within the limits of ordinary primary school work, practical control of arithmetic for the needs of ordinary daily life, clear rudimentary notions of geography and United States history, drawing and singing, a knowledge of the laws of hygienic living, garden work, the cultivation of fruits and vegetables, and familiarity with the simpler requirements of agricultural and domestic industries suited to the locality. Moreover, in a few of the larger schools, the larger boys have much opportunity to acquire skill in carpentry, blacksmithing, tailoring, and shoemaking.

"It has already been indicated that these institutions are to the children not only school but also home and community. The institution gives them shelter, food, and clothing; it accustoms them to habits of cleanliness and decency; it cultivates their aesthetic tastes; it labours to secure a right moral attitude, and, at least in its Sunday-school, seeks to impart the plainer truths of Christianity and to stimulate the religious life of the children.

"In these last efforts, it is true, the schools are much handicapped by denominational jealousies which are ever ready to suspect proselytizing, and which have forced the Government into an attitude of indifference and inactivity in all matters that affect religion. In a number of reservations, however, missionary establishments, which are impartially encouraged by the Government, supplement the work of the schools to a certain extent in matters of religion."

"**CONTRACT SCHOOLS.**—In addition to maintaining strictly Government schools, the Indian Office pays 180 dollars per pupil to 25 Catholic mission boarding schools for the education of 1,098 children; 30 dollars per pupil for 21 children in two Catholic day schools; and 167 dollars per pupil for 200 pupils in

Lincoln Institute at Philadelphia, and for 120 pupils in Hampton Institute, located at Hampton, in the State of Virginia.\*

"Of these, Hampton Institute deserves special mention. It was originally established with the help of northern philanthropists for the industrial and normal training of negroes in 1868. Its support to-day is derived from small endowment funds, liberal annual contributions from the north, and 10,000 dollars annually paid to it in its capacity as an agricultural school by the State of Virginia.

"In 1878 seventeen young Indians were brought to it from Florida, where they had for three years been kept as prisoners of war. From this was developed the present Indian department of the institution, superior in equipment and in the spirit that controls its work. Here, too, originated the outing system which, subsequently, grew into an educational factor of vast importance at Carlisle.

"The distinctive feature of this school, however, is its broad missionary spirit. Bound to no particular denomination, yet respecting all and respected by all, it is deeply religious in spirit and work, and labours to inculcate its own missionary zeal in the hearts of its students.

"In its young Indian students it stimulates a keen sense of responsible manhood and womanhood. It teaches them to experience and to appreciate the advantages of the intelligent Christian civilisation of which it furnishes them the example. It stimulates and nurtures in them a deep sympathy with their own people in their sufferings and needs, and a fervent desire to bring to these in due time the blessings of which they themselves have become participants.

"There can be no doubt that an education which inculcates the tastes and establishes the ideals of current civilisation constitutes the proper first step in the work of introducing the Indians into American citizenship. It is equally evident that the cultivation of these tastes and ideals is well nigh impossible under the conditions and influences of tribal life on Indian reservations.

"The mere recital of a few of the leading differences between the two civilisations will sufficiently emphasise these difficulties. The Indian civilisation looks upon the tribe or family as the unit; with us it is the individual. With the Indian he is richest who gives most; with us it is he who keeps most. The Indian claims hospitality as a right until the means of his host are exhausted; and this hospitality is freely granted. To the Indian, land is as free as the water he drinks; proprietorship continues only so long as the land is tilled or otherwise in use. His religious rites and ceremonies afford the Indian, in addition to a certain degree of spiritual elevation, opportunities for intense social enjoyment for which he looks in vain in the new civilisation. Add to this that the wants of the Indian are few and easily gratified by simple forms of homely skill in which

\* The main work at this institute is concerned with coloured pupils; the Indian pupils represent an extension of the services it is rendering.

the industries and other acquirements of the Indian school find little application; that chiefs and medicine-men in the very nature of things look with distrust and disdain upon a civilisation which robs them of power and influence; that time-honoured tradition imposes upon the young Indian silence and obedience—and you have an array of adverse conditions which is appalling.

“Against these odds the Indian schools are pitted.

“Nevertheless the schools are steadily gaining ground even against this added difficulty, partly through their direct influence in day schools and reservation boarding schools, partly through the medium of ‘returned students’ from the more advanced non-reservation schools.

“Honour and grateful admiration are due to the young heroes and heroines who annually go forth from the Indian schools pitting their lives against adamantine walls of tradition and superstition, wresting victory for themselves and their unwilling people from conditions which seem all but hopeless. It is not to be wondered that of these soldiers of a new dispensation some fall by the wayside or succumb in the unequal struggle; but the misfortune, rather than dishonour, of these should not render us blind to the steady valour of the young men and women who are steadily pushing ahead, gaining new ground inch by inch, until even now the observer who looks beneath the surface sees victory assured. So great, indeed, has been the gain already achieved that in many instances where twenty years ago Indian savagery reigned supreme, it would be difficult now to find any of its features as enumerated above clearly manifest. The busy farmer, the thrifty housewife, the skilful artisan, the careful tradesman are no longer rare; on a number of reservations they are beginning to be respected as marks of superiority to which all should aspire. The Indian schools can point with satisfaction to fervent missionaries, devoted teachers, physicians, lawyers, field matrons, nurses, and trained workers in other fields who owe the impulse to their career and much of their equipment to the work and influence of these schools.”

## CHAPTER XIX.

### TRUANT SCHOOLS AND REFORM SCHOOLS.

The public statutes for the State of Massachusetts relating to public instruction contain the following provisions, which may be taken as fairly typical of the truant school system prevailing in the United States:—

“Each town shall make all needful provisions and arrangements concerning habitual truants and children between seven and fifteen years of age who may be found wandering about in the streets or public places therein, having no lawful occupation or business, not attending school, and growing up in ignorance

and such children as persistently violate the reasonable rules and regulations of the common schools; and shall make such by-laws as shall be most conducive to the welfare of such children, and to the good order of such town; and shall provide suitable places for the confinement, discipline, and instruction of such children.

"Any minor convicted under a by-law made under Section 10 of being an habitual truant, or of wandering about in the streets and public places of a city or town, having no lawful employment or business, not attending school, and growing up in ignorance, or of persistently violating the rules and regulations of the common schools, shall be committed to any institution of instruction or suitable situation provided for the purpose, under the authority of said section or by-law, for a term not exceeding two years.

"A town may assign any such truant school, or, with the assent of the State board of health, lunacy, and charity, the State primary school, as the place of confinement, discipline, and instruction of children so convicted; and shall pay for their support therein such sum, not exceeding two dollars a week for each child, as the county commissioners or the trustees of the State primary\* and reform schools respectively shall determine.

"Children so committed may, upon satisfactory proof of amendment, or for other sufficient cause, be discharged from the State primary school by said State board, and from other places of confinement by the judge or justice who committed them.

"A judge of the superior court, or of a police, district, or municipal court, or a trial justice, upon proof that any child under sixteen years of age, by reason of orphanage, or of the neglect, crime, drunkenness, or other vice of parents, is so growing up, may order such child to such institution of instruction, or other place assigned for the purpose, as may be provided under section 18, by the town in which such child resides, to be there kept, educated, and cared for, for a term not extending beyond the age of twenty-one years for boys or eighteen years for girls."

The school documents of this State for 1897 contained a report of the committee on truant officers which illustrates the admirable spirit in which the responsible executive endeavours to give effect to these provisions. Still more recently Dr. Frank A. Hill, State Secretary of the Board of Education, has drawn up a report on truant schools upon similar lines. The importance of the question of truancy from the point of view of society is insisted upon, but these writers one and all agree in thinking that such children should be reformed rather than punished. Unrestrained, they are a menace to society. But often they are "more sinned against than sinning." Their home environment gives them no encouragement to do right; the city or State is therefore, under an obligation to provide them with an oppor-

\* See the remarks on page 223 as to the names given to these schools.  
5602. P 2



tunity to achieve good citizenship, rather than to seek an excuse to brand them with punishment. Sometimes teachers may be in part the cause of truancy. The master of a school in Massachusetts noticed that one of his teachers, new to the work and young in years, had a much larger average attendance than the other teachers under his control, and sought an explanation. The reply was that she endeavoured to make the opening of each session particularly bright and attractive, to arouse the interest and enthusiasm of her pupils as soon as they came into her presence, and so to turn their inclination in the direction of the schoolroom rather than away from it.

But truants, whether born or made, have to be dealt with, and there are generally some three or four preliminary stages before a boy or girl is committed to a truant school. Cases of suspected truancy are supposed to be reported at once by the teachers sometimes supplied with "truant cards" for the purpose, on which they enter the name and age of the pupil, the name and address of the parent, and the date or dates of suspected truancy. At Cleveland, in cases of prolonged absence from school, the authorities send a notice to the parent that the pupil must return to school within five days. In most cases this is sufficient. If it fails, the parent is asked to bring the child to the office, and is asked whether he is willing the child shall report himself to the office every Saturday, a weekly card being printed for the purpose.

WEEKLY SCHOOL REPORT.

No. \_\_\_\_\_

To THE PARENT :—Please require this card to be brought to you every evening for examination and your signature. This card must be returned to the Truant Officer on Saturday Morning, \_\_\_\_\_

DAYS.	ATTEND- ANCE.	MINUTES TARDY.	LESSONS.	CONDUCT.	SIGNATURE OF PARENT.
Mon.					
Tue.					
Wed.					
Thu.					
Fri.					

School. \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher. \_\_\_\_\_

On the back of the card instructions are given to teachers as to filling in the report; if the parent neglects to sign the card each day, the teachers are requested to place their signature in the unfilled blank. This is a second stage which brings in more fully the co-operation of the parent. The third step is to issue a warrant. If the parent is at fault he may be fined five dollars (£1) and costs, but often with suspended payment, the father understanding that, if the child's behaviour and attendance are not satisfactory, payment will be enforced. If the child is brought into court, and there is any reasonable hope of improvement, he is put on probation. This sifts out a further number. If none of these methods succeed the boy is committed to the State reform school (or farm school). But Cleveland never sends boys to the reform school, which is really for criminals, unless there is something more than truancy; as, unfortunately, is found to be almost universally the case with confirmed truants. There are two schools, in the east and west of the city respectively, occupying an intermediate position between the public schools and the reform school, which are called "boys' schools," but are really special discipline schools. Cases of incorrigibility are referred to the superintendent's office, the offences are stated, and the attempts that have been made to correct them. The parents are sent for, and often the boys are sent back to their own school under promise to amend. If they are reported a second time, they are placed in the 'boys' school' for a minimum period of two months. Here the discipline is more severe, the teachers having the right to use the rod. There are only two teachers in each school, a male principal and a female assistant; and the total number in the two schools is not more than 35. One term generally cures a boy, and he is allowed to return to his own or some neighbouring school. Out of 40 boys, for example, who had been sent to the east school during the first seven months of the school-year 1899-1900, only seven had to be sent back for a second term. Providence, Rhode Island, has schools for special discipline; here the system is said to be the best, as far as truancy is concerned, of any in the eastern parts of the country. Specially good teachers are selected, the classes are kept small, and every effort in the way of moral suasion is employed to prevail upon the children to do better. If no signs of reformation are forthcoming, they are sent to the truant farm schools outside of Providence—the Sockanosset School for boys, and the Oaklawn School for girls. Care is everywhere exercised to prevent a name being given to a school which shall be in itself a stigma of disgrace. The truant school at New York is known as the "Manhattan School." In it boys can earn money by their work, and are allowed to buy themselves out when they have earned and saved 40 dollars. Habits of industry and saving and of handling money are taught in this way. Others are paroled during good behaviour; reporting themselves once a week, a great many do well.\* At Indianapolis

\* The parole is given to the superintendent of schools, who is enabled to get a strong moral hold upon the boys by this individual contact.

the teacher herself had the name of the truant school changed to "special school," feeling that her work was to save the boys, and that it was a contradiction of her efforts to send them out from a school the very name of which implied disgrace. The boys themselves call it "the boys' school." Some boys who have left this school and gone to work come back whenever they have a half-day at liberty; they are specially apt to appear on manual training days. Here, as elsewhere, boys have to be passed on from the school as rapidly as possible, as there are others waiting to be sent. Many teachers have just one boy who is incorrigible; if all these could be weeded out it is felt that it would have a marked effect upon the discipline of the schools in any city. So far as the effort is being made, it has such an effect.

A very wholesome family spirit seemed to pervade the residential truant school at Syracuse, N.Y. It happened to be recess time when the school was visited with the city superintendent of schools, and the children showed every sign of welcome to the superintendent, whom they saw approaching from the school windows. There were nineteen boys in the school, mostly committed by the superintendent with the consent of the parents, only the very refractory ones being taken to the court. Strangely enough, the lady in charge said she had no trouble with the discipline. In answer to a question as to how she managed it, she said, "Let the boys answer." "This gentleman has just asked how it is we have no trouble with the discipline here: how is it?" Various answers were given. "You give us lessons." "You keep us busy." "Work, Ma'am." "We sing a great deal." By way of illustration they sang "Oh! how we love our happy school."

"Our teacher watches over us  
To lead us to do right," &c.

Chorus—"Pleasant, happy school,  
Happy truant school" &c.

"Tis here that we are made  
To fill positions in the world  
Of almost every grade," &c.

The boys took great pleasure in saying a number of mottoes, the teacher having the tact to allow them to give such as appealed to their own minds. As a result some were marked by real arab humour, "Do not trust a pigeon to carry grain"; "Don't try to fool the teacher." It was a noteworthy fact that the principal's own little boy was sitting with the others in the class. Some sad indications of poverty of opportunity come to the surface under conditions such as these, showing that many of the children are really happier in the truant school than in their own homes.

In the Worcester County Truant School, Oakdale, the humane spirit is so marked that the normal students have used it as a practice school. At the head of it is "a man of immense ingenuity, and absolutely bottomless faith."

Toronto has two residential truant schools—one for boys, the

other for girls, arranged on the cottage plan and situated about six miles east and west of the city. The consciousness of responsibility and self-government is stimulated as far as possible. In addition to these schools there is one in the city itself for children who are neglected by their parents, and who would become vagrants, and some of them thieves, if not taken in hand. Soup is supplied by a charitable institution near the schools, and the teachers have a fund wherewith to buy bread. Some of the mothers are charwomen, others have work away from their homes, and the children would often have no dinner if it were not provided in this way. In the same school there is a room for licensed newsboys and bootblacks, who are obliged to attend for one session of two hours daily. When this school was first started, a philanthropic association offered to provide the building if the board of education would supply a teacher—the best man they had for the purpose. The superintendent said he did not know a man who would not try to control the children by coercion, but he knew of three or four women. One of these was appointed. The boys come in when free from their work, say "Good morning" to the teacher, get what they want for use, and set to work. The boys keep themselves in order: "If you were going to try to keep one of them in order," said the superintendent, "you would have your hands full." Several interesting stories of the success of patient discipline were told by the superintendent. One of the great events of the year, for instance, is the Christmas tree, on which are hung gifts (as many as fourteen hundred) made by the boys for their parents, grandparents, and friends; the boys themselves buying the material. Old people have been seen with tears running down their cheeks in the pleasure of finding a gift for them.

If space permitted one would be glad to tell of schools partaking rather more of the nature of reform schools than of truant schools pure and simple. Amongst the most admirable moral training schools of America are the Sockanosset School for Boys (with which is associated the Oaklawn School for Girls), near Providence; the Boston Parental School, at West Roxbury; and the George Junior Republic. Men of really missionary temper are at the head of these schools. Mr. Butterfield, of the Sockanosset school, works with his boys at the forge, shares their lives and by living near to them is able to lift them up in manhood until many of them go back to their old surroundings as forces for good; one of them, now twenty-one years of age, is in the life-saving service at Lock Island, on the very spot where he was reared, and where he had been committed for vagrancy; others are clergymen; one of the Oaklawn girls is a school teacher in her old home, another is on the staff of the Oaklawn school. These are selected instances, but they serve to show how fruitful a right principle may be in the hands of earnest educators. On the day these schools were visited Mr. Butterfield was rejoicing over his first gift of pictures, which were to add the grace of decoration to one or two of the well-kept rooms.

Almost as remarkable in its way is the Boston Parental School

which seemed to be more of a truant school than Sockanosset that is, boys are sent to it for less serious offences. The new principal replaces one who had been at the head of a school for criminal boys, and who brought with him old-fashioned prison methods. The present superintendent is a young man, a keen educationist, who has recently studied in Germany. He believes in the policy of trusting the boys and keeping faith in what is best in them to the very last. He is succeeding admirably upon these lines.

Of the George Junior Republic and its novel system of providing actual social and industrial conditions, and applying them to the reformation of city arabs and committed youthful offenders, it is impossible to write adequately. The whole scheme is a practical rewriting of man's social history.\* The government is handed over to the citizens, who have their president, police, judge, and very real prisons. There are boys and girls in the Junior Republic; all attend school during part of the day, and all work for their own living, receiving "junior republic" currency, paying their own rent and taxes, and buying all they need at the "junior republic" stores. University economists are following the course of events, problems of industry and currency and broad sociological questions being dealt with as they arise in a fashion which makes the small farm republic a miniature State. To talk with the newly-elected president, and to enter into his keen appreciation of the responsibilities of office in selecting officers for the republic, and in maintaining the honour of the "junior" State, was to have at least a glimpse into the character-building forces which are at work. There are other institutions for boys which might be referred to, if space permitted, such as the House of Reformation on Rainsford Island, Boston Harbour to which an enjoyable visit was paid, the Farm School on Thompson's Island, the Tombs (prison) School, New York. What has been said may perhaps suffice to show that the new spirit of discipline which is so clearly traceable in the public schools is not confined to them, but is permeating the whole of American education, including even that of the criminal classes. However great the need of moral improvement, there is a daily growing belief in its accomplishment by humane means—humane not merely in the sense of abstinence from severe methods of discipline, but in a profound appreciation of and interest in child life and child nature.

## CHAPTER XX.

### THE EDUCATIONAL PRESS

The wide influence of educational periodicals, from the *Educational Review*, edited by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, and the *Pedagogical Seminary*, edited by Dr. G. Stanley Hall, to the small magazines issued by an elementary, a truant, or a reform

\* See Appendix V.

school, is difficult to estimate; at any rate, until one has first realised the keenness with which American teachers read about education. In addition to the periodicals issued by educational publishers, there are State papers, some of which are subsidised by a State, and magazines published by universities (for example, the *Manual Training Magazine*, published by the University of Chicago). Many normal schools also have special papers, which, like the *Record* of the Borough Road Training College, circulate amongst past and present students; and many cities have local educational papers. In these papers, one and all, the moral aim of education is kept constantly in view. The *School Journal*, published in New York and Chicago, is one of the best known of these papers, and its pages constantly contain articles on or references to character-making as one chief purpose of the school. *School and Home Education*, a monthly magazine, is full of similar references. Some of the daily papers give a portion of their space regularly to educational matters. As one example of this, the *Commercial Advertiser* of New York has a special educational editor, and this column is as constant a feature of the paper as the commercial news. The public attention given to education is in itself a moral fact of considerable weight; but the special question of moral education in the schools—the meaning of discipline, the social life of the school, the training of character—forms so large a part of the Press articles and references that their influence upon school practice must be very widespread. One of the recent issues of the *New York Teachers' Monographs* was entirely devoted to school discipline and moral training, and contained articles on the subject by many of the ablest American writers on education; and the last annual supplement of "Educational Foundations," a useful monthly compendium of the history and theory of teaching (also published in New York), was a specially authorised reprint of Mr. J. L. Hughes's "Mistakes in Teaching" (largely taken up with matters of discipline) and "How to Keep Order."

In drawing up his report the writer has been greatly helped by the fact that so much current literature, full of cognate topics, lay at hand. To certain individuals, schools, and publications he is specially indebted; amongst the first are Dr. W. T. Harris, U.S. Commissioner of Education, whose assistance from first to last was invaluable, Mr. J. L. Hughes, Inspector of Schools at Toronto, Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler and the staff of Teachers College, Mr. Ossian Lang, Mrs. Ella Young (Chicago University), the principals of the Chicago Kindergarten College, and several members of the Board of Superintendents of New York city: the Ethical Culture Schools of New York city, the schools of Minneapolis and Peoria, and a cluster of interesting institutions at Worcester (schools, normal school, and the Clark University) were specially suggestive and helpful: also the reports of various State and city superintendents, especially of the States of New York and Massachusetts, and the cities of Washington and Cleveland, gave a valuable insight into existing phases of educational opinion and progress: the new was seen in

process of displacing the old in Dayton and Cincinnati; and at Chicago, crowning the turmoil of the city's life, is a great mass of earnest educational questioning and endeavour in which the moral and religious training of children has a very prominent place.

H. THISELTON MARK.

October, 1900.

(Revised October, 1901.)

## APPENDIX I.

EXTRACTS FROM THE TEACHERS' MANUAL ISSUED BY THE BOARD  
OF EDUCATION, CITY OF NEW YORK. (PRIMARY GRADES.)

## GOVERNMENT AND DISCIPLINE

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR ALL THE GRADES.

**TRUE OBJECTS OF DISCIPLINE.**—The training of pupils so that they shall *form right habits and learn self-control* is the true object of discipline. In all the rules and methods of discipline employed this purpose should be kept steadily in view. Discipline, in its relation to order, exists for the sake of the pupils and the school. It prepares the way for the work of instruction, and makes it effective.

**"LIKE BEGETS LIKE."**—"As is the teacher, so will be the school." It is, therefore, requisite that teachers should possess fixed habits of neatness, cleanliness, and order; gentleness of manner, a watchful self-control, and a cheerful spirit. In speaking let pleasant tones of voice prevail; then the words of reproof will be more impressive and effectual.

**SYMPATHY FOR CHILDREN.**—Teachers should seek to obtain the sympathetic regard of the children by giving a due attention to their wants and requests. These should be fulfilled as far as it is proper and reasonable. Children are quick to perceive and to resent injury or injustice. The child who asks for the privilege of a drink of water, for instance, may be suffering acutely and, if not accorded relief when this seems to be perfectly practicable on the part of the teacher, may feel a sense of outrage which, for a time if not permanently, would impair its respect and regard for the teacher. The cultivation of a due feeling of *sympathy* for the children will wholly prevent this. The possession of this feeling in its fulness is the best foundation of success in both discipline and instruction. Kindness is the practical basis of *sympathy*. It seeks the good of the pupil, and endeavours to remove all imperfections of the individual without injury to him. Its influence for good is exceedingly strong, and its power with children nearly irresistible.

**ENCOURAGE PUPILS.**—*Encouragement* inspires confidence. Children, more than others, need *encouragement*. It is a strong incentive to effort. Let it be given in all cases where this can be honestly done. Letting a boy know that you believe there is good in him is the best way for putting it there.

**DEVELOP RIGHT OPINIONS.**—Aim to govern the class by a development of public opinion among the pupils in favour of the right and against the wrong, and thus govern individual members through the class. Give proper attention to those cases of disorder by single pupils which cannot be overcome through influence upon the class. Success in discipline does not lie in telling individual pupils their faults before the class. Attempts to detect and correct each individual misdeed in detail will not develop the right public opinion nor lead the pupils to a willing compliance with the wishes of the teacher. Judicious commendation when pupils make efforts to overcome faults is more effective towards accomplishing the desired results.

**VOID SCOLDING.**—*Harsh tones* are unnecessary and improper. Words of disapprobation may be uttered by the teacher in a tone of *decision*, without the use of any severity that would imply resentment, anger, or antipathy on the part of the teacher,



**ATTENTION THE BASIS OF GOOD ORDER.**—*Good order* does not require pupils to occupy for a long time a fixed position, nor to assume a constrained posture, nor to fix their eyes upon a given point, nor to be as motionless as statues. All this is unnatural, and much of it positively injurious, and whatever is unnatural is not good order. The postures of the pupil should be graceful, easy, and uniform, and should be frequently changed.

**MORAL EDUCATION.**—Such training, to be effective, must provide suitable means for the exercise of the moral powers. It consists largely, in leading the children to understand *their duties to themselves and their duties towards others*. Among their duties to themselves are: *self-control* in all matters relating to conduct—of the temper, the appetite, and the desires; speaking the truth; and *self-culture* in all things that aid in forming a good character. Among their duties to others are: obedience to parents and teachers; kindness to brothers, sisters, and playmates; and the practical observance of the Golden Rule. That teacher who kindly respects the rights of the pupils, and daily illustrates the great virtue—*kindness*—in the management of pupils, and in personal conduct elsewhere, will accomplish practical results in moral education which cannot be attained by rules or lectures. A spirit of true kindness pervading a school will become a fountain of virtues.

Children do not comprehend virtue in the abstract; but they soon learn to understand it when they see it in the actions of their teachers and parents and of others around them. Let the teacher utilise the reading and other lessons, as well as school incidents, in leading the children to admire honesty, truth-speaking, unselfishness, true courage, and all right-doing, and thus sift in and mingle the moral with the mental, as Nature does in her teaching.

Lead children to discuss the character of actions described in stories, reading lessons, &c., and thus aim to develop in them the ability to discriminate justly between the right and the wrong in their own conduct.

Social relations, the dependence of each individual upon his neighbour, the necessity of labour, the benefits of society and government, should be illustrated and taught by means of easy and familiar lessons suited to the age and capacity of the children. As the development of the moral nature is of greater importance to the welfare of the individual and the community than any other part of education, no opportunity should be omitted for training children in such habits as will cause them to grow up truthful, honest, self-governing, and law-abiding citizens.

**MODES OF PUNISHMENT.**—Every punishment should be adapted to the offence. As a general principle, if pupils abuse a privilege, punish by depriving them of that privilege for a while. If injury be done to that which belongs to another, require a satisfactory reparation. *School work should never be given as a punishment.*

Firmness, vigilance, and uniformity in dealing with children are of the first importance. The teacher should never resort to violent means, such as pushing, pulling, or shaking the children, in order to obtain their attention. All such practices constitute a kind of corporal punishment which, in all its forms, is specially prohibited by the Board.

In directing the various movements required of the pupils, care should be taken never to *touch them*. The teacher should take such a position before the class as will command the eye of every pupil, and thence direct by the voice, or by a signal. Pupils must be habituated to the impression that the teacher will give the commands but *once*, and that they must be obeyed instantly.

*Public exposures and badges of disgrace* belong to a class of punishments which, if ever resorted to, should be employed under careful limitations, and with great circumspection and prudence; for it requires a skilful, discreet, and conscientious teacher to use them safely and with advantage. In the discipline of girls such methods should be avoided altogether, as destructive of that nice sense of shame and that delicate sensibility to reputation which should be carefully fostered in the female

character. Avoid the use of ridicule: it is a dangerous remedy, and tends to the loss of self-respect in the pupil.

**SUMMARY OF IMPORTANT POINTS.**—The following is a brief summary of the practically important points in moral education, and in the training in morals and manners:—

That intellectual training, however excellent, is not enough;

That public schools are instituted to make not only *intelligent* but *good citizens*;

That morals and manners are best taught *incidentally*, not formally; by personal example and anecdote, not by mere lecture;

That "unconscious tuition," by the force of the teacher's example, is a most powerful influence for good or for evil.

Among the many points upon which opportunity for incidental instruction should be sought are the following:—

Respect for parents and teachers, and for the aged; kindness to the infirm; the avoidance of cruelty; abhorrence of brutality, including pugilism; courtesy and politeness; true and false courage; bravery and foolhardiness; moral courage and decision as indispensable to a noble character; truthfulness, and the meanness of lying; the degradation involved in habits of profanity, indecency, and intemperance; the avoidance of bad books, bad papers, and bad companions; the indispensable virtue of patriotism; and, generally, to do and to be *right* because it is right, and not for fear of punishment, discovery, or disgrace.

In the section on discipline in a later chapter the Manual says: Children should *never be compelled to sit without employment for the mind, the hands, or the body.* As a means of preserving good order in the class attract the attention of the pupils by introducing new subjects, by changing the manner of giving the lesson, or by allowing individual pupils to take a special part in the lesson exercises.

*Manners and Morals.*—Such instruction should be given daily to the pupils of all the grades as will foster a spirit of kindness and courtesy toward one another, a feeling of respect towards parent and teacher, and a love of cleanliness, order, law, and truth.

## APPENDIX II.

### TAKEN FROM THE HANDBOOK OF THE ETHICAL CULTURE SCHOOLS, NEW YORK CITY, FOR 1900-1901.

#### COURSE OF STUDY BY GRADES.

##### KINDERGARTEN.

The kindergarten is intended to meet the educational needs of children between the ages of three and six.

At this period the play instincts are at their height, and the purpose of the kindergarten is to direct these activities towards definite ends. The songs, games, stories, and occupations are connected with the environment of the child, and aid him to gain physical strength, to develop creative power, and to grow into sympathetic relations with the great world of Nature and Man.

The course is based upon Froebel's methods, but is modified as needed to meet the demands of present conditions.

All intricate work is discarded, and large materials are used to prevent overstrain of eye and hand. The care of plants and pet animals, the close observation of nature material, and excursions to the park are emphasised.

## COURSE OF STUDY BY GRADES.

	READING.	LANGUAGE AND PHONICS.	ETHICS.	HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.
Grade I.	From charts and blackboard: Nursery Rhymes; stories. Books: <i>Verse and Prose</i> ; <i>Golden Rod I</i> ; <i>Ship Reader I</i> ; Lane, <i>Stories for Children</i> ; <i>Around the World I</i> .	Attention to use of correct language in all lessons. Oral reproduction of stories. Class composition dictated by children. Phonics, daily drill.	Principal duties of childhood, illustrated by selections from Grimm, <i>Fairy Tales</i> .	Sand table work to unify mental product of stories. Occupations and social life of Eskimos and Dutch. National holidays.
Grade II.	Selections from <i>Land of Song I</i> ; <i>Golden Rod II</i> ; <i>Ship Reader II</i> ; Scudder, <i>Fables and Folk Stories</i> ; <i>Big People and Little People of Other Lands</i> ; parts of <i>Hawaika</i> .	Previous work continued. Written reproductions. Original narrative and imaginative work. Phonics, daily drill.	Faults and duties peculiar to childhood, illustrated by fables.	Forest life illustrated by a typical Indian village worked out in the sand pile. Special work on occupations and social life.
Grade III.	Selections from <i>Land of Song I</i> ; <i>Ship Reader III</i> ; <i>Golden Book of Choice Reading</i> ; Robinson <i>Crusoe</i> ; <i>Around the World II</i> ; Eggleston, <i>Series of American Life and Adventure</i> ; <i>Black Beauty</i> .	Previous work continued. Original narratives and inventive work. Stress on arrangement and mechanical accuracy increased, but still kept subordinate to freedom. Letter writing. Phonics and spelling.	Family relations exemplified by stories from <i>Genesis</i> .	Coast life of Alaskan Indians. Mountain life in Norway and Switzerland. Pioneer life. Robinson <i>Crusoe's</i> life on the island worked out in the sand pile. Classification of occupations.
Grade IV.	Selections from Whittier, <i>Child Life</i> ; <i>Water Babies</i> ; <i>Ship Reader IV</i> ; <i>Golden Rod IV</i> ; <i>Alice in Wonderland</i> ; John <i>Gilpin</i> ; <i>Pied Piper</i> .	Original compositions. Narration continued, with stress on introduction, climax, and ending. Paragraph and sentence, subject and predicate, nouns and verbs, regular and irregular verbs, and personal pronouns. Spelling.	Social and personal relations illustrated by the <i>Odyssey</i> .	History and geography of New York City and State. Discoveries; explorations. The earth as a whole; continents, river basins, shore forms. Frye, <i>Primary Geography and Atlas</i> .

## COURSE OF STUDY BY GRADES—Continued.

NATURE STUDY.	NUMBERS.	MANUAL WORK.	ART.	MUSIC.
Work following the seasons. Animal and plant life associated with other work. Domestic animals.	Building and analysis of volumes, areas, lines. Counting forward and backward by 1s, 2s, 5s to 100. Fundamental facts and relations found in 4, 8, 12, 9, 18, 20, 16, 24, 25, 30, 36, 36. Cutting, pasting, drawing.	Flattening, knotting, binding, sewing, weaving. Making horse reins, whistle cord, whip, woven and plaited mats, bib, coarse sampler, chains and shallow baskets.	Clay modelling, water colour, designs worked out in blocks and tiles; freehand cutting of life forms studied in other lessons. Subjects from fairy stories.	Rhythms and melody taught through simple rote songs, and in marches and games.
Animals, and plants associated with Hiawatha and other work. Seasonal study of the Park.	Counting organized into computation. Written work from questions on Giffin and Speer charts. Making and memorizing tables in addition, subtraction, and multiplication.	Box and envelope making, sewing, string work, weaving, plaiting. Making objects associated with history: Bow and arrow, wigwam, moccasin, canoe, snow shoes, bead weaving, baskets.	Previous work continued. Indian pottery made and decorated. Designing in tiles, blocks, and beads. Subjects from Hiawatha and from fairy tales.	Song, the basis of interval drill. Reading simple rhythm and melody from staff. Holt, Normal Music Chart. Modern Music Primer.
Other countries studied compared with our own as to plants, animals, climate, and occupations. Food and clothing traced from crude state to finished product.	Fundamental processes specialised. Multiplication tables. Simple fractions, small multiples and factors. Weights and measures. Speer, Giffin, McLellan & Ames.	Rope work, netting, weaving, cutting, building, caning, sewing. Making objects associated with history, such as log cabin, fish net, tent, table, chair, raffia baskets.	Previous work continued and developed. Totem symbols and decoration. Subjects from Indian life, Cruise and pioneer life.	Written work to teach notation. Chromatic tones, and divided beat. The naming of intervals begun. Rote songs as supplementary work. Modern Music Series I.
Weather Record. Properties of air, water, and soil. Native plants and animals of Manhattan Island.	Rapid and accurate work in the four fundamental operations, factoring and simple fractions. Simplest reduction of denominate numbers. Fundamental operations in decimals to thousandths. Speer, Giffin, McLellan & Ames.	Boys and Girls: Basketry and netting. Boys: Building with wood. Construction useful in other work. Girls: Cutting and joining bias strips. Drafting, cutting, and making an apron; patching, darning.	Drawing, colour, composition, and modelling. Life forms, especially animals.	Rote songs continued. Reading; written work begun. Modern Music Series I.

## COURSE OF STUDY BY GRADES—Continued.

READING.	LANGUAGE.	ETHICS.	HISTORY.	GEOGRAPHY.
<p>Selections from <i>Lights to Literature IV</i>; Hawthorne, <i>Grandfather's Chair</i>; <i>Wonder Book</i>; Ruskin, <i>King of the Golden River</i>; Longfellow, <i>Hwathwa, Miles Standish</i>.</p>	<p>Original and reproduced narration and description, with correct paragraphing and punctuation. Outlines. Analysis of simple sentences and parts of speech. Spelling of words used in other subjects. Syllabification. Prefixes and suffixes. German begun.</p>	<p>Stories of Ruth and David, with discussions of salient points and parallel instances drawn from history and literature; of helpfulness and sacrifice, courage, friendship, jealousy, filial and parental affection.</p>	<p>Settlement of the Colonies, their characteristics, development, and forms of government. Eggleston, <i>History of the United States and Its People</i>; Burton, <i>Story of Our Country</i>.</p>	<p>The different countries of the world and its peoples. The physical features of the continents and the civilizations. North America and the United States in detail, physical features and industries. <i>Vrye's Geographies</i>.</p>
<p><i>Seren American Classics</i>; Whitier, <i>Snowbound</i>; Longfellow, <i>Building of the Ship</i>, <i>Esopagine</i>; short selections from Scott, Lowell, &amp;c.; Guerber, <i>Stories of the Greeks</i>; stories of animal life; biography, great Americans.</p>	<p>Composition: Work of Fourth and Fifth Grades continued. Grammar: Analysis continued. Simple classification and modification of all the parts of speech except verbs. Spelling as in the fifth Grade. German.</p>	<p>Story of Moses; historical parallels of the great patriots and legislators. Story of the Commandments of the Decalogue, and selected commandments of secondary Hebrew Legislation.</p>	<p>Review of colonization, French and Indian War. Study of government and growth of ideas tending toward a republic. The Revolution in simple phases. Current events. Eggleston, <i>History of the United States and Its People</i>.</p>	<p>The United States in its historical and political aspects. South America: physical and political. <i>Vrye, Grammar School Geography</i>.</p>
<p>Swinton, <i>Fifth Reader</i>; Riverside edition of <i>Emerson's Poems</i>; <i>Tales of a Wayside Inn</i>; Whittier, <i>Child Life</i>; <i>Lost of the Minicuan</i>; <i>Lyve of the Ancient Rome</i>; <i>The Heritage</i>; Rip Van Winkle.</p>	<p>Expanded outline and abstract; the related paragraph; sentence structure. Analysis and paragraphing. Spelling. German.</p>	<p>Selections from Greek history illustrating the love of freedom and courage, as shown in the Persian wars; the intellectual and artistic attainments of the age of Pericles; the moral and intellectual attainments of Socrates.</p>	<p>The American Revolution continued. Birth of Nation. War of 1812, and early territorial development. Eggleston, <i>History of the United States and Its People</i>; Fiske, <i>War of Independence</i>.</p>	<p>Europe, Asia, Africa, and Australia: physical and political. <i>Vrye, Grammar School Geography</i>.</p>
<p>General classic selections. Lewis, <i>Introduction to the Study of Literature</i>; Riverside Series; American Classics; short stories by Mary K. Wilkins, Thomas Nelson Page, and other characteristic local writers.</p>	<p>Choice of words; paragraph structure; comprehensive outline; short essay. Review of grammar. Spelling. German.</p>	<p>Biographical subjects drawn from Greek and Roman history. The conflict of patriots and plebeians, and the lessons to be derived from it.</p>	<p>United States history; expansion and division; reconstruction; industrial and political development; topical review. Fiske, <i>History of United States</i>.</p>	<p>Political: Review Physical: The position of the earth in the solar system; motion, inclination of axis, latitude and longitude; forms of land; the oceans; the atmosphere and climate. <i>Vrye Grammar School Geography</i>.</p>

## COURSE OF STUDY BY GRADES—Continued.

NATURE STUDY.	ARITHMETIC.	MANUAL WORK.	ART.	MUSIC.
In correlation with geography. Productions, animals and plants of the different regions studied. Seasonal study of plants and animals of the environment in Autumn and Spring.	Fractions, common and decimal; compound numbers, oral and written, with their practical applications. Wentworth, <i>Grammar School Arithmetic</i> ; supplementary work.	Boys: Iron Work: Involving construction and ornamentation. Wood work: Elementary tools and methods; thin wood used jointly with iron. Girls: Drafting, cutting and sewing flannel skirt and drawers; hemstitching; featherstitching; buttonholes. Weaving; netting.	Work of Fourth Grade continued. Simple applied design.	Written work songs used in general exercises. <i>Modern Music Series II.</i>
In correlation with geography. Laboratory study of common minerals of the United States. Lessons on plants and animals of the environment in Autumn and Spring.	Fractions and compound numbers, reviewed and continued; metric system; ratio; analysis and rapid mental work. Wentworth, <i>Grammar School Arithmetic</i> .	Boys: Bench work in wood. Tools and methods for heavy material introduced. Constructions serving some mechanical purpose. Girls: Drafting, cutting and sewing simple yoke dress and flannel coat. Elementary embroidery, design, and colour.	Previous work developed. Elements of Greek art. School-room decoration.	Written work songs for two voices, minor scales. <i>Modern Music Series II.</i>
In correlation with geography. Laboratory study of common minerals. Lesson on seasonal animal and plant material in Autumn and Spring.	Ratio and proportion; percentage and its applications. Wentworth, <i>Grammar School Arithmetic</i> .	Boys: Bench work. Expansion of Sixth Grade work; projects involving constructions and joints. Principles of cutting; drawing. Girls: Elementary millinery. Study of form, colour, and textiles used in class. Bench work in wood.	As before. Special attention to composition and drawing from the figure.	Elements of harmony; part songs. <i>Modern Music Series III.</i>
Physiology: Dissection of the fish and pigeon as an introduction to human anatomy; simple experiments; study of a text. Boyer, <i>Elementary Biology</i> ; Walker, <i>Physiology</i> .	Square root; mensuration. A review of arithmetic from the standpoint of principles rather than processes. Wentworth & Hill, <i>Essentials in Arithmetic</i> .	Boys: Bench work and wood turning. Individual projects. Historic elements in art and industry studied. Girls: Elementary dressmaking: Underskirt, skirt and shirt-waist. Fresh hand drafting, cutting and fitting. Study of costumes.	Studies from classic models, in connection with history of art. Further study of life forms and applied design.	Folk songs of different nations. <i>Modern Music Series III.</i>

## APPENDIX III.

The following are the topics of a discussion at the Graduate Students' Club, Teachers College, New York, on April 4th, 1900, by Dr. McMurry, who is acknowledged to be one of the greatest authorities on elementary school methods in America :—

## MEANS OF EDUCATION.

The means that may be utilised by the teacher in the education of a child are five in number—namely, the environment outside of the school, the school as a social institution, the personality of the teacher, the curriculum, and the method.

## THE SCHOOL AS A SOCIAL INSTITUTION.

1. The school is one form of community life ; it is to a large extent society in miniature.
2. To the extent that the school is a community, it furnishes an excellent field for the application of the knowledge and for the realisation of the desires gained through instruction.
3. One reason why the school community has usually failed to be a rich field for the application of instruction is that the organisation aiming at government [principalship, etc., monarchical in spirit] has not permitted it ; and further organisation [i.e., amongst the children] has been lacking.
4. The organisation adopted by society at large in this country can well be taken as a general guide in determining the kind that is suitable to the schools. For the younger children it should be the simplest possible form that allows a fair degree of self-government ; and with older pupils it may approximate more and more to the government adopted by the particular community in which the school exists.
5. The object of this organisation should not be simply the prevention of bad conduct in and about the school and the performance of governmental functions ; it should include social service in many other directions, for the benefit of those within and also without the school.
6. In all this work it is highly important to appeal directly to the *group feeling*. The school as a group or community should be held before the pupils as an idea worthy of pride and self-sacrifice.
7. An effective organisation of the school, such as has been suggested, will certainly require much time and effort on the part of teachers and pupils. Yet this work should be regarded as an essential part of the school duties, and time for it can properly be taken from the regular school hours.

APPENDIX IV.

The following CHART is based upon one prepared by Dr. C. H. THURBER, Editor of the *School Review* (Chicago), for an article on "The School System of the United States" in the *Educational Review* (London), and published in the issue of November, 1899.

	ELEMENTARY.													SECONDARY.				HIGHER.					
Pupil's age	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	
School grades			1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th									
	Kindergarten		Primary Grades			Common		Grammar School			High		School		College			University					
																Technical							
																School							
																Normal							
																School							

"This norm is departed from here in one direction and there in another; but, on the whole, it furnishes a standard by which any state system or any city system may be measured, and in most cases the departures from this norm will not be so considerable as to invalidate its truth."



## APPENDIX V.

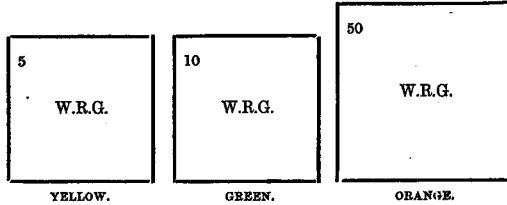
## ACCOUNT OF A VISIT TO THE GEORGE JUNIOR REPUBLIC.

APRIL 27, 1900

Freeville, the scene of the efforts of Mr. and Mrs. George, is an open and, in parts, unreclaimed piece of country towards the north-west of New York State, and, so far as memory serves, about ten miles from Ithaca, the seat of Cornell University. About fifty acres are occupied by the Republic, but its borders are from time to time extended. A visit to the founder's house at once reveals the fact that Mr. and Mrs. George are alike in their enthusiastic devotion to the work. Neither of them speaks or acts as though it were a sacrifice to be "fellow citizens" with boys and girls rescued from the perils of city streets. Evidently it is the one life which completely satisfies their passion for social service. To the outside world, and in every sense of moral leadership within the community, Mr. George is superintendent. Within the Republic, however, he is neither president nor principal nor teacher, but a friend and elder brother, and by all but the older ones is addressed with genial affection as "daddy." One requires to live in the Republic to understand its many-sided life. In order, however, to begin upon the most familiar ground, and gradually work out towards the strikingly novel features of the Junior Republic, the schools were first visited. There are two teachers, both of whom live in the Republic, one a graduate of Teachers College, New York, the other a graduate of Cornell University. When we entered a geography lesson was being given, and, as it happened to be upon a somewhat formal part of the subject, interest was being aroused in the work by a division of the class into halves for the purpose of a "class contest." The teacher asked questions alternately from each side, the children standing by the walls to left and right. Failure on one side and a correct answer on the other gave the successful child the right of choosing for his own side any one of his opponents. The constant element of uncertainty and this privilege of choice kept up the interest in the lesson in a way that amongst these children would have been impossible on more formal lines. When one learnt that the captain of one of the sides had been a housebreaker one realised how great was the opportunity which was being afforded by means of the Republic school. There seemed to be only one objection to the special form of class-contest that was being employed, the way, namely, of registering successes. It seemed to create an *esprit de corps*, or desire for the success of one's side—a feeling which was evidently heartily shared by some—and then to destroy it by making children pass over unwillingly, almost like prisoners, to an enemy. The other geography lesson which was being taken during the hour was being conducted on a time-saving and, with such backward children, a labour-saving plan of having those who thought they knew the lesson stand out opposite the rest of the class. In the class of twenty, eight had stood out in this way: the rest remained at their desks, learning partly from their books and partly by listening to the answers of others. Amongst the eight, taking places was the device employed. The schools are under State supervision, and follow the general requirements prescribed by the State. There are morning and afternoon schools, each of which is divided into two grades. Some of the more promising and advanced pupils go to the high school in Freeville, whence two have already passed on to Cornell as university students.

The schoolroom is the only place where anyone has authority excepting the citizens themselves. There are adult employers of labour who are members of the staff and are really instructors in farming, carpentering, printing, etc., as well as employers; but between these and the citizens the only bond is the commercial one. Each citizen receives payment for work done in Junior Republic currency. This was at first in the

form of square cards bearing Mr. George's initials, the value being marked in the corner.



The card-money has been replaced by a tin currency. Nothing can be had either in the way of food or lodging or clothes excepting as it is earned. The citizens work, according to arrangement, either by the hour or by the week. They are paid in checks, which they cash in the "bank" for tin money. Each has a purchasing ability according to his earnings, and is free to spend his money as he will. Some discretion is exercised in the matter of allotting earnings; at times the money is really earned, in other cases it is paid in some measure as a reward for effort. Such inquiries as were made in detail gave the general impression that wages were far from excessive, and that prices in the Junior Republic, as a rule, were high. The citizens have passed a Vagrancy Act whereby an idler may be sent to the workhouse and compelled to work for the State. Boys frequently become employers of other boys, taking out contracts to do a certain piece of work. An hotel and restaurant are run by a group of boys who pay rent for the premises and charge a varying rate according to the room that is occupied and the style of living. A boy can live at the restaurant for three dollars a week, at the hotel for from four to five and a half dollars. There are also cottages where citizens can live together in families of twelve with a motherly woman as "house mother." But whatever domestic arrangements a citizen chooses to make, he has to be self-supporting; to this there are but three exceptions, that of the workhouse, that of the prison—and in both cases inmates have to work for the 'State' during the day, and are supported by a State tax—and, for those who are sick and have no funds, the hospital, where patients are cared for at the public expense. The conditions of ordinary civil life are reproduced in every possible way. The citizens enter upon a struggle for existence parallel in all material respects to that of the outside world. Mr. George believes that the best thing in the world for these children is to be "thrown over board," quoting President Garfield's words that "in all his experience he had never known one to drown who was worth saving." But in the Junior Republic the conditions are encouraging and helpful, and enable many to make a new beginning who, though mere youths, had already to all intents and purposes suffered shipwreck.

There is a fundamental difference between the George Junior Republic and the "school city" organisation, described in the eleventh chapter. Here the boys are actually a miniature community, or, as they prefer to call themselves, a republic. The whole thing is intensely real. Before describing further what was seen in operation or learned in conversation from Mr. George and several of the citizens, a word or two as to the history of the effort may explain the causes which have led up to the institution in its present form. A New York evening paper, in April 1890, reported in its columns the disappointment of a little streetboy who saw what he took to be a dandelion growing in City Hall Park. When he ran up to it he found that it was only a piece of orange peel. This incident led Mr. George, already engaged in philanthropic work in New York, to resolve that at least some such children should see the country during the summer months. He started summer camps for city children, and over two

hundred children went out with him each year. But in time he saw the defects of this scheme as a moral instrument. Many came for what they could get; they were a nuisance to the neighbourhood they visited; and returned to the city but little better than they had left it.

The first reform was to make the children work for their own support; next, only such were received as would stay a whole year. In 1895 the summer camp resolved itself into the Junior Republic. Plato attributes the foundation of his republic to economic necessities, and derives from these elementary conditions his practical definition of justice. Something similar has actually taken place at Freeville during the last five years. The one fundamental principle of self-support has branched into a whole cluster of principles pertaining to man's social experience, and the various forms of civic and national life referred to in the text\* are the result. The most remarkable in many ways are the means adopted by the Junior Republicans for the maintenance of mutual rights or justice; although in so saying one must not overlook the financial and currency problems which have arisen from time to time, and which, as already stated, have aroused and continue to arouse the interest of professional economists. The main problem of the Junior Republic is, however, to convert those who have learnt to look upon the law and its representatives as natural enemies into law-abiding citizens. The solution of this problem has been found to reside in two principles: (1) that each citizen is obliged to work for his own support; (2) that, in consequence of their community life, each individual feels his responsibility not only for his own conduct but for the conduct of his fellow-citizens. The laws in force in the Junior Republic are those of the United States Republic *plus* those which the Junior Republic enacts. The latter are, as a rule, modelled upon the New York State law. Most offences are dealt with in the court. This is a very different experience from being brought up before an ordinary city court, with which many of them are only too familiar. If a boy steals, he finds that he has not been stealing from a corporation but from one of his fellow-citizens; the policeman who arrests him, the judge and jury who try him, are also fellow-citizens. Boys who have thought it an honour to be arrested in New York city utterly break down under the ordeal of facing their peers. One boy, actually proud when he first joined the republic of having taken another's life, fainted away when brought before his fellow-citizens, and had to be taken outside to revive. "The criminal boy," said Mr. George, "discovers that it does not pay to be bad; and the lazy boy, that it does not pay to be idle." Public opinion is against criminality and idleness: as, for example, when one citizen said to another, "You are the most selfish fellow here." "Why, what do I do?" was the reply. "You keep getting into prison, and we have to pay taxes to keep you." Another came in and said, "I find that if the fellows behaved themselves the taxes would only be one-eighth of what they are at the present time." The public school, the post office, and street-cleaning department cost only one-eighth of the total taxation; singularly enough, the proportions are said to be about the same outside in the larger republic. "Moral education goes on," said Mr. George, "by the boys and girls educating each other on the lines of practical citizenship." Some of the results are remarkable: the judge of the Junior Republic court, at the time of the writer's visit, had been four times committed in New York city; he was attending regularly the high school in the village; the newly-elected president, the 'Hon.' Philip W.—, until fifteen months before had not spent more than three months in school in his life, and did not know the multiplication table; he was eighteen years of age when he joined the George Junior Republic, and thinks he will get through the high-school course in two years, and then, by taking care of the furnaces and waiting at table in return for his board, be able to take a three years' course at Cornell in horticulture, his ambition being to take up Junior Republic work. This youth had a number of volumes in his private library; his earnings have been about six dollars a week—three dollars for taking charge of the bank, two dollars for being secretary to the treasury, one dollar for being on the police commission; he also made money by acting

\* Chapter XIX.

as a lawyer, receiving five dollars for each case. He was stimulated to effort by seeing that if he had no education he could not get a position in the republic, and studied hard, staying up till twelve and one o'clock at night. One noticeable feature is the amount of time given to studying law. The Memorial Library, a gift to the Junior Republic, contains numbers of well-thumbed volumes on law. In the room of the judge were private copies of the New York Code of Criminal Procedure and two books on civil procedure. This boy had been a resident for three years, and not only the contents of his room, but the taste with which they were displayed, showed what valuable use he had made of the time. There was a bookcase which he had bought at the carpenter's shop, a clock, photographs, inkstand and pen-wiper. It was a beautifully adorned little room, the very curtains decorated with paper poppies, and every panel in the door having a well-selected little picture. The boy's card was on the door outside denoting the office he had just relinquished :

SAMUEL W. S——

Secretary of State  
George Junior Republic. Freeville, N.Y.

There is a considerable number of small children about ten or eleven years of age. These are treated as minors (twelve being the qualifying age for citizenship), and guardians are appointed by the court. A guardian has charge of ten minors, for which he receives fifty cents (about 2s.) a week, the money being subscribed by the tax-paying citizens. One of the guardians had established a George Junior Republic, with a president, judge, and police of its own.

The fact of becoming possessed of property as a result of personal toil has taught these boys and girls respect for property, and led up to a very complete judicial system. Judge and attorneys have been spoken of. Some of the latter have a reputation for skill in pleading which they work hard to maintain, reading up for their cases with tireless industry. There are both boy and girl police, who arrest and have charge of boy and girl culprits respectively. All supervision is left to the recognised officers. As it happened, there were no adults on the whole estate on the evening of the writer's visit, excepting Mr. George, who was evidently quite free from any feeling of being on the watch. If there were a fight Mr. George would not stop it : the citizens would call the police. The great advantage of this is that, being set free from all part in detecting or in punishing culprits, Mr. George is the confidant and friend of all. Children confess all kinds of faults to him, and, however serious they may be, the Republic takes cognisance only of the repentance shown in confessing. It is not there to punish : its work is solely the rebuilding of moral ruins. The most serious part of the republic life is the necessity for the prison, with its cells, its prison garb and fare, and daily working in the prison gang. Boy and girl prisoners under police or warders of the same sex are to be seen marching in from work to meals, and then marching to the cells at night, all perfectly orderly, not regarded with the idle curiosity with which civilians often watch ordinary convicts—partly, doubtless, because during the first few weeks of residence most new citizens spend a great part of their time in gaol for offences of one kind or another. Prisoners cease to be citizens. A clear month's exemplary conduct is the minimum qualification for any office under the Republic. But the effect of the prison discipline here is to save many from the prison outside ; and there is always the chance of retrieving character and rising to high office in the "State." When one police officer's room was visited he was found to be investigating a case of some United States money which had been stolen. Two small boys were giving evidence as to what the

knew or had seen, addressing the policeman as "Sir," and speaking of the citizen from whom the money had been taken as "Mr. D.----." The sentence in cases of stealing is usually six months, but culprits may be released in about two months on parole.

A very interesting item in the life of the Republic is the issue from the George Junior Republic press of a monthly paper called the *Junior Republic Citizen*. The writing is done entirely by the citizens, and is printed just as it leaves their pen. They are merely requested to do their best, and if the "copy" is approved by the citizen-editor it is inserted. The census is taken by the government each month and published in the *Citizen*, and the "police blotter" containing the list of charges and convictions. Numbers are inserted instead of names in each case, and the census—which, by the way, is used in certain university classes as a study in practical economics—contains the following details concerning every citizen: occupation, age, time at Republic, cash in possession and in bank, personal property, loans, debts, total wealth. Amongst the occupations are those of bookkeeper, judge, banker, painter, farmer, labourer, carpenter, proof-reader, secretary of State, laundress, cook, librarian, waitress, policeman. Perhaps the first instalment of an article on the Pilgrim Fathers will be of sufficient interest for reproduction here. It is taken from the *Citizen* of February 1900:—

#### THE PILGRIMS.

Once upon a time there was some people who live in England and they could not worship God as they wanted they all had to worship God as the queen did and so a number of people form a colony and all of the people go together and decided on where they should go, some were, And so they should worship god as they wanted to and so there was a man in this colony who was rich by the name John Robbonison and William Brewster and so they decided to hold meeting in John Robboneson house and the name of the town was Scruby so they did and so they made up their mind to leave the country and went to get out of the Country as quick as they can, and as they meet to gather twice a week they did not dress up as we do, now, but they dress in the plain woolen clothing and so they keep this up for quite a while and so they got tired of living in that kind of life and so they made up their mind to leave the country. And so they got a sailor to take them over to holland and the people got all ready to go and so the sailor was an Englishmen and so he tole on the people, And morning that they were at the place were they was to start from and a lot of armed soldires came and capture them. Then so they were put in jail and kept there for a long time, they took them to all of the courts that they could find in the neighbourhood and so they found out that could not hold them and they let them go and they all went back to Scruby, and stay there and worship god as they want to but no one know that they were holding meetines in this house the name of the man was John Robison pastor and William Bruester Elder of the church, thees two men were the head of all the other men. Then and so were put in jail and were in there for a long space of time. They put the women and children on a boat on the river near the ocean, and the men went another way. But the women got there first, and when the men got there they went right on the ship, and so while the women were waiting for the men to come some armed soldires came and capture the women and children so the men and the sailor saw the soldires coming and they sailed into the ocean. And the men begged the sailor to come back and get the women, But he was afraid to come back. They put the women and children in jail, but they let them go and put them on another ship. And when they got to Holland they found the men waiting for them.

R. B.

The population in April 1900 was ninety-seven, of whom forty were duly qualified citizens: about one quarter of the number were girls. Over a hundred applications from parents, city missionaries, societies for children's aid and for the prevention of cruelty to children, were waiting to be considered. This leads one to say that not all are criminals; some

are sent by their parents or by philanthropic societies for training and protection. Necessarily some outside support is required for the maintenance of the Republic, but so efficient is its work of training and reformation that friends are continually coming forward with generous help.

## APPENDIX VI.

## (I.) CORRESPONDENCE.

Among letters received were two of special value in relation to the present report from the presidents of Yale University and of Vassar [Women's] College.

Dr. Taylor, President of Vassar College, wrote as follows :—

"First, as to the subjects which lend themselves most to the enforcement of the moral aim in education, I should say that here or elsewhere everything depends upon the teacher. We aim to have teachers who thoroughly appreciate the value of the moral force in training, and who believe emphatically in the prime value of character. Almost any subject becomes in the hands of such a person the vehicle for moral education. I should find it hard to distinguish, perhaps, though I should be prone to give philosophy and ethics the first place, but in no sense to the exclusion of the rest. We have teachers, for example, of the sciences who, without obtruding the moral issues at all, know how to make their scientific work convey the fullest moral instruction and even inspiration. The possibilities are very evident in connection with all the studies you mention.

"Second, as to the other agencies outside of the actual teaching, I may mention the religious conduct of the college, its chapel services, and the ministry on Sunday of clergymen from various branches of the Church and from different parts of the country, the Bible lectures which are given by specialists, the specific talks in chapel by the President and Lady Principal bearing on particular issues, and the general influences exerted towards this end by the resident teachers both in precept and example. I think that I ought to add here a reference to our system of self-government which places the responsibility of the general order of the college upon the Student Association, and which proceeds largely upon the idea of individual honour. I regard this as an agency of great moral worth. I may mention also the responsibility laid upon the senior class for the general conduct of the College. Of course its influence is only the influence of its position, but the senior classes are made to feel that they are responsible for the tone of the college, and the result is most satisfactory. The moral education growing out of this is very marked.

"Third, we conserve the principle of individuality through our student organisation which relies largely upon individual honour, through our dealing with the individual student and the sense of responsibility which we enforce upon each one, and through our methods of instruction, which include a great deal of individual work on special topics, essays, &c. making the individual feel the responsibility of the single student rather than of the class. I might say that these general influences are supplemented by the spirit of the talks which are given to the students and which aim continually to enforce the principle of individual responsibility and opportunity. We fancy that we combine these very happily with the insistence which we put upon organisation. At least our students seem to be thoroughly individual, and yet work strongly together."

President Hadley, of Yale, wrote :—

"1st. The attempt to use specific studies for the purpose of inculcating morality seems to me, and I think to most of us here, a mistake. I know of nothing which covers this point better than the quotation from 'Alice in Wonderland': 'It does not matter so much what you say as how you say it.'

"2nd. We have been fortunate enough to have had from the beginning a very strong set of moral and religious traditions. The maintenance of

these traditions and customs and ways of looking at things is something in which both faculty and students co-operate, and on which we find that we can rely very greatly."

The following is a list of City Superintendents of Schools from whom replies were received to a circular letter bearing upon the present report (those visited were not written to) :—

SUPERINTENDENT.	CITY.
H. S. Tarbell - - - -	Providence, R.I.
H. S. Bullard - - - -	Hartford, Conn.
C. H. Gordon - - - -	Lincoln, Nebraska.
E. H. Mark - - - -	Louisville, Ky.
L. P. Nash - - - -	Holyoke, Mass.
J. T. Prince (Agent) - - -	State of Massachusetts
R. H. Webster - - - -	San Francisco, Cal.
H. E. Kratz - - - -	Sioux City, Iowa.
W. F. Slaton - - - -	Atlanta, Ga.
Amos Hiatt - - - -	Des Moines, Iowa.
O. B. Bruce - - - -	Lynn, Mass.
J. A. Shawan (per Miss M. W. Sutherland) - - - -	Columbus, Ohio.
F. R. Hathaway - - - -	Grand Rapids, Mich.
C. B. Gilbert - - - -	Newark, N.J.
J. A. Foshay - - - -	Los Angeles, Cal.
W. W. Chalmers - - - -	Toledo, Ohio.
Aaron Gove - - - -	Denver, Col.
Miss Small (Supervisor) - -	Elwood, Indiana.
C. H. Gordon - - - -	Lincoln, Neb.
F. Cogswell - - - -	Cambridge, Mass.
M. V. Bergen (per J. E. Bryan)	Camden, N.J.

Letters were also received, amongst others, from President Booker T. Washington, of Tuskegee, and from Father McMillan, Director of the Catholic Schools, 59th Street, New York. (The latter desired particularly to record his admiration of the method and thoroughness of the Report of the English Educational Commission, 1888-89.)

#### III.—VISITS AND INTERVIEWS.

City.	Schools, &c.	People Interviewed.
New York.	- -	Dr. Maxwell, City Supt. Dr. Felix Adler Mr Ossian H. Long.
	Hudson Guild	Dr. Elliott

## II.—VISITS AND INTERVIEWS—Continued.

City.	Schools, &c.	People Interviewed
New York ( <i>contd.</i> )	Teachers College	Professor Baker Professor Luckey (of Nebraska University) Dean Russell Professor McMurry The librarian, graduate students, lectures, seminar conference, &c.
	Horace Mann School	Miss Wohlfarth Miss Runyan and teachers
	Columbia University	Dr. N. M. Butler, lecture and seminar, &c. Dr. Keene, law lecture case method Dr. J. H. Canfield
	Ethical Culture Schools	Dr. Reigart and staff
	Do. Teachers' Meeting	Dr. Elliott
	Do. Sunday School	Miss Caroline T. Haven
	Do. Kindergarten Normal Department	Mr. Chubb, principal
	Do. High School	Mr. Chubb, principal
	Kindergarten	Mrs. Langzittel
	Board of Superintendents	Dr. Shimer Mr. G. S. Davis Mr. A. W. Edson Dr. Leipziger Dr. Marble
	Public School (135th Street)	Mr. Sieberg, principle
	Henry Street Settlement	Miss Wald Rev. J. H. Denison
	Public School No. 140 (three departments)	Mr. Cassidy Miss Schoonmaker Miss Whalen
	New York Kinderg. Asso.	Miss Dozier, supt.
	High School for Girls (Wadleigh School)	Dr. Wight, principal Dr. Rice, Ed. Forum
	Public School No. 117	Miss Cunningham, prin.
Public School No. 87	Mr. Boyer Mr. Daniels	
Kinderg. Training Coll.	Mme. Kraus-Poelke	
Normal College	Dr. Hunter, principal	



II.—VISITS AND INTERVIEWS—*Continued.*

City.	Schools, &c.	People Interviewed.
New York ( <i>cont'd</i> )	Collegiate Sch. for Boys	Dr. Julius Sachs
	Collegiate Sch. for Girls	Dr. Julius Sachs
	Paulist Fathers' Schools	Father Doyle Rev. Thos. McMillan
	Patriotic League	Mr. Wilson L. Gill, founder of the School City
	League for Political Education	The Secretary
	City History League	Miss Fairfield
	Public Education Asso.	The Secretary
	West Side Settlement	Mr. G. A. Plimpton
Mount Vernon (N.Y.)	—	Dr. Van Denburg
Brooklyn	—	Dr. E. G. Ward, <i>supt.</i>
	—	Mr. Haaren, <i>assoc. supt</i>
	Public School No. —	Mr. Bristol, <i>principal</i>
	Public School No. —	Mr. Raine, <i>principal</i>
	Public School No. 47	Miss Eginton, <i>principal</i>
	Erasmus Hall High Schl.	Dr. W. B. Gunnison Mr. G. A. Hubbell
	Tratt Institute	The Secretary
	1. Kindergarten	Miss Pitts Miss M. Glidden
	2. Workshops	The Directors (Miss H. M. Cox, <i>principal</i> Roman Catholic School Mr. W. A. Rayfield, <i>in-</i> <i>structor at Tuskegee</i> )
Yonker (N.Y.)	—	Mr. H. E. Gorton, <i>supt.</i>
	School No. 6	The Principal and teachers
Washington	The Bureau of Education	The Hon. W. T. Harris
	Board of Education	Mr. Powell, <i>city super-</i> <i>intendent</i> Miss Scammell, <i>music</i> <i>supervisor</i> Miss Denny, <i>primary su-</i> <i>pervisor</i> Miss Stoneroad, <i>physical</i> <i>instruction supervisor</i>

## II.—VISITS AND INTERVIEWS.—Continued.

City.	Schools, &c.	People Interviewed.
Washington (continued)	The Normal School	Mrs. Myers, principal
	Wallach School	Miss Beers Members of staff
	Dennison School	The Principal
	The Phœbe A. Hearst Kindergarten	Miss Niel, principal Miss Blow, visiting
	Central High School	Dr. Lane, supervisor of High Schools Mr. J. A. Chamberlain, director of manual training in the city Miss Wilson, art teacher
	Franklin School	The Principal and teachers
	Manual Training School	Dr. T. de Witt Talmage Rev. F. G. Porter, D.D. (Baltimore) Rev. Dr. Ratcliff
	Garnet School	The Principal
	Phelps School	Miss Garrison, principal
	Seaton School	} Conducted by Mr. Powell
	Thompson School	
	Gales School (kindergarten)	
	Foxe School	
	The Psychological Laboratory	Prof. Gates Prof. Bliss
	Coloured schools	Mr. Cook, supt. Mr. Brown, supervising principal Miss Hunter, kindergarten supervisor
	Sumner School (c.) Paterson School (c.)	} Conducted by Mr. Cook.
	Coloured Normal School	Miss Molen, principal
	Philadelphia	Dr. Brooks, supt.
	Drexel Institute	President McAlister
Roxburgh School	Mrs. Thomas, principal	

## II.—VISITS AND INTERVIEWS—Continued.

City.	Schools, &c.	People Interviewed.
Philadelphia (continued)	Board of Education Library (Teachers' Assembly)	Dr. Jacobs, assist.-supt. J. D. Blaine, supervising principal Dr. W. L. Sayre, prin. Manual Trg. High Sch. School principals: Mr. Kane Miss Wright Miss Crease Miss A. J. McCormick (School City)
	Girard College	Dr. Fetterolf, pres.
	Newton Girls' School	Miss Bradshaw, principal
	Newton Boys' School	Mr. Stout, principal
	Ethical Societies' Congress	Dr. Adler and others
Providence (R.I.)	Sockanosset School for Boys	Mr. E. Butterfield, deputy superintendent Rev. J. H. Nutting, chaplain to the State Institutions
	Oaklawn School for Girls	Mrs. C. F. Forbush, prin.
Boston	State House	Dr. Hill, State Secretary of Education
	Bowdoin School	Mr. Seaver, city supt. The Principal
	Frang System	Mr. J. S. Clarke
	Trustees for Children	Dr. Putnam
	Parental School	Mr. Day, superintendent
	House of Reformation	Mr. Seavey supt.
	Perkins School	Miss Fisher, kindergarten supervisor
	Horace Mann School for Deaf Mutes	The Principal
Cambridge	Harvard University	President Eliot Professor Hannus Professor Ashley  Mr. Gilman (Educator of Helen Keller)
	—	Mr. Dutton, supt.
Brookline	High School	Col. F. W. Parker (visiting) Mr. Sanford, principal
	Edward Devotion School Lawrence School	Conducted by Mr. Dutton

## II.—VISITS AND INTERVIEWS—Continued.

City.	Schools, &c.	People Interviewed.
Quincy	Public Meeting	Celebration of 25th Anniversary of Quincy Movement
Worcester	—	Mr. Carroll, supt.
	Providence School	Mr. T. J. Higgins, prin.
	Winslow School	Mr. Lyford, principal
	New Woodland School	Mr. J. Jackson
	Dix Street School	Mr. Vermille, principal
	Clark University	President G. Stanley Hall Professor Burnham Dr. Hodge Dr. H. Thurber Dr. P. W. Search
	Worcester Normal School	Dr. Russell, principal
Syracuse	—	Mr. Blodgett, supt.
	Montgomery School	Mr. Drum, principal.
	Truant School	The Principal. Mr. C. W. Bardeen.
Freeville	The George Junior Republic	Mr. W. R. George The Citizens Mrs. F. G. Curtis (visiting)
Oswego	—	Mr. Bullis, superintendent
	Normal School	The Principal Mr. Carr Dr. Kleinsorge Miss Scales, history Miss Funelle, kindergarten
	The Practising School	—
	Oswego High School	The Principal
Batavia	—	Mr. Kennedy, supt.
	High School	—
	East Main School	—
	School for the Blind	—
Niagara Falls	—	Mr. Benham, supt.

II.—VISITS AND INTERVIEWS—*Continued.*

City.	Schools, &c.	People Interviewed.	
Cleveland	—	Mr. L. H. Jones, supt. Miss Graeff, kindergarten supervisor Miss Reveley, supervisor of geography and arithmetic	
	Sibley School	Miss Sterling, principal	
	Brownell School	Miss Johnson, principal	
	Eagle School	Miss Burroughs, principal	
	Dunham School	Miss M. J. Bright, prin. Miss Ross	
	Central High School	Mr. Truesdale, economics and civics Mr. Zeligzon, history	
	Truancy Department	Mr. A. McBane, presiding officer Mr. McGillvrey, principal of training school	
	Hiram House Settlement	Mr. Manney	
	Detroit	—	Mr. Martindale, supt. Miss Myra Jones, art supervisor Miss Minkins, kindergarten teacher Dr. and Mrs. Canfield
Ann Arbor		Michigan State University	President Angell Professor Hinsdale Professor Taylor
		Ypsilanti	State Normal College
Chicago	Board of Education	Mr. Delano, acting supt. Dr. Nightingale, High Schools Superintendent Professor F. W. Smedley (director of Child Study) and staff	
	University of Chicago	Professor Dewey Mrs. Ella Young	
	University Elementary School	Miss Bacon and teachers	

## II.—VISITS AND INTERVIEWS—Continued.

City.	Schools, &c.	People Interviewed.
Chicago ( <i>contd.</i> )	Forestville School	Miss Holbrooke
	Forestville Kindergarten	Miss Barbour
	Chicago Kindergarten Training College	Mrs. Crouse, director Miss Harrison, principal Dr. Snider (psychology) Miss Fulmer
	Child Study Conference (two days)	
	Hyde Park Baptist Sunday School (and Kindergarten)	Mrs. Rothman Miss Jessie L. Green
	Presbyterian Sunday School (kindergarten teacher)	
	Horace Greeley School and Kindergarten	The Principals
	Armour Institute	Professor Monin Professor Alderson
	Armour Kindergarten	Miss Whitmore Miss Cantwell Miss Taylor
		Mr. J. G. Shortall
	W. Fuller School	Mr. B. F. Hill, principal
	Meeting of Board of Education	
	Meeting of Committee on Studies	
	Englewood High School	Mr. Armstrong, principal
	Chicago Normal School	Dr. Giffen Miss Mullar Prof. H. W. Thurston
	Hyde Park High School	Mr. French, principal
Frances E. Willard School	Mr. Stable, principal	
	Rev. Dr. Noble.	
	Miss Jane Addams	
Minneapolis		Dr. Jordan, supt. Mrs. A. W. Cooley, primary supervisor Mr. Painter, supervisor of manual training

II.—VISITS AND INTERVIEWS—*Continued.*

City.	Schools, &c.	People Interviewed.
Minneapolis ( <i>continued</i> )		Miss Snow, art supervisor Miss Trask, music supervisor
	Douglas School	Miss Forester, principal
	Sheridan School	Mrs. Rollins
	Madison School	Mrs. Lewis Mrs. Nye
	Franklin School	Miss Blaisdell Mr. S. C. Gale
	University of Minnesota	President Northrop
St. Paul	Central High School	Mr. E. V. Robinson, prin.
	Teachers' Training School	Miss Brooks Archbishop Ireland
Peoria	—	Mr. N. C. Dougherty, supt.
	White School	Miss Crawley, principal
	Lincoln School	Mr. Mercer, principal Miss Martin
	The Bradley Polytechnic Institute	Mr. Sisson, director
Indianapolis	—	The President of the Board of Education Mr. Goss, superintendent Miss Cropsey, assoc. supt. Miss Seegmiller, art supervisor Mr. Wahlstrom, manual instructor
	School No. 3	Miss Alexander, supervising principal Miss Edgeworth, prin. Miss Dixon
	School No. 2	Miss Hamilton, prin.
	School No. 4	Miss Kirlin, prin.
	School No. 28	Miss Ingersoll, prin.
	School No. 8	Mr. P. W. Dykema Mr. Bassett
	School No. 24 (coloured)	Mr. T. B. Williams, prin.
	Boys' School (truant)	Miss Wright, prin.

## II.—VISITS AND INTERVIEWS—Continued.

City.	Schools, &c.	People Interviewed.
Indianapolis( <i>contd.</i> )	Indianapolis Normal School Meeting at Board of Education	Miss Nicholson, prin. Supervising Principals
Dayton	—	Mr. Grafton C. Kennedy, President of the Board of Education Dr. Hailmann, supt. Mr. H. Martin, Clerk to the Board
	Twelfth District School	Mr. P. A. Winder, prin.
	National Cash Register Sunday School and Social Settlement	—
Cincinnati	—	Dr. R. G. Boone, supt.
	Sixth District School	Dr. H. H. Fick, principal
	Third Intermediate School	Dr. E. H. Pritchard, prin. Mrs. Jones (grammar and reading) Miss Rothe Miss Harkaway The Mathematics Master
	Hughes High School	Mr. E. W. Coy
		Mr. J. J. Mass, principal 2nd District School Mr. J. P. Cummins, prin. 22nd District School
Toronto	Office of the Minister of Education for the Pro- vince of Ontario	Hon. R. Harcourt, M.A., K.C.
	School Board Offices	Inspector, Mr. J. L. Hughes Mr. W. F. Chapman, as- sistant inspector Miss Semple, art super- visor
	Practising School	Conducted by Mr. Hughes
	Queen Victoria School	The Principal
	Rosedale School	The Principal
	John Street School	The Principal
	Elizabeth Street School	The Principal



II.—VISITS AND INTERVIEWS—*Continued.*

City.	Schools, &c.	People Interviewed.
Toronto ( <i>contd.</i> )	Huron Street School	Mr. Bruce, principal
	— School	The Principal
	Normal School	Principal Scott Mr. Elliot
	High School	Dr. MacMurphy
	Upper Canada College	Principal Parkin
		Dr. Rand, of McMaster University
	Art League Meeting	Mrs. J. L. Hughes
Teachers' Assembly	—	

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE CITY SCHOOL  
SYSTEMS OF THE UNITED STATES.

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- Introductory : The Typical System
1. Election of the School Board
  2. The Sources of Revenue and its Limits.
  3. The City Superintendent of Schools
  4. The Appointment of Teachers.
- Conclusion.

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE CITY SCHOOL  
SYSTEMS OF THE UNITED STATES.\*

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INTRODUCTORY.

In the report of the Commissioner of Education (Washington), 1895-6, Vol. I. Part I., Chapter I., the typical organization of an American School system is described, and though the variations from this form are very many and diverse, it will form a useful scheme on which to base comparisons. The following is a summary:—

1. A board is elected by the people to serve without pay, and have full power to establish, maintain, and control free public schools for all children of school age in the city.
2. Each year the board estimates the money required for the following year, and submits this estimate to the city council, which appropriates such sums for the schools as are necessary and convenient; these sums, when allotted, are controlled by the board.
3. The board elects a business manager and a superintendent of schools; these are the executive officers in their departments, and the latter has very great powers in administration of the schools, generally and in detail.
4. The teachers are appointed by a committee of the board acting with the superintendent. New teachers are frequently graduates of the normal school of the city. In other cases they must pass an examination.

In the Commissioner's report for 1898-9, Chapter XXXVI., we have a second account of the City School systems, and we find this statement:—"The variations from the normal type . . . described [in 1896] have been so radical, so numerous, and of such importance that it would be difficult now to say just what the normal type is."

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\* The writer of this paper desires to acknowledge the help of Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University, New York, who has been so good as to read the proof-sheets before publication.

The following account is based on these two chapters, brought up to date as far as possible by the material used in the compilation of the following reports on special cities:—Chicago, New York, Boston, and St. Louis. The schemes summarised are those which existed (so far as we have information) in 1900, except in the case of New York, where we have introduced the changes, which are to come into effect in 1902.

The cities dealt with are New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, St. Louis (Missouri), Atlanta, Boston, Baltimore, San Francisco, Cincinnati, Cleveland (Ohio), Buffalo, New Orleans, Pittsburg, Washington (D.C.), Detroit, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, St. Paul (Minn.), Denver (City District, No. 1), Rochester, Toledo, Indianapolis, Charleston, Hartford (Conn.), and Savannah.

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### 1. ELECTION OF THE SCHOOL BOARD.\*

The board is appointed by the Mayor in San Francisco, New York, St. Paul, Chicago, and Baltimore. At Chicago and Baltimore confirmation by the City Council is necessary. The board is appointed by the Judges of Common Pleas at Philadelphia. At Milwaukee the mayor appoints four commissioners (one annually, each serving for four years), and they appoint the school board. Buffalo has no school board, but the City Council control the schools. At Washington the board is appointed by the Commissioners of the District of Columbia. At New Orleans eight of the members of the board are appointed by the governor of the State, and twelve elected by the city council. At Charleston six are elected by the people, and four appointed by the governor of the state, two of whom are nominated by the trustees of the Charleston High School, and two by the trustees of the College of Charleston. The board at Atlanta consists of the mayor, the committee of the council on public schools, and seven members elected by the mayor and council. At Savannah the board of twelve is a self-perpetuating, close corporation as to nine members, the mayor is an ex-officio member, the remaining two are appointed by the mayor, with the consent of the council.

Thus thirteen of the boards are elected by various indirect methods, while the remaining twelve, viz., those of St. Louis, Boston, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Pittsburg, Detroit, Minneapolis, Denver, Indianapolis, Hartford, Rochester and Toledo, are elected directly by the people.

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\* The school boards have a great variety of titles, which are not used in this paper.

The following table shows the terms of office of the members, the number of members, and the description of the localities from which they are selected.

City.	Term of Office.	No. of Members.	Selected from
	Years.		
New York - -	5	46	{ The boroughs, viz., Manhattan 23, The Bronx 4, Brooklyn 14, Queens 4, Richmond 2.
Chicago - -	3	21	The city at large.
Philadelphia - -	3	37	The wards.
St. Louis - -	6	12	The city at large.
Atlanta - -	5	9	{ The wards, except ex-officio members.
Boston - -	3	24	The city at large.
Baltimore - -	6	9	" "
San Francisco - -	4	4	" "
Cincinnati - -	3	30	The wards.
Cleveland - -	2	8	The city at large.
New Orleans - -	4	20	" "
Pittsburg - -	3	37	The wards.
Washington - -	7	7	The city at large
Detroit - -	4	16	The wards.
Milwaukee - -	3	21	" "
Minneapolis - -	6	7	The city at large.
St. Paul - -	3	7	" "
Denver (City District, No. 1.) }	3	6	" "
Indianapolis - -	4	5	" "
Charleston - -	4	10	{ 6 from districts, 4 from the city at large.
Hartford - -	3	9	The city at large.
Rochester - -	4	5	" "
Toledo - -	5	5	" "
Savannah - -	not specified	12	" "

At Rochester and Cincinnati the members retire all together. At the other centres a given number retire annually or biennially

in rotation. Members of the board are paid in San Francisco and Washington.

From the above we see that very diverse opinions are held as to the proper number of members and the proper term of office. The tendency appears to be to reduce the number of members.

## 2. THE SOURCES OF REVENUE AND ITS LIMITS.

The school boards of the following cities determine and levy their own taxes; the maximum allowed by law per 100 dols. taxable valuation is given after the name if known:—St. Louis (40 cents, unless increased by popular vote), Cincinnati (50 cents), Cleveland (70 cents), Pittsburg, Minneapolis (40 cents), St. Paul (25 cents), Denver (60 cents), and Indianapolis (50 cents).

In Charleston 10 cents per 100 dols. is specified by the State law.

At New York 40 cents per 100 dols. is specified for the general school fund for salaries of teachers and supervisors, and more may be apportioned by the municipal assembly.

At San Francisco the tax is levied by the Supervisors on demand of the School Board (board of directors), the maximum being 31.5 dols. per pupil on average attendance. At Milwaukee the tax is levied by the City Council at the request of the School Board (board of directors); the maximum tax is 35 cents on 100 dols. taxable valuation for teachers' salaries and current expenses, and 2½ cents for repairs of buildings, new buildings being erected by the City Council. The method is not specified by law for Toledo. Washington obtains half its revenue from the District of Columbia, the other half from the Federal Treasury.

In the remaining eleven cities, viz., Chicago,\* Philadelphia, Boston, Buffalo, New Orleans, Detroit, Hartford, Savannah, Atlanta, Baltimore, and Rochester, the revenue is apportioned to the school boards by the city council, as in the typical system described above.

## 3. THE CITY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS.

The superintendent of schools is elected by the people at San Francisco and Buffalo. At Pittsburg he is elected by convention of all the school directors (of whom there are 37 local boards). At Cleveland he is appointed by the school director, who is elected by all the electors of the city. In other cases he is appointed by the school board.

## 4. THE APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS.

The superintendent is charged both with the examination and the appointment of teachers in Cleveland. He appoints teachers, who have been examined by a board nominated by the mayor, in Buffalo. He is charged with the examination, but the appointment needs confirmation by, or is made by, the board in San Francisco, Baltimore, St. Louis, New York (in 1901), and Rochester,

\* But see below, page 293, note, in the paper on "The Public School System of Chicago."

Toledo (except that examination is not specified), Pittsburg and Denver.

In Indianapolis the school board examines and the superintendent appoints. At Milwaukee a committee consisting of the superintendent, the president, and two members of the board examine and appoint.

With minor exceptions in detail, the board examines and appoints in the remaining thirteen cities, viz., Washington, Atlanta, Chicago, Philadelphia, Boston, Cincinnati, New Orleans, Detroit, Minneapolis, St. Paul, Charleston, Hartford, and Savannah.

Comparing this list with the account on p. 258, we see that the people have nearly direct control over the appointment of teachers at Boston, St. Louis, Cincinnati, Pittsburg, Detroit, Minneapolis, Denver, Hartford, Rochester, and Toledo, that is all the cities where the people elect the board, except Cleveland and Indianapolis. At Indianapolis the superintendent has recently been given very great powers, and its school system is a specimen of the one-man rule. In those cities where the board has power of veto on the superintendent's appointments, the extent to which the school boards take part in the appointment of teachers depends on the measure of their agreement with the superintendent. In Chicago the superintendent has recently been allowed much more power in this matter, and in Milwaukee the choice of teachers practically rests with him and the principal of the school concerned.

#### CONCLUSION.

The summary given in the preceding sections shows how varied are the forms of organisation in the chief City School Systems of the United States. The separate points which formed the typical system have still more instances than any new substitutes; but on one of the most crucial (viz., the question of *ad hoc* election for educational purposes by a vote of the city electorate), the exceptions to direct election of the school board by the people are nearly as many as the instances of it. Appointment of the school board by the mayor appears to be an increasingly common system. The object of the change is to fix responsibility and to lessen the opportunities for the exercise of undesirable forms of political influence and party patronage.

There have been recent efforts to reform the school systems in many cities, chiefly with a view to the diminution of the effect of partisanship on the appointment of teachers, and to make the efficient administration of the schools the sole aim of the board. The following papers give some account of these movements in New York, St. Louis, Boston, and Chicago. In the two first named legal reforms have been made; in the last, the school board has initiated some changes itself. Many other cities are in a state of great unrest, and it is probable that this summary account will need continual revision for some time to come.

A. L. BOWLEY.

October, 1901.

SUMMARY ACCOUNT OF THE REPORT OF THE  
EDUCATIONAL COMMISSION OF THE CITY OF  
CHICAGO, 1898.

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SUMMARY ACCOUNT OF THE REPORT OF THE  
EDUCATIONAL COMMISSION OF THE CITY OF  
CHICAGO, 1898.

ON December 3rd, 1897, the Mayor of Chicago wrote to the City Council that "the system . . . of the public schools of Chicago is not giving a measure of results commensurate with the generous financial resources furnished by the people"; and that "a change is essential in regard to the educational and business conduct of the school system"; and requested power to appoint a commission "to utilise all that is good in the present system, to discard all that is defective, and to apply new methods where needed."

A commission of eleven was accordingly appointed, and approved by the Board of Education in May, 1898, who are stated to have formed a non-partisan, non-sectarian body, representing many shades of opinion. The commission obtained "the active co-operation of fifty prominent educators of the country," took steps to obtain the suggestions and criticism of many classes of persons, including "the corps of school superintendents, principals, and teachers," and issued its report in January, 1899.

In the preamble of the report the commissioners agree with the sentences just quoted from the mayor's letter, and summarise the existing defects as follows:—" . . . while Chicago has good schools, she has them in despite of grave defects in the present plan of administration. Although the Board of Education has usually acted in the interests of the people, this has come from no lack of opportunity or even of suggestion to act otherwise, but because successive mayors have generally appointed worthy men and women to fill these places. The joint authority of the City Council and Board of Education in the purchase of sites and the erection of buildings has caused undue delay and, in some cases, has aroused public suspicion in the matter of school accommodations. The administration of school affairs through committees of the Board of Education has proved on the whole unsatisfactory. On the business side, it has from time to time resulted in the appointment and retention of unnecessary and inefficient employes, and has occasioned unwarranted difficulty and expenses in the securing of school supplies. On the educational side, the management by committees has been prejudicial to school interests in the fundamental questions of the course of study, the text-books, and the training and appointment of teachers. . . . Text-books have been authorised and apparatus has been purchased, sometimes without the recommendation and sometimes against the protest of the officers who should control these matters. Pupils have been admitted to the Normal School, and have been graduated from it without the

approval, and occasionally contrary to the expressed judgment, of those competent to decide. Some teachers have been appointed and retained in opposition to the recommendations of those who should practically determine all these questions. The teachers, as a body, have lacked that incentive to good work, which should be felt through an equitable schedule of salaries and a sound plan of promotion."

The commission accordingly recommends a scheme dealing with all the principles of details of the scheme of organisation in XX. Articles, of very considerable length in the bulk. After the statement of each article, the subject with which it deals is discussed on broad and liberal lines, with many references to the stated opinions of educational authorities; and at the same time the reasons for the specific regulations recommended for Chicago are carefully elaborated. It will be seen from this account that the report contains a very useful analysis of the systems of education suitable for great American cities. In the following pages we follow the report article by article, giving the definite recommendations in detail, and summarising the arguments adduced in support.

#### ARTICLE I.—THE ORGANISATION OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION.\*

The Commission recommend that the Mayor continues to appoint the Board, with the concurrence of the Council; that the number of members be reduced from twenty-one to eleven; that their term of office be four years, some being appointed each year; that the function of the Board be legislative, not executive; and that the number of standing committees be reduced to three, on educational, business, and financial affairs respectively; together with other recommendations.

The appointment of the members by the mayor is calculated "to free the school system from connection with local, State, or national politics"; "the city administration is thus made directly responsible for the condition of the free school system," and "the peculiar sensitiveness of the American people in regard to their school system is more than a counterbalance to the natural inclination of a mayor to appoint the school trustees solely from among his political friends."

The reduction of number is in accordance with the recent policy of other great cities. The restriction of the function of the board to legislative work will tend to attract the best men to it, while administration in detail "cannot be carried on by the board acting as a whole, and should not be carried on by a system of committee management." Details should be managed by the proper executive officers.

\* Note that the Articles are not quoted *verbatim*, except Article III., but the sense of some sections is given very nearly in the original words, while the less important are abbreviated or omitted.

Considerable powers as to the attainment of sites are approved, and the question of giving the school authorities power to determine the amount of money to be appropriated "is worthy of serious consideration."

ARTICLE II.—THE BUSINESS MANAGEMENT OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

It is recommended that a business manager be appointed at a salary not to exceed \$10,000, under a contract for a term of six years; that, subject to the prior approval of the Board in all cases where expenditure for repairs and supplies exceeds \$200 he shall appoint architects, award contracts for construction and repairs and for all supplies, overlook the construction or repairs of buildings; that he shall appoint and discharge janitors, engineers, and assistants, reporting all such appointments, promotions, and dismissals, to the Board which has the power of veto; that he shall perform all other executive duties relating to the business affairs of the Board, and report such acts at the next regular meeting of the Board; that, under close direction, he shall act as their financial agent.

As the size of cities has increased, it has become more and more necessary to differentiate the work of the board. This has generally been done by a cumbersome system of committees; but members of the board are not suited for the detailed work of administration, and should give over the executive work to competent and trusted officers, in particular to a business manager and a superintendent. To secure a man qualified to "manage satisfactorily the enormous business interests of the Board of Education" it is necessary to offer a large salary and a fairly long term of office. He should then be allowed as much power as possible.

ARTICLE III.—THE SYSTEM OF SCHOOL SUPERVISION.

This Article has given rise to so much discussion that it is best to give it *in extenso*. The Commission recommended:—

SECTION 1.—(a) That the superintendent of schools be appointed at a yearly salary not to exceed \$10,000, under contract for a term of six years; provided that he may be removed before the expiration of his term only for cause on written charges, by a vote of not less than two-thirds of the entire Board;

(b) That he have the general charge and supervision of the teachers and teaching in the public schools;

(c) That he have, after consultation with the assistant superintendents, the supervisors and the principals, the determination of the course of study, the choice of text-books and apparatus used in teaching in the schools, within the

appropriation of the Board, and subject to disapproval by a majority vote of all the members thereof not later than the second meeting after the report is made thereto;

(d) That he appoint assistant superintendents, supervisors, teachers, and attendance officers to such positions as the Board of Education shall from time to time authorise; promote or reduce teachers and fix their salaries under the schedule provided, and dismiss under the rules any appointees named in this section; provided, however, that all such appointments, promotions, compensations, and dismissals shall be reported to the Board and shall stand as final, unless disapproved by a majority vote of all the members thereof not later than the second meeting after the report is made thereto; provided, further, that none of these appointments be made and no teacher be promoted until after examination and approval by an examining board hereinafter provided for;

(e) That upon the application of any person for a certificate as a teacher, after the examination and approval of said applicant by the examining board, he issue to the applicant a provisional certificate of qualification for two years, which, after proof of success for this period, shall be made permanent for continuous service without further examination;

(f) That he have a seat and the privileges of the floor in the Board, but no vote;

**SECTION 2.**—(a) That the assistant superintendents be put in charge of not more than twenty-five schools each, and that the present number of assistant superintendents be increased to meet this proportion;

(b) That the assistant superintendents severally represent the superintendent in the schools which may be placed under their charge, and be given defined rights of consultation in regard to the appointment, the promotion, and the dismissal of teachers in their schools;

(c) That one assistant serve, when chosen for this purpose by the superintendent, with other persons herein designated, on the examining board;

**SECTION 3.**—That the supervisors of special subjects have the general charge of their several subjects in the normal, the high, and the elementary schools, and that an assistant supervisor in each subject be appointed if necessary in each district or closely connected group of districts;

**SECTION 4.**—1. That the principal be given by the Board defined privileges of consultation:

(a) in the appointment, promotion, and removal of teachers in his own school;

(b) in the carrying out within proper limitations of the course of study, and

(c) in the choice of text-books, and

**2. That he be given defined rights :**

(a) in the application and extension of the departmental plan of instruction, subject to the general supervision of the assistant superintendents; and

(b) in the supervision of the work of the janitors and engineers;

**SECTION 5.**—That the principal be directed to teach during not less than one-half of each school day;

**SECTION 6.**—That expert inspectors be employed by the Board from time to time to study the school system of the city and make reports and recommendations to the Board.

A system of education which is to prevent the appointment of incompetent officers for other than educational reasons "must definitely and finally concentrate all authority in an officer who shall be weighted with responsibility; and, above all, shall be independent of any person or political manipulation and interference." "He is the executive officer of the board in all its educational functions; not . . . to carry out details of work fixed for him by the members, but . . . to formulate and put in operation the educational policy of the board." "To him should be given a very large measure of power." "As long as he possesses the confidence of the board and is retained as superintendent, he should be left unrestricted and untrammelled in his efforts to establish and administer the schools along the lines of a sound educational policy." To secure these ends a capable man must be attracted by a good salary and permanency of tenure, and allowed the initiative in choice, in courses of study and text-books, subject only to restraining laws and the veto of the board. To concentrate authority and responsibility one man, the superintendent, must have ultimate power over the teachers, while the principal of each school and the assistant superintendent in whose charge it is may offer their opinions and advice. To promote mutual understanding the superintendent should have a place at the board meetings. The assistant superintendents are, as their title implies, merely the superintendent's deputies, necessitated by the great number of schools. At the same time the principle of definite location of responsibility is further developed by giving to the principal of each school assigned and important duties in the arrangement of the work and general management of his school. Still he should take an active part in the work of teaching.

In support of Section 6 we read, "in order to prevent the system from becoming too self-centred, and to secure the best results of experience elsewhere, and the most competent and helpful criticism of the general principles and methods of our schools, your commission recommends the employment from time to time of inspectors, whose reports may serve to guide the policy of the board and the administration of the superintendent."

**ARTICLE IV.—THE EXAMINATION, THE APPOINTMENT, AND THE PROMOTION OF TEACHERS.**

It is recommended that, of all persons seeking employment as teachers in the **ELEMENTARY** schools, there be required either (a) a certificate of the normal school of the city, approved by the examining board, or (b) an examination by the examining board, and (1) evidence of successful work as teacher for four years, or (2) a bachelor's degree in an approved college, and evidence of nine months' study of the science of teaching, and in all cases a medical certificate; for **SECONDARY** schools, (a) evidence of six years' successful teaching in the Chicago schools and of collegiate scholarship, or (b) a bachelor's degree in an approved college, and evidence of nine months' study of the science of teaching, or of three years' successful teaching in secondary schools, and in all cases a medical certificate. The examining board should consist of the superintendent, an assistant superintendent, and three special examiners, one appointed by the Board each year from a list of eligible persons certified by a superintendent of at least three times the number to be appointed, who are not otherwise connected with the school system of the city. The teachers should be appointed on probation for two years, and then during satisfactory service; if from outside the city they should be given credit in grading for salary for their experience, not exceeding one year for each two years of outside service, and not more than five years in all; promotion should be based on the report of the principal and assistant superintendent and of the examining board. That a new schedule of salaries be adopted (the present one being not suitably graded, and in many groups too high), which will recognize distinctions in regard to the grade or subjects in which the teacher gives instruction, his term of service, achieved success, and proved advance in scholarship and teaching ability. That all suitable means be used to increase the proportion of men teachers, with higher salaries than women, if necessary, in the upper grades of the elementary schools. That the superintendent may change the assignment of a teacher on the recommendation of the principal and assistant superintendent, and after two such changes dismiss the teacher, subject to the veto of the Board.

The power of the superintendent is limited by the appointment by the board of the examining board. The reasons in favour of this plan are not very clearly stated by the commission. "Recent educational history shows a tendency to differentiate the work in these particulars." "Any plan which, while not dividing responsibility, will secure an additional element of sound, impartial judgment is one which your commission feels should be adopted." The plan recommended protects the superintendent from a deluge of

unfit applicants, while it leaves him free to choose from those who are fit. A high standard of ability is needed in the teachers of Chicago "to secure . . . that assimilation of heterogeneous elements which is the supreme need of our civilisation," where vast numbers of the children come "from families to whom English is barely known, and where . . . the ideas and traditions of the home are utterly opposed to the requirements of American citizenship." The regulations are intended to secure in due proportion teachers educated in the normal school of Chicago, and acquainted with the city, other experienced teachers who will infuse new blood from without, and college graduates. For the secondary schools a greater proportion of teachers possessed of college degrees is expedient. It is very important to insist that the training at the college shall have been adequate, and also that other teachers promoted from lower grades shall "evinces training in mental habits, power of clear conception and of logical thinking, and ability to grasp and to assimilate ideas—qualities which are the best results of university study." In order to raise the professional standard of the teaching body, promotion should depend, not only on success in teaching in a particular grade, but also on progress in scholarship and teaching ability; the principal and assistant superintendent should bear witness to the one, the examining board to the other. The commissioners evidently have difficulty with the subject of salaries. They appear to regard those in vogue in Chicago as up to a good standard when compared with other cities (as to which there is a short discussion in the appendix), but as not producing teachers of a sufficiently high mark. They recommend, therefore, that the rates of pay shall be more carefully graded, not only by "length of service, but also on a basis of the relative difficulty of the instruction in the different grades, and most certainly on the degree of efficiency already shown by the teacher, and on evidence shown of increased scholarship." This must be read together with the recommendations as to promotion just given. There appears to be a connection between the small number of men employed as teachers\* and the small number of boys in secondary schools as compared, for example, with Boston; and this is not only perceptible in the high schools, where in September, 1895, only 26 per cent. were boys, but also it is noticed that large numbers of boys leave the elementary schools in the eighth, seventh, and even sixth grades. To restore the balance among the teachers greater inducements should be offered to men.

#### ARTICLE V.—THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

It is recommended that the Board of Education consider the loss of time in the elementary schools due to the repetition

\* In the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1898-99 the numbers given are: Teachers in the public schools of Chicago: men, 308, women, 4,947; of Boston, men, 214, women, 1,590.

of subjects in different grades, eight years being thus spent where seven would often be sufficient; that the superintendent be instructed to revise the course of study, in order to make the work of each grade simpler, more progressive, and more unified; that the work of the grades, especially the eighth and ninth,\* be correlated and rearranged with reference to special studies, and particularly to the gradual introduction of some constructive work in each grade of all schools; that the course of study be readjusted so as to permit readily of at least semi-annual promotion; and that a kindergarten, open to children from four to six years old, be established as soon as possible in thickly populated districts, and ultimately in connection with every school.

The force of supervision has been so occupied with clerical work that the working out a coherent and unified plan of instruction has been neglected. Recent progress in educational methods and school equipment has made it possible to cover more ground in the same time and to introduce new branches of study; but the present result is that there is waste of time by unnecessary repetition of studies in the lower grades, that new subjects have been introduced without properly fitting them into the scheme, that there is no proper relation between the eighth grade, the highest in the elementary, and the ninth, the lowest in the secondary school, and that the general result is a loss of time and waste of effort. The commissioners are content to leave the detailed working of these suggestions to the superintendent. For similar purposes promotions should either be six-monthly or else there should be more elasticity in the annual promotions; and the more rapid promotions will lose some of their disadvantages, when it is more usual for teachers to undertake the same subject in more than one grade ("departmental plan of instruction").

#### ARTICLE VI.—THE HIGH SCHOOLS.

It is recommended that the work of the high schools be more closely correlated with both the elementary schools and the normal schools; that there should be a larger teaching force, reducing the number of pupils per teacher to a maximum of forty, with a larger proportion of men teachers; that a commercial high school, with a full, liberal four years' course, be established near the centre of the city; and that, in addition to the existing manual training high school in the west, two more should be established in the north and south respectively, all with a four years' course, open to boys and girls.

The gap between the elementary and high schools will be narrowed by the substitution of Latin for English grammar in the higher grades of the former, by simplifying the programme in the eighth

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\* *I.e.*, the first in the high school.



and ninth grades, and by using more freely the departmental plans of teaching. It is false economy to spend a large sum on education, and then provide too few teachers.

The commissioners do not recommend a "business college," the teaching merely of book-keeping and kindred studies, which should be done in private schools, but a broader training, resembling that given in the Real-Schulen of Germany. The four years' course should include modern languages, science, history, arithmetic, and mathematics, all with reference to business needs; and it should be commensurate in its training and demands with the ordinary high-school course. The establishment of such a school should be the first new development. In the same way the manual schools should afford a liberal four years' training, and should not degenerate into trade schools.

#### ARTICLE VII.—THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

It is recommended that admission to the normal school be on the following conditions: (a) for graduates of a high school of Chicago, evidence satisfactory to the examining board of the successful completion of the course of study, and a recommendation from the principal in regard to teaching qualifications, and a certificate that the candidate is in good health and free from disabling physical defects; (b) for others, evidence of the completion of an equivalent course of study, the recommendation of the examining board as to teaching qualifications, and the medical certificate. That work in the normal school be carefully supervised and progress regularly examined; and that at any time the faculty may dismiss a pupil who does not exhibit sufficient ability, subject to appeal to the examining board. That the course of study be two full years, including instruction in all the studies included in the course of the elementary schools, one academic study for the purpose of general culture, and large opportunities for observation and practice teaching. That a member of the faculty of the normal school act with the principal and assistant superintendent in supervising the work of each graduate during his first year's teaching in a public school. That the buildings of the existing normal school be increased, and, if necessary, two new schools be established.

"All competent authorities agree in the opinion that a course of special training in the theory and practice of teaching should be insisted on as a pre-requisite to the occupation of teacher." "The plan adopted in many cities of attempting the preparation of teachers in one or, at most, two years of teaching in connection with the high schools has not been successful." Hence a sufficiently large normal school or schools is necessary. The regulations suggested are with a view to ensuring not only a high scholarship standard, certified by the examining board, but also ability to teach, vouched

for by the principal of the high school concerned; and, further to prevent ultimate disappointment or dissatisfaction, it is urged that a student who does not make satisfactory progress may be dismissed at any stage. It is necessary to give the faculty additional powers, for "it is a fact that [undue influences] have secured the diploma of the Chicago Normal School for many pupils, from whom the honest judgment of the faculty would have withheld it."

After a two years' course it is hoped that teachers in each grade in the elementary schools will be able to teach all the subjects of the course, instead of allotting German, Latin, music, etc., to special additional teachers. On the other hand, the following up of one "academic study" by the teacher will allow an extension of the departmental form of instruction already mentioned.

#### ARTICLE VIII.—SPECIAL STUDIES.

It is recommended that the teaching of the special subjects in the course of the elementary schools be encouraged, especially Drawing, Music, and Physical Culture; that constructive work be gradually introduced in each grade of every elementary school, the same for boys and girls below the seventh grade, and that facilities for instruction in wood-work for boys and domestic economy for girls be provided as soon as possible in the seventh and eighth grades, and that these subjects be taught by the regular teachers.

The teaching of German is especially necessary in Chicago, where there are so many German-born citizens; but it should not be localised, as that promotes heterogeneity. Latin is recommended as a good substitute for English grammar in the seventh and eighth grades, and as advantageous for students proceeding to the high schools. Nature study needs better organisation to succeed. Drawing, music, and physical culture were included at the date of the commission, but needed better supervision and teaching, which could be obtained by special supervisors for special subjects (see Article III., Section 3), and by giving the teaching to the regular grade teachers. Great importance is attached to the introduction of manual training and domestic economy, but it is experimental, and should be introduced gradually.

#### ARTICLE IX.—RESIDENT COMMISSIONERS.

It is recommended that the city be divided into districts, each including not more than ten schools, and that the mayor appoint for each district six honorary resident commissioners, two being appointed annually to serve three years, who should be authorised and directed to visit each school in their district, observe the work, discipline, and sanitary arrangements, and report as a body direct to the Board of Education; and that

the Board of Education appoint, as occasion may require, special inspectors\* to investigate and report on such committees' recommendations.

"If the system of public instruction is not readily affected by public opinion, a feeling of dissatisfaction naturally arises that may lead to radical changes" through unnecessary disturbance of the *personnel* of the Board of Education. The commission is strongly impressed by the importance of introducing a critical lay element in the system. "It will stimulate popular interest, do away largely with the danger of public indifference toward the administration of the schools, and *will supply an adequate substitute for general representation on a large board of education.*" (Italics are not in the original.)

#### ARTICLE X.—TEXT-BOOKS.

It is recommended that the superintendent of schools, under the present rules, be directed to consider carefully the text-books in use in the city, with a view of reducing their number, and at the same time giving the teacher more liberty of choice.

This duty belongs properly to the superintendent, as expert, and not to the Board of Education, who are not competent to make a choice, are worried by the book agents, and require the protection of inviolable rules against undue pressure. Further, the more efficient the teachers, the more they desire liberty in choosing text-books adapted to the particular problems before them.

#### ARTICLE XI.—THE EVENING SCHOOLS AND A FREE LECTURE SYSTEM.

It is recommended that the Board of Education appoint a special committee to consider the problems connected with evening education, appropriate for the coming year, not more than \$10,000 to be expended for free evening lectures on the New York plan, and place an assistant superintendent in charge of the free-lecture system, evening schools, and vacation schools.

Evening schools are necessary for children who leave in a low grade to earn their living, for an uneducated immigrant population, and to replace high school education for children of parents who cannot afford to keep them at school, but who nevertheless are compelled to contribute to the cost of the whole scheme.

#### ARTICLE XII.—VACATION SCHOOLS AND PLAYGROUNDS.

It is recommended that the Board of Education should establish and conduct vacation schools in the more crowded parts

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\* See Article III., Section 6.

of the city, in which the ordinary curriculum of the school year be continued, but with special reference to nature study and study of industries, in connection with which excursions may be arranged; and that the school-yards be opened where necessary as playgrounds from 8.0 a.m. to sunset throughout the year.

The need of vacation schools is great in a city like Chicago, for children who would otherwise be left in the streets. Juvenile crime is much greater in the vacation than during the term. They would also be an advantage both to specially backward children and to specially studious or clever children, who could regain lost ground or make more rapid advances. At the same time the course should "give larger opportunities in lines necessarily more or less neglected during the school year," such as nature study, constructive work, singing, and physical exercises.

#### ARTICLE XIII.—UNGRADED ROOMS AND SCHOOLS.

It is recommended that an ungraded room be established in connection with each elementary school, on the recommendation of the principal, for children who cannot maintain their standing in the regular class-room, and that the Board of Education consider whether to establish ungraded schools for habitual truants and others irregular in attendance.

Such arrangements are necessary for foreign children. The teachers must be "eminently qualified both for instruction and discipline." In the ungraded school a large amount of manual training should be introduced. "Enforced attendance at such a school, with a specially-planned curriculum, and teachers peculiarly fitted for this work will . . . go far to solve the truant question."

#### ARTICLE XIV.—THE COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE LAW AND A PARENTAL SCHOOL.

It is recommended that steps be taken to secure a more adequate compulsory school attendance law, and to consider whether to employ the city police to enforce it; and that legislative authority be secured for the establishment of parental schools for the forcible detention of persistently refractory pupils.

The new Illinois law of 1897 has had good results, but the executive needs improvement. To prevent the harmful influence of persistently badly-conducted children, and to provide for the forcible detention of habitual truants, many important bodies recommend their separation and detention in special schools, where they should be reformed and civilized as far as possible.

ARTICLE XV. recommends the encouragement of teachers' institutes and the establishment of a teachers' library; ARTICLE XVI.

recommends the establishment of school faculties, district councils, and a general council, to enable the teachers to confer together, and make recommendations directly to the Board of Education.

ARTICLE XVII. calls attention to the unsatisfactory method and results of the school census.

ARTICLE XVIII.—SCHOOL ACCOMMODATIONS.

It is recommended that steps be taken promptly to increase the school accommodations till there is a sitting in a properly constructed and suitably situated building for every child of school age in the city not accommodated in schools outside of the city system; and that, as soon as the finances of the Board warrant the expense, the number of pupils assigned to each teacher be reduced.

“There are thirty thousand children in Chicago, for whom full and fair provision is not made. Thirteen thousand are in rented buildings, which are in many particulars entirely unsuited for school purposes. More than seventeen thousand are in half-day sessions, every one of whom is thereby deprived to a considerable extent of the privileges which the city owes the children of the tax-payer.”

ARTICLE XIX.—TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP.

It is recommended that the Board of Education give in all grades of the public school more detailed, specified, systematic preparation for good citizenship, adapted to awaken the spirit of patriotism, emphasise the duties as well as the rights of American citizenship, and give instruction in local, State, and national popular government; and that candidates as teachers be required to show proof of ability in this kind of instruction.

The commissioners complain of the neglect of such instruction and of the want of suitable text-books. They suggest some training in actual self-government by pupils, who might organise their own discipline under elected tribunes, and that some of the older pupils might “occasionally go through the form of holding an election in accordance with the State law and with the usual machinery.”

ARTICLE XX.—SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND ARCHITECTURE.

It is recommended that the plans for new buildings be thrown open to the widest competition; that the rules as to the architectural appearance be as broad as possible; that the buildings be fireproof, with adequate exits, heated, ventilated, and lighted with full recognition of the principles of sanitary science, with a school-yard and a space for play in the building; that suitable accommodation be provided for manual

training, kindergarten, domestic science, and physical culture; that the school buildings be named only after distinguished persons, excluding living residents in Chicago.

Appendices are added (A) giving statistics of salaries in some great cities; (B) on public kindergartens; (C) on commercial training in Europe and the United States, with a critical analysis of the best means for attaining a useful training; (D) on the free lecture system of New York City, remarking on its great success; (E) on vacation schools and playgrounds; (F) on compulsory attendance laws; (G) on parental schools; (H) on self-government by pupils; (I) on the legal status of the Chicago Board of Education; (J) bibliographical references on city school systems; and (K) on a proposed school law for Chicago: this gives a draft of amendments to the existing Illinois school law, which would be necessary to allow the scheme recommended to be carried out.

A. L. BOWLEY.

October, 1901.

#### APPENDIX A.

##### CONSEQUENT LEGISLATION, ENACTMENTS, AND CHANGES.

Up to April 24th, 1899, the only legislative change in the Illinois school law on the lines of the Commissioners' recommendations was an Act to enable boards of education, or boards of school trustees to establish and maintain parental or truant schools, which enacted that "in cities of more than 100,000 persons one or more parental or truant schools should be established to afford a place of confinement, discipline, instruction, and maintenance of children who were guilty of habitual truancy, or of persistent violation of the rules of the public school."

We find in the *Forty-fifth Annual Report of the Board of Education of Chicago*, for the year ended June 23rd, 1899, that "no official action of any kind or character was taken by the Board of Education relative to the Educational Commission" (p. 27) after the publication of the report; but a ballot was taken on April 4th, which resulted in a large majority in favour of the establishment of kindergartens, which were legalised at once\* [they had formerly been maintained without legalised action] (p. 124). Constructive work and manual training had also grown (p. 135). Vacation schools had been legalised, and four were open in the summer of 1899\* (p. 146). "By the vote of the Board of Education, June 28th, 1899, the course of study of the normal school was increased from one to two years" (p. 149), and the course appears to have been moulded nearly on the lines recommended by the Commission.\* In the superintendent's report (in the same volume) we read: "The Bill appended to the report [of the Commission] was rejected by the Legislature, largely through misapprehensions touching its real purport. It was thought, among other things, to jeopardize teachers' tenure."

We learn from other sources that the Superintendent's power in Chicago has been increased, for he now appoints the teachers subject only to a veto

\* See below, pages 283 and 290 in the paper on *The Public School System of Chicago*.

by a large majority of the Board ; also that steps are being taken to establish a Commercial High School.

Mr. E. T. Cooley, the present Superintendent of Schools in Chicago, writes : " Although efforts were made to embody most of the points in the report in legislation, it failed to go through our State Legislature. However, many things recommended in that report have been put in operation by special rules of the Board of Education, but the general scheme has not been carried out, much to the regret of the educational people of this city. We regard it as one of the most important reports published, and hope eventually to be able to put most of it into effect by legislation."

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#### APPENDIX B.

##### THE " EDUCATIONAL REVIEW " ON THE REPORT.

The *Educational Review* (New York) has on several occasions referred to this Report.

In March, 1899, a careful (unsigned) account of the Commissioners' recommendations is given. Appreciating the *personnel* and methods of the Commission, the writer says : " The Commission was particularly fortunate in enlisting the assistance of some fifty educators of the country, who, by personal interview and by letter, rendered valuable service. During the existence of the Commission popular interest in educational questions was aroused in Chicago as never before. Literary, educational, and even social clubs joined in the discussion of school problems and in recommendations for changes in the management of the schools." The matters specially commented on with favour are the reduction of the number of members of the Board of Education, the adoption of the New York system in the examination of teachers, the placing special subjects in all grades in the hands of one supervisor, and the reform of the grading of salaries so as to encourage merit. " Considerable opposition," we read, " has been felt against [the] recommendation of the Commission to the effect that, if necessary, men should be paid larger salaries than women, in order to attract them to positions, especially in the elementary schools. Chicago is one of the few large cities of the country, and, indeed, it stands practically alone, in paying equal salaries to both sexes." The writer concludes with the following : " The general conclusions of the Commission, in so far as they involved the modification of school law, have been embodied in a proposed bill for the State Legislature. . . . Whatever may be the immediate outcome from the work of the Commission, it is certain that its report will stand for years as an important educational document, and will be of interest wherever the questions of city school administration are discussed."

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In the editorial of the same number (Vol. XVII., p. 306) we read that " [The Report] may be commended to students of educational administration at home and abroad as representative of the broadest knowledge, the highest skill, and the wisest experience that America has to contribute to the discussion and the understanding of this important subject." " It is gratifying to note that the studies and experience of the leaders of the school-reform movement in New York were of great use to the Chicago Commission, and that the conclusions reached in New York are wholly

supported by the independent judgment of the representatives of Chicago." The editor objects, however, strongly to the recommendation in Article I., that the concurrence of the council should be necessary in the mayor's appointment of the Board of Education.

From an article in September, 1899 (*The Chicago School Situation*), by Mr. Errant, of Chicago, answered by Mr. Nelson, also of Chicago, in November, 1899 (*Educational Experts*), we learn that the Commission's Bill was presented speedily in both Houses of the Legislature of Illinois, but was strenuously opposed, and was defeated. Mr. Errant objects that there were no public school superintendent, principal, or teacher, and no woman, on the Commission; and describes the alarm of the teachers on the implication of incompetence and the suggestion that men should be preferred to women; they further "resented the idea that everything should be in the hands of the superintendent, and demanded that in any reorganisation due consideration be given to the entire force" of teachers, whose councils should be the advisory body, rather than the Board of Education. Mr. Nelson notices that the opposition was confined almost exclusively to the teachers in the elementary schools, none of the principals nor the high school teachers taking part in it;\* and that their chief attack was on Section 29 of the proposed Bill, which embodied Article III., Section 1 (d) and (e)† of the Commissioners' Report.

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\* In this connection it is interesting to note that, of the teachers in elementary schools, 4,947 were women and 308 men, see above, p. 271, note.

† See above, p. 268.



THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM  
OF  
CHICAGO.

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## THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM OF CHICAGO.

[The following account of the School System of Chicago, which was compiled by Dr. E. B. Andrews in 1899, when he was Superintendent of Schools in Chicago, has been revised and completed by Mr. A. L. Bowley, Lecturer at Reading College and at the London School of Economics and Political Science, with the help of Mr. Vice-Consul Erskine's Report on Education in Chicago, received at the Foreign Office, November 5, 1900, and of a monograph on the Public Schools of Chicago, by Hannah B. Clark, 1897. The latest figures available are those for the school year 1898-99, but the most recent alterations in the system are described in Appendix A of the paper on the Chicago Educational Commission.]

## ORGANISATION AND STATISTICS.

The public schools of the city are Kindergartens, Elementary Schools, High Schools, a Normal School, a school for youths convicted of petty crimes, and schools for the deaf.

The population of Chicago was estimated to be 1,852,000 in the school year 1898-99, of whom 571,000 were between six and twenty-one years of age. Of these 120,818 boys, and 121,989 girls, 242,807 in all, were enrolled in public schools, and it is estimated that 91,000 were enrolled in private and parochial schools. The average daily attendance at the public schools was 190,842. There were 229,298 sittings provided. By the school census of 1900, there were, in Chicago, 347,622 children between six and fourteen years of age, and 278,622 between fourteen and twenty-one years. The public schools were in session 194 days in 1898-99. There is a compulsory attendance law, but, as the figures just given show, it is not enforced.

*Kindergartens.*

By a general suffrage vote of the city, cast April 4th, 1899, the Kindergartens have become a legal part of the school system. For several years previous they were sustained by the School Board because of popular sentiment favourable to them, but without actual legislative sanction. They receive children between four and six years of age, have thus far been established mainly in the poorer districts, and have been of great service to hard-worked mothers and neglected children. Three hours is the daily session.

	1898-99.
Number of Kindergartens - - - -	84
"    " pupils enrolled - - - -	7,241
Average daily membership - - - -	3,801
"    " attendance - - - -	3,402

*Elementary Schools.*

The elementary schools are divided into eight grades of a year each, admitting children when six years old. These schools form the basis of the system. By the State law of Illinois attendance in them is obligatory for sixteen weeks in the year, twelve of which must be continuous, upon all children between six and fifteen years of age. They are in session for forty weeks five and a-half hours daily, from Monday to Friday inclusive.

Total number of children in the city from six to fifteen years of age, by census of 1898 - - - - -	344,246
Total number of children enrolled in ele- mentary schools 1898-9 - - - -	231,949*
Average daily membership - - - -	195,294*
"    " attendance - - - -	171,849.8

*Average Daily Membership by Grades.*

First Grade - - - - -	43,827.7
Second " - - - - -	33,248.4
Third " - - - - -	30,088.7
Fourth " - - - - -	25,749.3
Fifth " - - - - -	23,693.4
Sixth " - - - - -	17,586.4
Seventh " - - - - -	12,421.9
Eighth " - - - - -	8,678.2
Total - - - - -	<u>195,294</u>
Average number of pupils to teacher - - -	41.8
Number of suspensions for absence - - -	3,080
"    "    "    " misconduct - - -	158

\* Every pupil who enters school is *enrolled*, but it appears that if a pupil after enrolment is absent for four consecutive days he loses his *membership* of the school till his next attendance.

Course of Study in Elementary Schools.

The following table shows the number of classes per room and the number of minutes per week given to each subject in the elementary schools:—

Subject.	Gr. I. 8 Cl.	Gr. II. 8 Cl.	Gr. III. 8 Cl.	Gr. IV. 8 Cl.	Gr. V. 8 Cl.	Gr. VI. 8 Cl.	Gr. VII. 8 Cl.	Gr. VIII. 8 Cl.
Opening Exercises . . .	Min. 25	Min. 25	Min. 25	Min. 25	Min. 25	Min. 25	Min. 25	Min. 25
Reading . . . . .	675	600	500	250	250	—	—	—
*English . . . . .	150	115	100	65	65	145	175	175
*History . . . . .	—	—	—	60	60	60	200	200
Dictation Exercise . . .	—	50	50	60	60	60	60	60
Grammar . . . . .	—	—	—	—	—	120	160	160
†German or Latin . . . .	—	—	—	—	800	300	300	300
‡Mathematics . . . . .	225	225	300	300	300	300	300	300
Singing . . . . .	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75
Geography . . . . .	—	—	—	200	250	300	—	—
‡Nature Study . . . . .	100	100	100	100	90	90	90	90
Writing . . . . .	75	75	100	100	60	60	60	60
Drawing . . . . .	—	60	75	90	90	90	90	90
Manual Training . . . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	90	90
Physical Culture . . . . .	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Recesses . . . . .	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125

The above table may also be thus summarised:—

		Years studied
Literature . . . . .	{ English { Reading Grammar Dictation } German. Optional Latin History . . . . .	- - - - 8
		- - - - 4
		- - - - 2
		- - - - 5
		- - - - 5
Science . . . . .	{ Mathematics - - - - 8 Nature Study - - - - 8 Geography - - - - 3	- - - - 8
		- - - - 8
		- - - - 3
Art . . . . .	{ Singing . . . . . 8 Drawing . . . . . 7 Writing . . . . . 8	- - - - 8
		- - - - 7
		- - - - 8
Applied Science {	Manual Training - - - - 2 Physical Culture - - - - 8	- - - - 2
		- - - - 8

German is in the course because of the large German population of the city. Latin in the seventh and eighth grades was introduced about 1894 out of a desire to connect the upper grades

\* The 4th, 5th, and 6th Grade History is obtained through supplementary reading books, and has intimate relation with the work in English.

† The two-class arrangement in 4th to 8th Grade rooms and the presence of a special teacher permit the same time to be given to German or Latin as to Mathematics, the recitations alternating.

‡ The nature study includes physiology in the 6th and 7th Grades.

of the elementary schools more closely with the High Schools, approximating the latter to the German gymnasias, the French lycées, and the old English Public School system.

Nature study is the teaching of the elements of science, and the explanation of the pupils' physical environment.

The course of Nature study may be thus summarized. All grades: In September, October and November, the seasonal changes of plants (dissemination of seeds), insects, the migration of birds, weather observations; in December, January and February, the effects of frost; in March to June, plant and animal life in the spring; throughout the year, the physiology of men and other animals. Fourth, fifth and sixth grades: Simple physiography and geology. Seventh and eighth grades: Properties of matter.

A wave of Herbartianism has swept through the schools during the last year or two, which has found expression in a great amount of constructive work, correlated to some extent with number work, literature, and nature study. The character of this work has been to a great extent left to individual principals and teachers. The material has been chiefly paper and wood. The products vary from paper-cutting to elementary book-binding and carpentry.

Text-books are not in general supplied *gratis*, but there are special funds to provide them for poor children, and over \$45,000 was spent in this way in the year 1898-99.

#### *The Manual Training Department.*

Under the name of manual training a course in carpentry—bench work—was established in the schools by private beneficence in 1891. Shops have since been placed by the Board of Education in 34 schools. The course is open to the boys of the seventh and eighth grades of all schools for one and a-half hours per week. The number attending in 1898-9 was (about) 15,000, representing 168 schools.

The course is popular, the number attending increases as rapidly as new schools are opened, and the effect upon the artisan population promises to be powerful.

#### *The Household Arts.*

The department of household arts has been established only a year. Twenty-five thousand dollars were appropriated by the Board of Education for the purpose; eleven schools in different districts were selected to which pupils from 140 others might come for instruction; ten teachers of sewing and as many teachers of cooking were engaged. Pupils from the seventh and eighth and a few from the sixth grade were allowed to attend the lessons for one hour and a-half a week in each department. About five thousand girls have taken lessons in sewing, and as many in cooking. This department accomplishes for girls what that of

carpentry does for boys, viz., trains the brain and the hand for the future work of life; its influence on home life is most beneficent.

*The Evening Schools.*

In 1898-9 thirty-seven evening schools were maintained during the winter months, of which seven were evening High Schools. They were in session one hundred and eight evenings for two hours per evening. The number of elementary pupils was 8,887, of High School pupils 2,249; total, 11,136.

The elementary courses include reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, history and elementary book-keeping. The High School courses include stenography, typewriting, book-keeping, mathematics, and freehand, mechanical and architectural drawing. In these schools many foreigners learn English or improve their knowledge of the language, and they are valuable aids in the training for citizenship of youths born abroad or children of parents so born.

*The Schools for the Deaf.*

Nine schools for the deaf are maintained in public school buildings mainly supported by a State tax. The number of teachers for 1898-9 was 19, the number of pupils enrolled 162. Both the sign and oral methods of instruction are employed, but there is a tendency to disuse the signs with the more intelligent pupils.

*The John Worthy School.*

This school for boys under sixteen years of age convicted of petty offences is maintained at the City Bridewell by the Board of Education. For the year 1898-9 the total number of boys committed was 779, the average membership 113, and the average time spent in the school 40 school days.

The course of study includes the usual subjects of elementary schools, with five hours per week of shop-work, carpentry and lathe-turning in wood.

*The High Schools.*

The High Schools receive without examination any graduates of the elementary schools wishing to enter. The average age of entrance is nearly fifteen. Owing partly to economic causes which draw the boys to self-sustenance, partly to the course given, 70 per cent. of the pupils are girls. The course of study is almost entirely a professional one, 60 per cent. of the graduates seeking admission to the Normal School, 25 per cent. entering College. Only one of the High Schools, called the English High and Manual Training School, gives a technical course in mechanical drawing, wood and metal work, and all the pupils at this school, about 500, are boys. Educational opinion favourable to the secondary training schools for the commercial and manufacturing classes is almost unanimous. Public opinion is not yet fully formed but is rapidly tending in that direction.

The appended table gives the course of study for thirteen of the fourteen High Schools:

—	First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.	Fourth Year.
Literature	English	English	English	English.
	Latin	Latin	Latin	Latin.
	—	Greek	Greek	Greek.
	German	German	German	—
	—	French	French	French.
	—	—	History (General)	History (English).
Science	Algebra	Geometry	Physics	Civics, Half-year.
	Physiography	Biology	—	Political Economy Half-year.
	—	—	—	Chemistry, Astronomy, Half- year.
	—	—	—	Geology, Half-year
Applied Science	Physical Culture	Physical Culture	Physical Culture	Physical Culture.
Art	Music	Music	Music	Music.
	Drawing	Drawing	Drawing	Drawing.

One lesson per week is given in music, two in drawing, and one in physical culture. The (required) studies are the full course in English, a foreign language—Latin or German—for the first two years, one in Algebra, one in Geometry, two years of other sciences, music, drawing, and physical culture. Of the pupils attending the high schools, 70 per cent. study Latin, 27 per cent. German, 17 per cent. French, and 12 per cent. Spanish. The number studying Greek is diminishing year by year, and is less than 3 per cent.

The number of optional studies has increased for several years, and the tendency is to make all of them optional except English, four studies per year being required to complete the course, exclusive of music, drawing and physical culture.

The number of lessons per week in one subject varies from five to three, the lesson divisions per day from five to six, the time of a lesson from forty-five minutes to one hour. The number of hour's sessions per day is five, from 9 a.m. to 2 p.m., with half an hour's recess at noon.\*

#### *The English High and Manual Training School.*

The [manual high] school must be looked upon as preparatory for the engineering course at the universities and technical schools, although the majority of the boys passing through the school cannot afford any more time to their education and at once start to work in some large workshop. Some boys do remarkably well and get good salaries and responsible positions a year or two after leaving school.

\*The Commission of 1896 recommended (Art. vi., sect. 3) "that the session of the high school be held from 9.0 a.m. to 3.0 p.m., with a recess of 30 minutes," increasing the length of each lesson by 10 minutes.

The course of training is as follows :

*First Year.*—Academic : Algebra, 4 hours per week ; biology, 4 hours for 30 weeks, or physiology for 10 weeks ; rhetoric and composition, 4. School term, 42 weeks.

Manual training : Mechanical drawing, 4 ; freehand, 4 ; wood working, 10 ; and lectures on wood.

*Second Year.*—Academic : Geometry, 3 ; physics, 3 ; general history, 3 ; English or French, 3 ; and book reviews.

Manual training : Mechanical drawing, 4 ; freehand drawing, 1 ; foundry and blacksmith's work, 10 ; lectures on iron.

*Third Year.*—Academic : Chemistry, 3 ; English or French, 3 ; book reviews, solid geometry, 12 weeks, 3 ; higher algebra, 12 weeks, 3 ; plane trigonometry, 16 weeks, 3 ; civil government, 16 weeks, 3 ; political economy, 24 weeks, 3.

Manual training : Mechanical or architectural drawing, 1 ; freehand drawing, 1 ; machine-shop work, 10 ; lectures on machinery.

A thorough training is given in freehand and mechanical drawing, equal to three years' apprenticeship.

Total enrolment of pupils in High Schools	-	-	-	-	1898-99.
Average daily membership	-	-	-	-	10,123
" attendance	-	-	-	-	8,830.6
" Number of pupils to teacher	-	-	-	-	8,415.1
					34.1

There were seven schools open in the evening for two hours under the same regulations as the elementary night schools with an attendance of 2,249.\*

The following is added from the Annual Report of the Board of Education for Chicago, p. 128.

TABLE OF PERSISTENCE.

SHOWING THE PERCENTAGE THAT THE NO. IN EACH GRADE IN EACH YEAR FORMS OF THE NO. IN THE NEXT LOWER GRADE IN THE PREVIOUS YEAR.

GRADE.	1898-99	1899-01	1901-92	1902-98	1898-94	1904-98	1898-96	1896-97	1897-98	1898-99
1st	25,788	26,669	26,684	29,480	39,638	36,784	37,032	38,948	41,960	48,828
2nd	—	23,197 89.9%	24,606 92.3%	25,442 89.7%	26,986 91.5%	29,198 87.1%	32,266 88.1%	32,948 89%	32,776 84.2%	38,248 71%
3rd	—	—	20,706 80.3%	22,799 86.4%	24,688 84%	25,534 80.5%	27,286 81.4%	29,628 80.5%	30,113 81.3%	30,689 77.2%
4th	—	—	—	16,038 65.7%	20,594 79.9%	24,400 74.5%	22,801 77.6%	24,646 73.6%	25,768 70.2%	25,740 69.6%
5th	—	—	—	—	15,727 61%	18,855 70.7%	20,411 71.2%	22,121 75%	23,424 70%	23,673 64.4%
6th	—	—	—	—	—	12,484 49.4%	15,880 56%	15,606 54.4%	16,796 57%	17,586 53.4%
7th	—	—	—	—	—	—	9,878 37.3%	10,486 40.7%	11,602 43.3%	12,422 42.1%
8th	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7,422 28.6%	8,580 31%	8,678 28.5%
9th	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3,852 15%	5,505 19.5%
10th	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2,347 9%

To be read diagonally to the right and downwards.

\* It is doubtful whether this figure is for the winter 1898-99 or 1899-1900 probably the latter.



*The Normal School.*

The Normal School has been transferred from the County since 1896, becoming a City institution. By the vote of the Board of Education in June, 1899, the length of the course has been increased from one to two years. The school receives without examination graduates from the city High Schools who average 90 per cent. out of a possible 100, in their studies, others are admitted by an examination which is held annually. In 1898 there were 305 candidates, of whom 173 were successful. In 1900 one high school sent up 30 candidates and only three passed.

After the course is finished a year's service as a cadet teacher is required to make the student eligible for a place as a public school teacher.

In a Report made by three Examining Physicians for the Normal School it is stated:—

"We find that the strength of the students has been overtaxed by excessive detail and would advise a return to simpler methods of education. More is to be feared from overstrain in educational institutions than from the ravages of infectious diseases. Those who were examined were all high school graduates or former pupils.

"In a general way the pupils showed the results of a lack of physical exercise, which is certainly necessary to compensate for the enormous strain imposed by our modern educational system upon the developing body of the young student."

The course has been chiefly pedagogic, but the first year will now be largely academic. Nearly all the teachers of the elementary schools come from this source, as Normal School graduates may become teachers without examination, on election by the Board. All graduates are obliged before receiving permanent appointment to "cadet" successfully for four months in some school.

	1898-99.
Number of pupils enrolled in Normal School	- 573
Average daily membership	- - - - 472.8
" " attendance-	- - - - 453.5
Number graduated	- - - - 435

*Vacation Schools—Store Schools.*

We should mention here the vacation schools, whose institution was recommended by the Chicago Commission. We learn from the Report of the Superintendent for the school year ending in the summer of 1899 that "The Board of Education has for two years granted to these schools the use of buildings and equipments, the women's clubs of the city providing for the

other expenses. Four schools have been open during this summer (1899) with an attendance of 1600, 60 per cent. being boys." "An Act of the last Legislature (of Illinois) provides that in cities having a population exceeding 100,000 the Board of Education may establish and maintain vacation schools and playgrounds."

From Mr. Erskine's Report we find that the teachers were paid two dollars a day and were assisted by students from the normal school, that no books were used, but that the course was manual work, domestic work, and nature study, with country excursions.

Several stores have established schools for children (certified to be over 14) in their employ, with one hour's compulsory attendance in the morning.

#### ADMINISTRATION OF THE CHICAGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The Board of Education consists of twenty-one members appointed by the Mayor of the city (with the formal consent of the City Council) for a term of three years each, seven being appointed annually. They serve without pay. They elect annually a superintendent, nine assistant superintendents—one being superintendent of the High Schools,—supervisors of drawing (2), singing (2), manual training, modern languages, Kindergarten, physical culture, compulsory education, office employés, and all teachers.

The Board has seventeen standing committees, appointed by their elected president as follows:—School Management, Janitors and Supplies, Buildings and Grounds, Finance, Judiciary, School Fund Property, High Schools, Manual Training, Special Funds, Drawing and Penmanship, Music, German, Physical Culture, Compulsory Education, Normal School, Reform and Retrenchment, Rules. The number of members on each committee varies from twelve (School Management) to three (Judiciary).

The Board receives the proceeds of city and State taxes for school purposes and administers the same, together with the income from funded property. It has power to condemn property for school buildings. It employs, besides the officers mentioned above, an attorney, a secretary, a business manager, a chief engineer, an auditor, a superintendent of supplies, and an architect. Its employés, except the educational ones, must by a recent State law be selected from among people who have passed a civil service examination. It makes rules and regulations for all teachers and employés. To the superintendent is delegated general administrative power over supervisors, principals, teachers, and pupils under those rules, but there may be appeal in all cases from his action, and nominations of principals and teachers made by him must be confirmed by the Board.

Eight assistant superintendents have charge of about thirty schools each, the High School superintendent of fourteen.

## TEACHERS.

	1898-99.	
	Male.	Female.
Number of principals in Normal School - - -	1	
" " " " High Schools - - -	14	
" " " " Elementary Schools - - -	110	111
Total number of principals - - -	125	111
Number of assistants in Normal School - - -	9	18
" " " " High Schools - - -	143	164
" " " " Elementary Schools - - -	116	4,559
" " " " Manual Training in Elementary Schools - - -	32	2
" " " " Schools for the Deaf - - -	2	17
" " " " Kindergarten - - -	-	171
Special teachers of Drawing and Singing - - -	28	20
" " " in Household Arts - - -	-	19
Total number of assistants - - -	330	4,970
Total number of principals and assistants - - -	455	4,881
Total number of teachers - - -	5,336	

A "Public School Teachers' and Employés' Pension and Retirement Fund" was established by Law in 1895. The "Bill was suggested, drafted, and lobbied by Teachers, the only one on the Statute Books directly due to the people most interested in Education." The basis of the Fund is the appropriation of one per cent. of the salaries. "The Board can retire any female teacher or employé who has been employed in the public schools for twenty years, and any male teacher or employé who has been employed twenty-five years, provided three-fifths of the time of service has been in Chicago. Such beneficiaries are entitled to one-half the amount of salary received at the time of retirement if this half does not exceed 600 dollars."

The same law enacts that "no teacher or other school employé who has been or shall be elected by the Board of Education shall be removed or discharged except for cause upon written charges." This "Civil Service" clause was only the formulation of a principle already in practice.

## BUILDINGS.

The city owns 322 buildings. They are nearly all built of brick, in three stories, with wooden floors and stairs and plastered walls. The number of rooms varies from one to two for a few of the outlying districts to upwards of twenty, the new permanent buildings having the greater number. There is a tendency to make the new buildings more fire-proof by the use of iron stairways and cement flooring. The architecture is for the most part plain.

The number of desks in a room averages fifty. They are arranged in rows with aisles between and with moveable seats, turning to the perpendicular on the pupils' rising. The surface of the desk slopes slightly, there is a shelf beneath for books, a sunken ink well, and the desks are adapted to the size of pupils. In a number of the High School class-rooms a moveable arm is attached to the desk for convenience in taking notes of lectures.

The basements are used for steam-heating apparatus, gymnasias, manual training (wood work), cooking, Kindergartens, teachers' toilet rooms and janitor's room. The closets are usually apart from the main building. In one or two of the buildings there are, however, closets on each floor, and this plan is strongly approved by some teachers.

All the High Schools and many of the elementary schools have large halls, seating several hundred. They are used by pupils as study-rooms, and for gymnastics, lectures, etc. Each room has a blackboard wall encircling the whole room. The High Schools are provided with chemical, biological and physical laboratories suitable for secondary work in these sciences.

#### SANITATION.

The rooms are large, airy and well lighted, averaging 200 cubic feet of air to each pupil. Artificial heat is necessary for nearly eight months of the year; it is supplied by steam-heating apparatus, the temperature being kept at 70° F. In all new buildings there is provided the most modern and scientific system of air-shafts for ventilation, giving 30 cubic feet of fresh air to each pupil per minute. All buildings are provided with water and toilet facilities. Play grounds are connected with nearly all schools.

#### RENTED ROOMS.

The population of the city having grown more rapidly than the funds to erect buildings, the Board of Education has been obliged to lease a number of buildings to provide sittings for children. The necessity for this will, however, probably soon pass. The pupils in the half-day sessions are those of the youngest classes.

	1898-99.
Total number of seats in buildings owned	
by the city - - - -	213,753
Seats in rented rooms - - - -	15,545
Total number of seats - - - -	229,298
Pupils in half-day sessions - - - -	16,210

#### COST.

The city schools are supported by State and city tax,\* from the income of real estate, bonds, and from minor sources. The

\* The Illinois School Law (amended April 13, 1899), Art. viii., provides that a district school board may levy a tax of 2½ per cent. for general school purposes, and 2¼ per cent. for building purposes, of the assessed valuation of the property of a district.

appended statement gives a summary of receipts and expenditure for the school year 1898-99. The value of public property used for school purposes is estimated at \$22,361,100.

*Condensed Statement of Receipts and Expenditure for the School Year, 1898-9.*

The total available for the school year, ending June 30, 1899, was as follows:—

Cash balance on hand, June 30, 1899:	Dollars.
Account School Tax Fund - - - -	927,375.74
Account School Fund Income Act - - - -	187,375.48
Account Jonathan Burr Fund - - - -	100.58
Cash in hands of the School Agent, account Special Funds Income Act - - - -	1,700.65
	<u>1,116,561.45</u>
<b>Receipts:</b>	
From city school tax, 1897-8 - - - -	7,117,921.61
From State tax per capita - - - -	231,169.98
Tuition deaf mutes 1897 and 1898 - - - -	34,421.79
From rentals - - - -	467,231.83
From interest - - - -	46,192.05
From investments, account Jonathan Burr Fund - - - -	1,831.24
From investments and donations, account Special Funds - - - -	1,758.30
From miscellaneous sources - - - -	9,432.19
	<u>7,909,556.69</u>
	9,026,120.14

The items of expenditure are as follows:

Superintendents' and teachers' salaries, primary and grammar schools - - - -	3,975,282.75
New school sites and additions to old sites - - - -	158,829.69
New school buildings and incidental expenses in connection with the erection of same - - - -	1,000,063.69
Furnishing new buildings - - - -	22,886.45
Permanent improvements, alteration of old buildings, substituting steam heat for furnace, &c. - - - -	194,144.39
Taxes and special assessments - - - -	23,061.00
General repairs to buildings, furniture, heating and ventilating apparatus - - - -	469,709.66
Salaries engineers and janitors and elementary schools - - - -	299,209.69
Official salaries - - - -	79,700.53
Evening schools - - - -	89,537.78
Fuel and elementary schools - - - -	155,287.79
School supplies, including ink, paper, pens, pencils, crayons, stationery, &c. - - - -	49,563.32
School libraries, reference books, maps, charts, globes, &c. - - - -	36,730.81
School house supplies, printing and advertising - - - -	20,965.65
Text books for indigent pupils - - - -	45,514.31
Rentals of sites and buildings - - - -	93,229.89
Compulsory education - - - -	15,256.97
Abstracts of title, court costs, attorney's fees, &c. - - - -	716.66
Matured bonds and interest coupons of annexed school districts - - - -	63,885.58
Care and management of School Fund - - - -	4,189.79

	Dollars.	
On account school census, 1898 - - - -	2,163.04	
Contingent Fund, educational account - -	3,362.08	
Contingent Fund, building account - - -	762.32	
Special Funds, text books, medals, prizes, &c.	2,030.47	
<b>Manual Training at the House of Correction :</b>		
Teachers' salaries - - - - -	10,537.00	
For salaries, engineer and janitor, fuel, tools, shop supplies, machinery, &c. - - - -	5,758.12	
	<u>16,295.12</u>	
<b>High Schools :</b>		
Superintendent and teachers' salaries - -	441,188.47	
Salaries of engineer, janitors and steno- grapher, fuel apparatus, laboratory supplies, gas, reference books, diplomas, printing, drawing supplies, rebinding books, &c. -	50,780.44	
	<u>491,968.91</u>	
<b>English High and Manual Training School :</b>		
Teachers' salaries - - - - -	30,464.50	
Salaries engineer and janitor, rent, fuel, gas and electric light, electric motor, machinery and tools, lumber, hardware, nails, laboratory supplies, foundry supplies, printing, drawing supplies, reference books, rebinding books, maps, charts, piano, cases, desks and typewriters, electric wiring, mis- cellaneous repairs, electric power for running machinery - - - - -	13,851.66	
	<u>44,316.16</u>	
<b>Manual Training in Elementary Schools :</b>		
Teachers' salaries - - - - -	31,369.50	
Tools, machinery, shop supplies, &c. - -	24,645.89	
	<u>56,015.39</u>	
<b>Normal School :</b>		
Teachers' salaries - - - - -	55,403.12	
Salaries engineer and janitor, fuel, gas, rent of branches, salaries and supplies printing department, salary of gardener and care of grounds, laboratory supplies, reference books, diplomas, apparatus, &c. - - - - -	11,500.85	
	<u>66,903.97</u>	
<b>Drawing :</b>		
Teachers' salaries - - - - -	19,077.50	
Paper, models, pencils, books, stenographer, scissors, &c. - - - - -	14,280.46	
	<u>33,357.96</u>	
<b>Music :</b>		
Teachers' salaries - - - - -	20,954.50	
Songs, piano tuner, stenographer, printing, &c.	5,576.12	
	<u>26,530.62</u>	
<b>German :</b>		
Teachers' salaries - - - - -	170,615.32	
Text books, tablets, printing, &c. - - -	1,478.50	
	<u>172,093.82</u>	
<b>Physical Culture :</b>		
Teachers' salaries - - - - -	13,163.25	
Wands, dumbbells, Indian clubs, &c. - -	649.85	
	<u>13,813.10</u>	

Kindergartens :		Dollars.
Teachers' salaries - - - - -		74,732.75
Supplies, &c. - - - - -		4,347.06
		<u>79,080.41</u>
Deaf Mute Schools :		
Teachers' salaries - - - - -		14,969.76
Salary of janitor, fuel, text books, &c. - - -		704.32
		<u>15,674.08</u>
Household Arts :		
Teachers' salaries - - - - -		8,903.36
Supplies - - - - -		3,986.40
		<u>12,789.76</u>
		7,937,033.34
Cash in City Treasury, June 30th, 1899 :		
Account School Tax Fund - - - - -		884,865.93
Account School Fund Income - - - - -		201,428.54
Account Jonathan Burr Fund - - - - -		1,325.15
		<u>1,087,619.62</u>
Cash in the hands of the School Agent :		Dollars.
Account Special Funds Income - - - - -		1,437.18
		<u>9,026,120.14</u>
Dues on account School Tax Levy, 1898 -	2,418,867.25	
Less estimated loss and cost of collection -	<u>298,865.09</u>	
Net expectancy - - - - -	2,120,002.16	

Four new schools and eleven additions to old schools were built last year. The cost of the new schools (sites included) varied from 70,000 dollars to 125,000 dollars each.

*Schedule of Salaries of Superintendent and Teachers for the School Year 1898-99.*

	Dollars.
Superintendent of Schools - - - - -	7,000
Assistant Superintendent of Schools, during the first two years of service in such position - - -	3,500
Assistant Superintendent of Schools, after two years of service in such position - - - - -	4,000
Supervisors.	
Supervisor of Modern Languages - - - - -	3,000
Supervisor of Singing (High School Grades) - - -	2,400
Supervisor of Singing (Grammar Grades) - - -	2,400
Supervisor of Singing (Primary Grades) - - -	2,400
Supervisor of Drawing (High School) - - - - -	2,500
Supervisor of Drawing (Elementary Schools) - - -	2,600
Supervisor of Physical Culture - - - - -	2,400
Supervisor of Schools for the Deaf - - - - -	1,500
Supervisor of Manual Training in Elementary Grades	1,700
Assistant Supervisor and Special Teacher of Drawing (Elementary Grades) - - - - -	2,200
Supervising Principal of Kindergartens - - - - -	900

Teachers of Special Studies.

Assistant Special Teachers of Drawing in Elementary Grades.

For the first year of service	-	-	-	-	1,000
For the second year	-	-	-	-	1,200
For the third year	-	-	-	-	1,300
For the fourth year	-	-	-	-	1,400
For the fifth year	-	-	-	-	1,500
For the sixth and subsequent years	-	-	-	-	1,600

High Schools.

Grouping of Principals.

First Group.—2,500 dollars the first year, increasing 100 dollars a year until a maximum of 3,000 dollars is reached.  
 Second Group.—2,000 dollars the first year, increasing 100 dollars a year until a maximum of 2,500 dollars is reached.

Grouping of Instructors.

First Group.—1,500 dollars the first year, increasing 100 dollars a year until a maximum of 2,000 dollars is reached.  
 Second Group.—1,200 dollars the first year, increasing 100 dollars a year until a maximum of 1,500 dollars is reached.  
 Third Group.—850 dollars the first year, 900 dollars the second year, increasing 75 dollars a year until a maximum of 1,200 dollars is reached.

Teachers of German, French and Drawing.

First Group.—1,200 dollars the first year, increasing 50 dollars a year until a maximum of 1,500 dollars is reached.  
 Second Group.—750 dollars the first year, increasing 50 dollars a year until a maximum of 1,200 dollars is reached.

Chicago Normal School.

	Dollars.
Principal	5,000

Principals of Elementary Schools.

Principals of schools shall receive 1,200 dollars per annum for the first year's service, increasing 75 dollars a year to a maximum salary.

First Group—For schools having an average membership for the school year of 700 or more pupils, the maximum salary shall be 2,500 dollars per annum.

Second Group—For schools having an average membership for the school year of 300 to 700 pupils, the maximum salary shall be 2,000 dollars per annum.

Third Group—For schools having an average membership for the school year under 300 pupils, the maximum salary shall be 1,500 dollars per annum.

Whenever the membership of a school is reduced by transfer of pupils to other schools, or by the opening of a new school



the salary of a principal shall not be reduced for two years on account of the reduced membership.

All principals who have not reached the maximum salary in the group to which their schools belong now, shall be advanced 75 dollars when they have served one year on their present salaries.

Assistants to Principals.	Dollars.
Assistants to Principals, each - - - - -	per Annum. 1,100
Head Assistants, Grammar Schools (Grades 5-8).	
During the first and second years of service in such capacity, each - - - - -	900
During the third, fourth and fifth years of service in such capacity, each - - - - -	950
From sixth to tenth year, inclusive, in such capacity, each - - - - -	1,000
Over ten years of service in such capacity, each - - - - -	1,050
Head Assistants, Primary Schools (Grades 1-4).	
First and second years of service in such capacity, each - - - - -	Dollars. 850
For third, fourth and fifth years of service in such capacity, each - - - - -	900
Over five years of service in such capacity, each - - - - -	950
Assistant Teachers in Primary Grades (Grades 1-4).	
For first year of service - - - - -	500
For second year of service - - - - -	550
For third year of service - - - - -	575
For the fourth year of service - - - - -	650
For the fifth year of service - - - - -	700
For the sixth year of service - - - - -	775
For the seventh and subsequent years of service - - - - -	800
Assistant Teachers in Grammar Grades (Grades 5-8).	
For first year of service - - - - -	500
For second year of service - - - - -	550
For third year of service - - - - -	625
For the fourth year of service - - - - -	675
For the fifth year of service - - - - -	725
For the sixth year of service - - - - -	800
For seventh and subsequent years - - - - -	825
Teachers of eighth grade classes - - - - -	850
Extra teachers in schools having 24 grade rooms - - - - -	950

All changes in salary to take place at the commencement of the school month succeeding the expiration of the year's service.

Teachers in Kindergartens.	
Directors - - - - -	500
Assistant Directors - - - - -	350

Substitutes.

Experienced substitutes to be employed at the discretion of the Superintendent, at a compensation varying from 2.50 dollars to 4.00 dollars per day for each day of actual service, according to the experience of the substitute so employed.

Cadets.

Cadets who have completed the training course shall receive for cadet service at the rate of 20 dollars per month, as substitutes at the rate of 2.50 dollars per day.

Teachers of Latin.

Teachers of Latin in the seventh and eighth grades and Grammar grade teachers who also teach German in connection with regular grade work, to be paid 50 dollars per annum in addition to the regular schedule; provided that no such teacher shall receive more than 850 dollars per annum.

Reserve Teachers.

Eight reserve teachers, one for each school district, to be employed at the discretion of the Superintendent, at a salary of 800 dollars per annum each.

Compensation of Acting Principal.

An additional salary of twenty-five per cent to be added to the salary of a Head Assistant or an eighth grade teacher, when such assistant acts as principal during the absence of the principal of the school.

	<i>Cost per Pupil.</i>	Dollars.
For tuition alone.		1898-9.
Upon number enrolled - - - -		19.46
Upon average daily membership - - -		23.33
" " " attendance - - -		26.05
For incidentals.		
Upon number enrolled - - - -		2.89
Upon average daily membership - - -		3.47
" " " attendance - - -		3.73
For all current expenses (not including repairs, permanent improvements, etc.):		
Upon number enrolled - - - -		22.35
Upon average daily membership - - -		26.80
" " " attendance - - -		28.78
The cost of the departments given below is reckoned on all current expenses, (not including repairs, permanent improvements, etc.)		
Physical Culture:		
Upon number enrolled - - - -		.056
Upon average daily membership - - -		.067
" " " attendance - - -		.072
5602.		U

Music :	
Upon number enrolled - - - - -	.11
Upon average daily membership - - - - -	.134
" " " attendance - - - - -	.138
Drawing :	
Upon number enrolled - - - - -	.135
Upon average daily membership - - - - -	.163
" " " attendance - - - - -	.174
Kindergartens :	
Upon number enrolled - - - - -	10.92
Upon average daily membership - - - - -	20.80
" " " attendance - - - - -	23.24
Household Arts :	
Upon number enrolled (about 10,000) - - - - -	1.28
Manual Training in Elementary Schools :	
Upon number enrolled (about 15,000) - - - - -	3.73
Evening Schools :	
Upon number enrolled - - - - -	8.04
Upon average attendance - - - - -	20.49
High Schools :	
Upon number enrolled - - - - -	53.98
Upon average daily membership - - - - -	69.83
" " " attendance - - - - -	63.72
Normal School :	
Upon number enrolled - - - - -	116.76
Upon average daily membership - - - - -	141.50
" " " attendance - - - - -	147.28
Schools for the Deaf :	
Upon number enrolled - - - - -	96.74
Upon average daily membership - - - - -	116.97
" " " attendance - - - - -	128.87

## AIMS.\*

Our aims may be summarised under the following heads:  
Physical, intellectual, moral, industrial, sociological.

*Physical.*

The difficulties of healthful life in a great city, where air, water, and earth are poisoned, bear especially hard upon children. Our death rate is not high, yet our children are not as vigorous as we could wish. Americans have been somewhat slow in introducing gymnastics into the schools, relying upon children's plays to give the needed exercise. Gymnastics have, however, now a recognised place in the city schools, though the time given, fifty

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\* This section is verbatim from Dr. Andrews' report.

minutes per week, is brief. Physiologists warn us that our nervous children must not be kept too steadily at the desk; and our teachers are trying to find the amount of physical motion that should be allowed to secure healthy growth. Nature study and constructive work in the lower grades of the elementary schools, with methods similar to those of the Kindergartens, are helping to solve the problem. Seven of our High Schools have well equipped gymnasiums; and gymnastic apparatus has been placed in fifty-eight of the elementary schools.

Our chief difficulty lies in our pupils being seated in artificially heated rooms during eight months of the year.

#### *Intellectual.*

The course of study largely reveals the intellectual aims. A knowledge of the elements of science, literature, and art, an intelligent knowledge, that is, of environment, beginning with the earliest years and increasing with the growing understanding—such is the purpose as to the content of knowledge. To develop ability to use knowledge, to adapt himself, that is, to environment, is the power that makes knowledge of avail to the child. As the environment changes and enlarges, so must the child change and enlarge. The old mistaken interpretations are disappearing. The child learns the laws of life and of nature, becomes convinced that he must live by the first and understand the world through the second. Facts are no longer taught without reference to law. The *why* of things is explained, as far as the teacher can interpret and the child comprehend. Power is secured by the skilful guiding of interest. It is the hearty, almost the passionate, wish of the teaching force to learn and skilfully employ the science of education, to know what is best to be taught to all children, *plus* what is best to be taught to each one. The latter, which is the more difficult problem, is that which stirs most profoundly our best teachers. It is a problem peculiarly difficult to solve with the large classes of the public schools. It is the problem of life for each child; to what is it best adapted?

Our compulsory education law is comparatively new and does not yet work thoroughly. Moreover, it is incomplete, obliging only sixteen weeks' attendance in the year, whereas the best authorities are agreed that it should be as many weeks as school is taught in each school district of the State, the period varying somewhat on account of local taxation. In Chicago this period is forty weeks. As a consequence of our imperfect compulsory law, the average school life of the Chicago child is but five years, and this still further intensifies the problem: how can we forge for each child in this limited time the knowledge that shall be this key to life? Is this result to be best gained by imparting the carefully selected knowledge of past experience? or by the constructive method of the Herbartian system? or by direct explanation of immediate and then more widely opening environment? At present all three methods are in use in the schools; all will work out their fruits and be judged by them; variety in unity is life; so is it in education.

*Moral.*

Religious instruction being excluded from our public schools, moral teaching must have its basis on natural rights, duties, and conditions, especially on the duties of a child to itself and to others. School life necessitates the minor virtues of cleanliness, punctuality, industry, obedience, and the larger ones of honesty and consideration for others are constantly inculcated. Corporal punishment has for several years been abandoned, and public sentiment and educational experience approve the change. The discipline of the schools remains good and suspension for misconduct, which is the weapon of last resort, is not of frequent necessity. The total number of such suspensions during the last year was 158 out of 242,000 pupils.

Generally in moral instruction the purpose is to show that the violation of law meets with inevitable punishment (*e.g.*, the reporting of misconduct to parents, the lowering of school standards, etc.), and that the causes for disciplinary laws and the ideals of action are all based on the mutual relations of the members of the school community.

*Industrial.*

For the first half century of their history the aim of the Chicago public schools was simply instruction in general elementary knowledge, roughly covered by "the three R's." This was thought to be sufficient scholastic preparation for life for the body of the people, to whose labour the undeveloped resources of a great and rich territory promised comfort and riches. About the middle of the century began a movement in favour of higher education, which has resulted in the establishment of twenty-five State universities and upwards of 4,000 secondary or High Schools. The courses of both secondary schools and Universities were almost entirely professional.

We are now at the beginning of another educational era, still more significant and wide-reaching, which is to provide special education for the manufacturing, the commercial, and finally for the agricultural classes, *i.e.*, practically for all workers. This development naturally appears first in the great cities. New York, Philadelphia, Boston, San Francisco have already their first secondary, technical, or commercial schools, and in some cases both types. Chicago has three technical schools for the manufacturing class founded or supported by private beneficence. The city has established one such school, the English High and Manual Training School, and is now merely awaiting the results of a better tax system, which will give her a larger income, to establish other technical and new commercial schools.

The manual training department of the elementary schools points in this direction. The constructive work of the same schools has its economic as well as its pedagogic aspect. Educational opinion is practically unanimous in favour of these differentiations, which appear to be based on sound economic reasons as well as on democratic justice. For, if there are to be

secondary schools and Universities for the professional class, less than five per cent. of the people, why not at least secondary schools for the manufacturing and commercial classes, who form nearly fifty per cent. of the people? As we are large exporters of surplus food products, the need of the agricultural school may not be widely felt for many years. But it will come inevitably as our population grows more dense.

*Sociological.*

Sociological aims are closely interlinked with formal, educational, and industrial aims. Generally, they may be stated as the endeavour to produce harmony by fostering the sense of common civic interest in our widely heterogeneous population. Upwards of twenty nationalities are largely represented in our city. We teach their children a common tongue, and national hatreds and prejudices fade away in a mutual understanding. Each nationality no longer needs a separate standing army to keep the peace.

To form an intelligent citizenship with high civic ideals is the purpose of many earnest teachers. To this end some are experimenting with self-government in the schools, appointing or causing to be elected officers who shall aid in government, and making of the school a community that shall possess much of the self-responsibility of adult society.

To give the children of the poor a refuge from the streets several schools have been opened in the "slum" districts during the long vacation. The use of the school building has been given by the Board of Education, while private beneficence pays the teachers and other expenses. Weekly excursions, when practicable, have been made into the country, on Lake Michigan, to parks and swimming schools. The course of study is attractive, no books being used; and, though entirely voluntary, the vacation schools are well attended. The parents are glad to find so healthful and helpful a place for their children, and the children like the schools, with their airy rooms, kindly teachers, interesting life, and delightful excursions into new environment better than the hot streets and the close, crowded home life. Four such schools have been maintained this summer with an attendance of about 1,600 children.

In the winter many free lectures are given in the schools, the expenses incurred being paid from a fund left for this purpose by the late William H. Ryder or by private contributions. The Chicago and the North-western Universities and other institutions have furnished free lectures, and a Chicago newspaper, the "Record," has paid the expenses of an extension course. The attendance at the lectures in 1897-8 was 35,000: average attendance, 500; stereopticon lectures, 38.

The education given in the Bridewell School to youths convicted of minor crimes and the plans for the establishment of a truant school show the earnest intention of the community to cure crime by enforced knowledge and industry.

There is an increasing tendency to endeavour to solve our

political, social, industrial—indeed, all our problems as far as possible, through the agency of the public school, which is thus becoming yearly a more important factor in the nation's life. The influence of the school upon the family, government, religion, morals, customs, language, industries, commerce, science, and art, upon every condition of national life, has been already most powerful, and this influence is destined to increase. We are realizing and striving to obey the biological law that the species, race or nation that longest protects and trains its young is the most powerful in the struggle of life.

#### ADDENDUM.—CHURCH SCHOOLS.

"Only two of the many different churches in Chicago have made any real attempt to furnish their children with an education which combines religion with secular instruction. These are the Catholic and Lutheran Churches which educate about 70,000 children, and receive no State aid of any kind."

"Nearly all Catholic parishes have their schools, but each school is conducted by the priest in charge in such manner as seems to him likely to have the best results, and no diocesan report is obtainable."

"These schools labour under several disadvantages—the want of State aid, poverty of parents causing early withdrawal of children, &c. Most of the schools are taught by members of some religious community, many of them having no plan for the theoretical teaching of their members."

"Notwithstanding these drawbacks these schools have earned for themselves a name for very thorough teaching in all branches." In many schools the boys are instructed by men only. There are 122 male and 987 female teachers, mostly members of religious orders.

More than half the children leave the parochial school before the age of 14.

Though many of the children go to the public high schools, there are also several high schools in connection with the parochial schools, giving much the same instruction, and specially successful in preparation for the normal school.

The fees for the elementary schools are from 50 dollar to 100 dollar per month, but not half the children pay anything. In the high schools the fee for those who can pay is 200 dollars per month.

S. Ignatius College and S. Vincent's College give a commercial course for boys only, comprising French, German, Spanish, book-keeping, &c., history, science, and mathematics.

"The Lutheran Church schools are parochial schools conducted at the expense of the German Lutheran churches, with a fee of 50 cents per month when possible." 152 male and 23 female teachers are employed. They have no secondary schools in Chicago, but can send the children to other States for higher study.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM OF THE CITY OF  
NEW YORK

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THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM OF THE CITY OF  
NEW YORK.\*

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I. THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF NEW YORK, 1897-1902.

The educational system of New York was entirely re-organised by "the Greater New York Charter" of 1897. Certain changes affecting the amount and payment of teachers' salaries were made in 1898-1901, and the whole Charter was revised in the present year, the amendments to take effect from January, 1902. It is proposed to give a short account of some of the provisions of the charter, and of the sweeping alterations about to take place. It will be best to give the laws and their amendments so far as we know them, in chronological order.

*A.—The School System under the Charter.†*

By the charter the City of New York is divided into five boroughs, viz., Manhattan, the Bronx, Brooklyn, Queens and Richmond. Manhattan and the Bronx were consolidated for educational purposes. A Board of Education administered the affairs for the whole city; four school boards had charge of the schools in the boroughs.

The members of all the five boards were appointed by the Mayor of Greater New York, the members of the boards which existed at the time of granting the Charter being allowed to finish their terms of service. The boards for Manhattan and the Bronx consisted of 21 members, that for Brooklyn of 45, those for Queens and for Richmond of 9 each. The term of office was three years for all the boards, one-third being appointed annually, and interim vacancies being filled by the Mayor.

The Board of Education for the City of New York consisted of 19 members, viz., the four chairmen of the school boards, 10 delegates elected by the School Board of Manhattan and the Bronx, and 5 elected by that of Brooklyn. The members served for one year. Members of all the boards served without pay.

The Board of Education was to submit an annual estimate for the entire school system (based on separate estimates received

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\* The writer of this paper desires to acknowledge the help of Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, who has been so good as to read the proof-sheets before publication.

† Based on the "Manual of the Board of Education" of the City of New York, 1900.

from the four school boards) to the City Board of Estimate and Apportionment. It was then included in the general budget of the city. The municipal assembly might (subject to certain restrictions) reduce the amount of the estimate by a majority vote of all its members, but might not increase it.

The apportionment was divided into a special fund and a general fund. The special fund was administered by the Board of Education for the erection and repair of school buildings, and for supplies of all sorts, etc. The general fund was for the payment of salaries of superintendents and teachers, and was apportioned by the Board of Education among the school boards in two parts—the first, a grant of \$100 for every teacher regularly employed, the remainder divided among the boards in proportion to the aggregate days of attendance of pupils. Monies might be withheld if the school laws are not complied with.

The Board of Education appointed a superintendent of buildings, a superintendent of supplies, and a city superintendent of schools, each for six years, and removable only by a three-fourths vote of the board. The city superintendent of schools inspected, inquired into, and reported on all matters connected with the instruction, management, and discipline of the schools but had only advisory powers.

The school boards each appointed a borough superintendent for six years and associates, removable only by a three-fourths vote of the board. The Charter enacted that, apart from existing rights and customs of the boards, all supervisors and teachers were to be appointed by the school boards on the nomination of their borough superintendent. The saving clause appears to have exempted Brooklyn entirely from this method. The borough superintendent and his associates constituted a board, on which the principal of each school had a vote in matters affecting his school.

The school boards divided their boroughs into inspection districts. The mayor appointed five inspectors to each district, who visited their schools at least once a quarter and reported on their general condition, with special reference to the laws forbidding sectarian teaching.

A writer in the "Educational Review"\* held that the new Charter was an immense advance over previous conditions because it eliminated patronage, put power into expert hands, secured a minimum qualification for teachers, gave the principals a voice in the management of their schools, provided for proper graduation of salaries, and had other wise provisions.

#### *B.—The Laws relating to Teachers' Salaries.*

Writing in February, 1900, the editor of the "Educational Review" makes the following remarkable statement:—"The

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\* May, 1867.

New York schools were never in so distressing an administrative condition as at this moment, and the chances of their permanent rescue from it were never quite so good." We cannot follow the educational disputes either in New York State or New York City in detail, nor the causes which prevented the success of the educational scheme of the charter of 1897 and led to the revision in 1901; but we will give a brief summary of that part which related to teachers and salaries.\*

Under the charter the Board of Education submitted an estimate for their annual expenditure, but the Municipal Assembly were at liberty to reduce it without limit, and made use of this power. Consequently the money for paying teachers salaries was not provided, and the teachers had no security, and no money was available to make the most necessary reforms in the grading and method of increase of the salaries.

In 1899 the Ahearn Law passed the State Legislature providing a scheme of minimum salaries for teachers of assigned grades and length of service (an absolute minimum of 600 dols. per annum, a minimum of 900 dols. after ten years' service, and so on); but the Municipal Assembly refused sufficient supplies. In consequence of an effort to obey the Ahearn Law in the cases where it applied, teachers not protected by it found their salaries reduced, and "the school officers and teachers, janitors and other employees in Queen's and Richmond did not receive their salaries for October, November, and December, 1889, until February, 1900, and then only through an Act of the Legislature." The teachers organised a great agitation for reform of the whole system, for securing salaries, taking them entirely out of partisan control, increasing them, and grading them properly in proportion to merit. Their appeal to the Legislature was successful in 1900, when the Davis Bill was passed by the State Legislature and signed by the Governor, "in spite of the veto of the Mayor and the strenuous opposition of the Comptroller, and in opposition to the majority of the members of the school boards of Manhattan and the Bronx, and of Brooklyn." This law provided "a more equitable plan for distributing the general school fund among the various boroughs than that set forth in the original charter, the quota for each qualified teacher being made 600 dols. instead of 100 dols.," and ordered that an amount not less than 40 cents per 100 dols. of the assessed real and personal estate of the city should be ear-marked for this general fund independently of any possible action of the Municipal Assembly and made certain rules giving "to all grades of teachers fair salaries." The Board of Education was thus given security of an adequate income, increasing with the growth of the city, while the teachers gained security and independence.

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\* Based on the "Educational Review (New York)," June, 1900, February and May, 1901; the "Manual of the Board of Education," 1900; and the Report of the City Superintendent of Schools, 1900.

*C.—Licensing and Appointment of Teachers.*

The New York system of licensing and appointing teachers deserves special notice, as being in some senses unique; no one may teach without a license, and lists of teachers and principals eligible for appointment to the schools are drawn up by a special Board of Examiners. "This Board of Examiners," writes Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, "under the existing Charter, consists of the City Superintendent and four examiners appointed by the Board of Education on his nomination. The law provides that these examiners may hold no other position in the City School system. They make up the eligible lists by examination, and then the appointing officers, who are at present the Board of Superintendents in the several boroughs of the City, make the recommendations for persons to fill vacancies to the several borough school boards. They are restricted by law, however, to one of the three first persons on the eligible list, for any given vacancy."

The rules for the licensing of teachers are as follows:—

INFORMATION RESPECTING THE SEVERAL KINDS OF LICENSES TO TEACH  
IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

Inasmuch as students, otherwise qualified to apply for licenses to teach in the public schools of the city of New York, who pursue successfully Summer Session courses at Columbia University may be exempted in part from examination for those licenses, the following statement regarding teachers' licenses in New York city is inserted:

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LICENSES.—The following are the most important grades of elementary school licenses for the city of New York:

- I. License No. 1, or grade B.
- II. License No. 2, or grade A.
- III. The head of department license.
- IV. The principal's license.
- V. License as teacher of a special branch.

I. Teacher's license No. 1 may, after examination, be issued to (a) graduates of approved high schools or academies, who have subsequently graduated from approved training schools; (b) to graduates of State normal schools or similar institutions approved by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, who have had at least one year's experience in teaching; (c) to college or university graduates who have taken a course of at least one year in a college or university department of education, or who have taught successfully not less than three years (see note at the end of this paragraph); (d) to holders of New York State certificates granted since 1873, provided such holders have been actually engaged in teaching during the two years immediately preceding their application for license; (e) to persons who have had three years' successful experience in teaching.

NOTE.—The one year or more of pedagogical study required of the first of the two groups of applicants described under (c) above, must amount to not less than 210 hours' attendance upon lectures or recitations, at least 90 hours being given to the subjects of logic or psychology and 130 hours to the history and principles of education and methods of teaching.

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All applicants for license No. 1 must pass an examination in the history and principles of education and in methods of teaching. Applicants falling under class (c) must also take an academic examination unless, being graduates of approved high schools, they have had not less than five years' successful experience in teaching.

II. Teacher's license No. 2 may be issued to the holder of a teacher's license No. 1 who has taught successfully for four years in the public schools of the city of New York (or who has had elsewhere experience rated as equivalent thereto by the board of examiners), and who produces evidence of having successfully pursued, since beginning his work as a teacher, in some recognised institution of learning, one or two satisfactory courses of study involving in all not less than sixty hours' attendance upon lectures, seminars, or laboratory work in some branch of science or literature, or in professional work.

NOTE.—Each course considered with a view to the granting of license No. 2 or of a head of department license must have amounted to at least 30 hours, and must have been terminated by a successful examination. Each 30 hour course must have extended over 15 weeks or over the six weeks of a summer session. Applicants must present certificates of attendance and of successful examination. Note-books will be accepted as supplementary evidence of the character and amount of work done.

III. A head of department license may be granted to the holder of a teacher's license No. 2 or No. 1, who has had successful experience in teaching amounting to not less than the equivalent of eight years in the city of New York; who passes an examination in the principles of education, methods of teaching and school management, and who produces evidence of having pursued satisfactory courses of study amounting to not less than (1) sixty hours in some branch of the science of education, and (2) sixty hours in some branch of literature, science, or art. All courses presented must meet the conditions mentioned in the note to the last paragraph. Courses considered with a view to the granting of a head of department license may have been taken either during the school year for at least two years, or at a university or normal summer school for at least two senior sessions, or during one school year and one summer session. Applicants who have not taken such courses of study may be granted a head of department license upon passing, in addition to the professional examination above mentioned, an examination in English language and literature, in history and civics, or in elementary science.

IV. Applicants for a principal's license must have one of the following qualifications: (a) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, together with two years of professional study in a university school or department of education and successful experience in teaching during not less than three years. (The professional study here mentioned must amount to not less than five hundred hours of attendance upon lectures, seminars, or laboratory work, and need not be confined to strictly pedagogical branches.) (b) Graduation from a recognized college or university, together with at least five years' successful experience in teaching or supervision since graduation. (For Manhattan and The Bronx college graduates must have had at least eight years' successful experience in graded or normal schools.) (c) For the Boroughs of Queens and Richmond only, the holding of a New York State certificate granted since 1875, together with eight years in teaching or supervision immediately preceding the examination. (d) Ten years' experience in teaching or supervision in city public schools, immediately preceding the examination. (In Manhattan and The Bronx an applicant in this class must have had successful experience as principal or teacher in a graded city school for at least ten years and must have successfully completed a course of at least two years in a school of pedagogy approved by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, or of at least two six weeks' sessions of a university or normal summer school. The course here

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referred to must be pedagogical and must have amounted to not less than sixty hours' attendance, and must have been terminated by successful examination.)

The subjects of the written examination for principal's license will be history and principles of education, methods of teaching, school management, and three of the following groups of academic subjects :

- (a) English literature, rhetoric.
- (b) Logic, psychology.
- (c) Algebra, geometry, trigonometry.
- (d) Physics, chemistry, physiology and hygiene.
- (e) Physical and mathematical geography, United States history, civil government.
- (f) A language and its literature, namely Greek, Latin, French, German, Spanish, or Anglo-Saxon.

Applicants will be required to take group (a) and two other groups.

Exemption from the academic portion of the principal's examination except in group (a) may be granted to graduates of recognized colleges or universities. Applicants not graduates of recognized colleges who have successfully completed, with examination, one or two college or university courses of at least one year or of one summer session, amounting to not less than sixty hours in any of the subjects mentioned in groups (b), (c), (d), and (e), may be exempted from examination in the group or groups embracing such subject or subjects.

V. Assistant supervisors or teachers of special branches (as music, manual training or drawing, cooking sewing, German, French, physical training, phonography, or shop-work) must have the following qualifications : Graduation from a high school or a general education that is obviously equivalent ; graduation from a course of professional training of at least one year in the special branch to be taught, and at least one year's experience in teaching that special branch, except in the case of teachers of shop-work and cooking. No applicants are exempted from the examinations for these licenses. In case of teachers of languages, three years' experience in teaching may be accepted as the equivalent of the required one year of professional training. Persons not graduates of a high school or equivalent institution may be required to take a supplementary academic examination.

Applicants for kindergarten licenses must have one of the following qualifications : (a) Graduation from a high school or equivalent academic training, and graduation from a school for the professional training of teachers having a course of two years, at least one of which has been devoted to the theory and practice of kindergarten work ; (b) Graduation from a State normal school or a college having a kindergarten course of two years ; (c) Graduation from a school for the training of kindergartners having a course of at least one year, together with successful experience in kindergarten teaching for not less than two years. Applicants presenting qualification (c) must also pass an examination in academic studies.

**HIGH SCHOOL LICENSES.**—In addition to possessing the qualifications required by the By-Laws of the Board of Education, each applicant for a high school license in the city of New York must pass a written and an oral examination in the science of education and in the subjects which he is to teach.

Professor Nicholas Murray Butler continues: "We are much gratified at having secured the introduction here of a thorough-going system of appointment by merit only. Theoretically, the examiners license; the several boards of borough superintendents recommend; and the school boards appoint. Practically, however, the examiners license and determine the order of appointing; the board of superintendents appoint; and the school boards merely confirm.

"Under the new charter, this system will be extended to the entire City (it is not now in force in Brooklyn), and is somewhat simplified, because for the several boards of borough superintendents there is substituted a single board of city superintendents, and for the several borough school boards there is substituted a single city board of education.

"The principles outlined above remain, however, in their fullness."

*D.—The Revision of the Charter in 1901.\**

"The revised charter for the City of New York, which has been adopted to take effect January 1, 1902, confirms the strong points of the public school organization as determined in the original Greater New York Charter of 1897, removes the anomalies and defects which a spirit of compromise permitted to remain in that document, and makes provision for a number of improvements, all in the direction of sound principle. The borough school boards, together with the borough superintendents and all their paraphernalia are wiped out, and one school system is provided for the entire city of New York, in charge of a single board of education, and presided over by a single city superintendent, clothed with the full powers which belong to his office."

The new board is to consist of 46 members, appointed by the mayor, and irremovable; members hold office for five years and retire in rotation. Twenty-two must be residents of Manhattan, 4 of the Bronx, 14 of Brooklyn, 4 of Queen's, and 2 of Richmond. The board may appoint an executive committee of 15 with extensive powers. The board is to appoint a city superintendent of schools, and superintendents of school buildings and of supplies, and a supervisor of lectures, each for a term of six years; the present superintendents are to complete their term.

A board of superintendents is to be formed, consisting of 9 members (including the city superintendent), chosen by the Board of Education. The city is to be divided into 46 districts, assigned in pairs to district superintendents. The present borough superintendents and their associates are included in these appointments. The board of superintendents "are the central administrative body, in immediate charge of the educational policy of the city and the work of the school system as a whole." The

\* Based on an editorial note in the "Educational Review" (New York), May, 1901.

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district superintendents are assigned purely educational duties in guiding the teaching in their respective districts.

The Board of Examiners is not changed in constitution.

In each of the forty-six districts a local school board is to be appointed, consisting of five persons appointed by the Borough President, a member of the Board of Education, appointed by the President thereof, and the District Superintendent. This board has no powers that can interfere with the administration or conduct of the schools; but inspects the schools and gives "voice to local opinion."

"The Davis school salary law is re-enacted in all essentials." This law provided a definite minimum income, which is expected to be adequate under normal conditions, but may be increased by the City Council if they wish.

"As a whole, the education chapter of the new charter is thoroughly sound in principle and wonderfully complete in detail."

The local committee system of appointing teachers in Brooklyn, which was spared by the law of 1897, is now abolished; and the school system of New York will in future be homogeneous.

2. GENERAL STATISTICS FOR 1900.

The following tables are compiled from the Report of the City Superintendent of Schools for 1899-1900, and give "a synoptic view of the statistics of the public schools of the City of New York"—

POPULATION (U.S. Census, 1900) - - - - -	3,437,202
School population (5 to 18 years), estimated July 31st, 1900 -	757,502
Total net enrolment in public schools of pupils between 5 and 18 years of age - - - - -	518,073

Total Net ENROLMENT.	High Schools.	Elementary Schools.	Kindergartens.	Total.
Of pupils between 4 and 21 years of age - -	17,018	496,595	7,906	523,419
Average daily ATTENDANCE - - - - -	10,809	364,481	2,921	378,211
Average register* - - - - -	11,706	403,614	3,631	418,951

\* The conditions under which a child's name is kept on the register are not even the same in all the boroughs. The statistics based on "school membership" in the schools of the United States are generally not comparable, and should be handled with great caution.



The Public School System of the City of New York. 315

Per cent. of daily attendance on net enrolment	- -	72
"    "    "    average register	- -	80

	4 to 5 Years.	5 to 18 years.	Over 18 years.	Total.
Aggregate days' attendance of pupils	68,966	72,107,656	257,813	72,434,435

Number of sittings in the schools	- - - - -	428,090
Number of regular TEACHERS	- - - - -	10,492
Number of SCHOOLHOUSES	- - - - -	448
"    "    "    erected during the year	- - - - -	15

VALUE of school sites (estimated)	- - - - -	\$ 14,808,870
"    "    houses	- - - - -	35,079,791
"    all other property	- - - - -	2,209,858
Total	- - - - -	\$2,098,519

PUBLIC DAY SCHOOLS.

	Manhattan and The Bronx.	Brooklyn.	Queen's.	Richmond.	New York.		
					Male.	Female.	Total.
Different Pupils Enrolled	300,386	181,014	30,881	12,219	264,167	259,808	523,976
Supervising Officers	862	281	58	20	226	480	716
Regular Teachers	8,483	3,488	668	230	765	9,074	9,839

HIGH SCHOOLS.			Male.	Female.	Total.
Number of high schools and departments	-	21	-	-	-
"    instructors	- - - - -	475	-	-	-
"    different pupils enrolled	- - - - -	-	7,441	9,577	17,018
"    pupils graduated during the year	- - - - -	-	425	577	1,002

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TEACHERS' TRAINING SCHOOLS.	—	Male.	Female.	Total.
Number of instructors . . . . .	24	—	—	—
„ different pupils enrolled . . . . .	—	24	527	551
„ pupils graduated during the year . . . . .	—	6	288	294

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.	—	Male.	Female.	Total.
Number of schools . . . . .	483	—	—	—
„ teachers . . . . .	9,200	—	—	—
„ different pupils enrolled . . . . .	—	252,792	245,802	498,594
„ pupils graduated . . . . .	—	6,597	7,143	13,740

KINDERGARTENS.	—	Male.	Female.	Total.
Number of classes . . . . .	115	—	—	—
„ instructors . . . . .	140	—	—	—
„ different pupils enrolled . . . . .	—	3,909	3,997	7,906

PUBLIC EVENING SCHOOLS.

HIGH SCHOOLS.	—	Male.	Female.	Total.
Number of schools . . . . .	6	—	—	—
Average daily attendance . . . . .	2,880	—	—	—
Number of teachers . . . . .	—	124	20	144
„ different pupils enrolled . . . . .	—	6,960	1,786	8,746
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.				
Number of schools . . . . .	48	—	—	—
Average daily attendance . . . . .	14,407	—	—	—
Number of teachers . . . . .	—	300	406	706
„ different pupils enrolled . . . . .	—	27,242	15,715	43,057

VACATION SCHOOLS AND PLAYGROUNDS.

	Manhattan and The Bronx.		Brooklyn.	
	No.	Average Attendance.	No.	Average Attendance.
Schools - - - - -	10	4,921	11	3,210
School playgrounds (morning and afternoon) - - - - -	19	7,851	11	6,704
School playgrounds (afternoon and evening) - - - - -	10	5,306		
Outdoor playgrounds - - - - -	12	3,117		
Roof playgrounds - - - - -	2	439		
Piers - - - - -	6	867		
Baths - - - - -	11	871		

In addition to the schools in the above table, there are two truant schools, with an enrolment of 207 pupils; and 59 corporate schools, which are entitled to a share of the public School Fund. Of these 48 are in Manhattan and the Bronx (enrolment 27,949), and 11 in Brooklyn (enrolment 5,454).

The Board of Education also maintains a nautical school on the ship "St. Mary's."

There are also many private schools with a large enrolment, in 1898-9 amounting to 18 per cent. of that of the public schools.

3. THE DAY SCHOOLS.

Children have hitherto been admitted to the lowest grade of the elementary schools at a very early age, but under the revised charter they will not be admitted till they are six years old, those under that age being provided for in Kindergartens.

The course in the elementary schools extends over seven years in Manhattan and the Bronx, and over eight years in the other boroughs. The children graduate from these schools when about 14½ years old. There are manual training classes throughout the elementary and high schools. Text-books are provided gratis.

13,740 pupils who graduated from the elementary schools in the year 1889-1900, 7,974 entered the high schools, 743 boys entered the preparatory department of the College of the City of New York, and 572 girls entered the normal college. That is to say, nearly two-thirds of those who persevere to the end of the elementary course enter on a course of secondary education.

The ordinary high school course is four years. There was a great increase in the high school enrolment in 1900, which was nearly 25 per cent. greater than the previous year. "The demand for high school commercial work has fully kept pace with the demand for literary or college preparatory work. The organization of the commercial department of the Boys' High School, Brooklyn, into a separate commercial high school, and the extension of the commercial course of study from two years to three, have given a new dignity and importance to this department. Elaborate preparations are now in progress to found in Manhattan a high school of commerce of the most advanced and modern type." A manual training high school is also needed in Manhattan; while trade schools should take the place of the last two years of work in the elementary schools in the tenement-house neighbourhoods.

#### 4. THE EVENING SCHOOLS.

In 1885 Dr. Philbrick spoke in very high terms of the evening high school of New York, which he said was a veritable college on a large scale, and conducted on the most liberal plan. The school was opened in 1866. In 1885 there was an enrolment of 1,655, and an average attendance of 951, with 22 instructors. In 1900 there were 4 such schools in Manhattan and the Bronx, with an enrolment of 6,523 and an average attendance of 1,943, with 94 instructors. It is to be noticed that the regularity of attendance has diminished greatly in the interval.

The evening elementary schools have also a large enrollment (34,423 in Manhattan and the Bronx, 5,880 in Brooklyn, 160 in Richmond), but an average attendance of only 33 per cent. of the enrolment.

#### 5. THE FREE LECTURES.

The development of evening education most in vogue is the Free Lecture System. In the winter of 1899-1900, 1,871 lectures were given in forty-eight localities, and the total attendance was 538,084. The favourite subject appears to be Travel and Descriptive Geography; Literature, History, and various branches of Science are also popular; while Natural Science, Physiology and Hygiene, Music, Art, Civics and Sociology were also the subjects of many lectures. Three-fourths of the audiences are said to have been persons in middle life. The scheme has existed for twelve years with growing success.

#### 6. THE VACATION SCHOOLS.

In a crowded city like New York the care of the children who do not go into the country during the long summer vacation is an ever-recurring necessity. To meet the needs of these children

many of the school buildings were opened, especially in the most crowded centres, as Play Schools. These were placed under the charge of paid teachers, and a system of manual education developing from kindergarten methods to wood and iron work and modelling for the boys, and to cooking and sewing for the girls, was organised. In addition, many playgrounds were thrown open, and roof gardens, in the most crowded parts, under the superintendence of teachers who conducted kindergarten exercises, gymnastics, and games; and many swimming baths, with instructors, were also at the children's service. The organisation is only two years old, but the figures given in the table above (p. 13) show how much these facilities are appreciated.

October, 1901.

A. L. BOWLEY.

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THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM OF BOSTON.

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## THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM OF BOSTON.

### 1. CONSTITUTION AND POWERS OF THE SCHOOL COMMITTEE.\*

The school committee of Boston is composed of twenty-four members, eight of whom are elected each year by the qualified voters of the city, to serve three years. A majority of all the members chosen constitute a quorum.

The school committee is a legal corporation for the purpose of holding and administering certain trust funds, but not for other purposes.

The duty is imposed by law on the city to raise such sums of money as may be necessary for the support of the schools, which sums are assessed and collected in the same manner as other taxes. The school committee formerly presented annually to the city council, through the mayor, an estimate in detail of the amount of money needed by the schools for the ensuing year, and the council made such appropriations as they saw fit. Thus, in 1898 the committee asked for \$2,690,000, and received only \$2,470,000. But by an act of the legislature in 1898, the school committee was given power to make appropriations for itself independently of the city council, and the tax was limited to \$2.80 for the year 1899, \$2.85 for the year 1900, and \$2.90 afterwards on \$1,000 of the taxable valuation of the city.

The title to school property is vested in the city, and lawsuits concerning the same are brought in its name.

The school committee have the supervision and direction of the public schools. They may elect or discharge teachers and janitors, fix their compensation and define their duties, but the salaries established at the beginning of the year may not be increased during the year.

The school committee have full power to repair school buildings, to provide temporary accommodations for schools, to select, bond, and purchase school sites, and to determine the plans for new buildings, but they might not, according to the old law, expend, or contract to expend, any more money for these purposes than the city council had appropriated therefor, and according to the new law they must expend 25 cents per \$1,000 of the taxable valuation of the city on repairs and alterations of school buildings. They have now power to make alterations and repairs independently of the mayor, within whose province their execution was before 1899.

The school committee must elect a superintendent of schools and a board of supervisors, consisting of not more than six members.

\* From the Report of the Commissioner of Education, Washington, or 1895-96, brought up to date as far as possible.

define their duties, and fix their compensation. The superintendent and supervisors hold office for two years, but may be removed for cause by the school committee at any time. The superintendent is a member of the board of supervisors, and, when present, presides at their meetings. The votes of the majority of the whole number of members of the school committee are necessary to elect the superintendent, the supervisors, the head masters of the Latin, normal, and high schools, masters of the grammar schools, or directors of special studies.

The school committee direct what books shall be used in the public schools, and prescribe the course of studies and exercises to be pursued. It is their duty to purchase, at the expense of the city, the text books and other supplies used in the school from the lowest grade to the end of the high school course; to cause a school census to be taken annually; to cause school registers to be kept; to make annual reports to the secretary of the State Board of Education, and to enforce the compulsory attendance laws.

"The public statutes\* [of the State of Massachusetts] require every town and city to maintain for at least thirty-two weeks in the year a sufficient number of schools for the instruction of all the children who may legally attend a public school therein†. It is enacted that such schools shall be taught by teachers of competent ability and good morals, who shall give instruction in orthography, reading, writing, the English language, and grammar, geography, arithmetic, drawing, the history of the United States, physiology and hygiene, including the effect of alcoholic drinks and of stimulants and narcotics on the human system, and good behaviour. Book-keeping, algebra, geometry, one or more foreign languages, the elements of the natural sciences, kindergarten training, manual training, agriculture, sewing, cooking, vocal music, physical training, civil government, ethics, and such other subjects as the school committee deem expedient, may be taught in the public schools."

## 2. THE MOVEMENT FOR REFORM.

There has been in recent years a strong movement in Boston towards the reform of the school system. A committee of fifteen, who had thoroughly considered the needs of the city, framed a Bill which was presented in 1898 to the Massachusetts Legislature. The chief features are summarised as follows:— "The school board is hereafter to consist of twelve persons. Three are to be elected each year, by the voters, for a three-year term, and one is to be appointed by the mayor for a similar term. This school board is to have general charge of the schools, and is to elect a superintendent of schools and a business agent. It is also to organise a school

\* From the *Educational Review* (New York), Dec., 1898.

† The lower limit of age at Boston is 3½ years.

‡ The following is from the *Educational Review* (New York), March, 1898.



faculty and appoint visitors. Up to an amount equal to one-third of one per cent. of the total assessed valuation of the city the school board may fix the amount to be raised and spent for school purposes in any one year. With the consent of the city council it may exceed such limitation.

"The superintendent is to hold office during good behaviour and efficiency, but may be removed by a two-thirds vote of the members of the school board. The appointment, promotion, and dismissal of teachers are vested in the superintendent. His action in these matters is final, unless vetoed by a three-fourths vote of the board. The superintendent shall also, after consultation with inspectors and school faculty, determine all courses of study, and choose all text-books and other apparatus of teaching. The inspectors are to be nominated by the superintendent, subject to confirmation by the board, and are to serve for a three-year term. They are to be assistants to the superintendent. Examinations of teachers are in their charge, subject to the superintendent's direction.

"A novel feature, borrowed from France, and urged upon American school boards by several of the persons consulted by the Committee of Fifteen, is the school faculty. This is an advisory body only, but, if constituted, it is sure to become a most influential one. The school faculty is to be made up of the superintendent, the inspectors, and of not less than thirty more members, who shall be elected by the teachers of the school from their own numbers."

"For Boston the bill would bring about an absolute revolution. The superintendent of schools would cease to be a dignified figure-head, and become an almost unequalled educational power. The management of minute details by the school committee would come to an end, and the modern administrative device of concentrating power and responsibility would be fully and frankly adopted."

This bill did not pass the legislature, but under the powers given them by the statutes the school committee of Boston in 1898 altered the duties and powers of the superintendent, giving the superintendent extensive powers in the appointment of teachers. The non-re-election of Mr. Seaver, the superintendent for some years past, in June, 1900, may, however, point to a reactionary policy. The chief criticisms directed against the old system were on the grounds that the school committee was too large for efficiency, was divided into too many departmental committees, which interfered with the executive, that it took authority and responsibility out of the hands of its executive officers, appointed its teachers on partisan lines, with little attention to merit, and was greatly influenced by the publishers in the selection of text-books.\*

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\* See the *Educational Review* (New York), Sept., 1897, pp. 107 et seq.

### 3. THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS AND THE APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS.

A superintendent of schools and six supervisors are elected biennially; the former is the executive officer of the school board in all matters relating to instruction; he assigns their duties to the supervisors, and may delegate his authority to them. "He shall, after consultation with members of the board of supervisors, and subject to the approval of the board, appoint, transfer, and remove all directors, principals, and other instructors; *provided* that, in the case of subordinate instructors, he shall also consult the principal of the school, if any, to which the action relates, and with the appropriate director, if the action relates to his department; *provided*, that all such appointments, transfers and removals shall be approved by the committee in charge before being presented to the board."\* In 1898 the superintendent constructed a merit list of teachers, based on their scholastic record and teaching ability and experience. When a vacancy occurred the names of the three candidates highest on the merit list were submitted to the principal of the school concerned. He chose one, who was recommended by the superintendent to the board. The candidate so recommended was appointed in all cases but one in the year 1899-00. This method of appointment was not in June, 1900, as yet adopted in the form of binding rules.

The superintendent reports on all changes in courses of study, and on all changes in the regulations before they are acted on by the board. He is present at the board meetings, and has the right to take part in debate.

The introduction or change of text-books is reported on both by the board of supervisors and the committee on courses of study and text-books before it is approved by the board. A change requires a two-thirds vote of the board.

### 4. THE PUBLIC DAY SCHOOLS: STATISTICS OF AGE AND ATTENDANCE.

The public school system of Boston comprised, in June, 1899, "one normal school, two Latin schools (one for boys and one for girls), eight high schools, the mechanic arts high school, fifty-seven grammar schools, five hundred and seventy primary classes,† a special class, sixty-nine kindergartens, one school for the deaf, an evening high school, and twelve evening elementary schools, five evening drawing schools, a special school on Spectacle Island, twenty-seven manual training schools, and twenty-two schools of cookery."‡

In Boston the grammar schools are in buildings separate from the primary schools, and there is the peculiarity that the primary schools have only three grades, while the grammar schools have six. The following table, which is reproduced as giving an adequate bird's eye view of the whole system, shows that a common course

\* Rules of the School Committee, 1900.

† In fifty-seven schools.

‡ Report of the School Committee of the City of Boston for 1898-99.

The Public School System of Boston.

DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS IN RESPECT BOTH TO AGE AND TO GRADES, JANUARY 31ST, 1900, IN THE BOSTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS.\*

Grades.	Under 4 yrs.	4 yrs.	5 yrs.	6 yrs.	7 yrs.	8 yrs.	9 yrs.	10 yrs.	11 yrs.	12 yrs.	13 yrs.	14 yrs.	15 yrs.	16 yrs.	17 yrs.	18 yrs.	19 yrs. & over	Totals by Grades.	Per-centage.		
																				Boys	Girls
<b>Latin Schools.</b>																					
All Grades - - -									14	87	81	80	131	112	98	82	19	618			
Totals - - - - -									5	13	31	58	78	65	52	36	16	368			
<b>High Schools.</b>																					
Advanced Class - -														6	27	94	39	100			
Third Year Class - -														18	77	131	102	87			
Second Year Class -														34	108	165	116	84			
First Year Class - -														1	26	133	131	60			
Totals - - - - -														61	172	338	253	97			
<b>Grammar Schools.</b>																					
Ninth Grade - - - -									2	30	30	323	540	456	108	32	4	1,040			
Eighth Grade - - -									8	77	353	682	586	259	45	4		1,994			
Seventh Grade - - -									3	78	370	784	701	371	93	18	5	2,368			
Sixth Grade - - - -									5	71	390	784	721	363	87	17	3	2,401			
Fifth Grade - - - -									5	94	443	870	870	588	171	37	6	3,148			
Fourth Grade - - -									3	72	442	849	896	470	161	20	8	3,522			
Ungraded - - - - -									64	421	908	991	691	319	65	4	1	3,468			
Totals - - - - -									88	494	1,019	977	627	543	68	10	5	3,690			
<b>Primary Schools.</b>																					
Third Grade - - - -									2	49	481	1,111	1,083	710	383	180	39	5	3,978		
Second Grade - - -									1	39	490	1,070	1,009	609	281	84	14	3	3,569		
First Grade - - - -									18	811	1,216	1,134	616	336	137	61	24	5	4,108		
Ungraded - - - - -									24	577	1,250	1,075	688	310	110	42	6	1	3,809		
Totals - - - - -									12	44	167	272	299	270	209	121	32	4	1,432		
<b>Kindergarten.</b>									7	41	118	176	212	165	124	61	16	0	932		
<b>Totals - - - - -</b>									<b>64</b>	<b>1,369</b>	<b>3,886</b>	<b>5,989</b>	<b>6,732</b>	<b>6,923</b>	<b>4,701</b>	<b>3,361</b>	<b>729</b>	<b>148</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>39,339</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Primary Schools.</b>																					
Third Grade - - - -									22	641	1,623	1,133	633	135	29	11			4,177		
Second Grade - - -									32	663	1,523	1,155	438	131	32	16			3,986		
First Grade - - - -									16	968	2,145	1,844	693	143	43	9	6		5,237		
Totals - - - - -									57	2,830	2,945	1,514	384	132	32	9	4	8	7,188		
<b>Kindergarten.</b>									18	1,928	2,651	1,137	324	86	31	7	5	2	1,180		
<b>Totals - - - - -</b>									<b>46</b>	<b>4,253</b>	<b>7,457</b>	<b>6,436</b>	<b>3,558</b>	<b>1,327</b>	<b>362</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>31,458</b>	<b>89.9</b>	
<b>All Classes.</b>																					
All Grades - - - -	198	1,007	721	88	4															2,108	
Totals - - - - -	429	2,146	1,460	172	8															4,205	
<b>Totals by Ages -</b>	<b>429</b>	<b>2,141</b>	<b>5,793</b>	<b>7,669</b>	<b>7,685</b>	<b>7,697</b>	<b>7,444</b>	<b>7,316</b>	<b>7,103</b>	<b>7,058</b>	<b>6,798</b>	<b>6,360</b>	<b>3,611</b>	<b>3,095</b>	<b>1,231</b>	<b>602</b>	<b>279</b>	<b>80,393</b>	<b>100</b>		
<b>Percentages by Ages</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>7.1</b>	<b>9.5</b>	<b>9.3</b>	<b>9.6</b>	<b>9.6</b>	<b>9.1</b>	<b>8.9</b>	<b>9.2</b>	<b>8.2</b>	<b>6.9</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>3.6</b>	<b>1.6</b>	<b>.8</b>	<b>.3</b>				

\* From the 80th Annual Report of the Superintendent of the Public Schools of the City of Boston, March, 1900, pp. 78a.

for a child would be to spend his time from four to six years old in the kindergarten, the next three years would be spent in successive grades in the primary school; entering the grammar school at nine, he would spend six or seven years in the grades from the fourth to the ninth. Entering the high school when fifteen or sixteen years old, he would pass through its four years' course by the time he was nineteen or twenty. On the other hand, he might be at the Latin school from the time he was eleven years old.

In September, 1899, there were in Boston 86,505 children between the ages of five and fifteen, of whom 66,221 were reported as attending public schools, and 13,515 as attending private schools.

The law of Massachusetts requires every child between seven and fourteen years of age to attend school. In 1899 the committee reports that "the number of children in the whole city who failed to comply with the school attendance law is very small, probably not more than one per cent. of those to whom the law applies." The following figures show the regularity of attendance:—

	Average Number of Pupils belonging.	Average Attendance.
Normal School - - - -	261	245
Latin and High Schools - - - -	5,615	5,327
Grammar Schools - - - -	39,419	36,549
Primary Schools - - - -	30,851	27,363
Kindergartens - - - -	4,163	3,179
<b>Totals - - - -</b>	<b>80,309</b>	<b>72,654</b>
Evening Schools - - - -	6,256	4,413
Special Schools - - - -	154	135

The method of deciding what pupils belong to a school varies greatly from city to city in the United States, and this makes comparisons very difficult. In Boston no pupil's name is omitted from the list of those belonging to a school till it is known that the pupil is definitely withdrawn, or until ten consecutive days of absence have been recorded. The figures of enrolment, membership, and attendance refer in different reports, and even in different parts of the same reports, to different dates and schools, and have different meanings, so that it is useless to give them.

##### 5. THE KINDERGARTENS.

The kindergartens admit children at three and a-half years old. A child may be promoted to a primary school as soon as the principal of the district thinks him qualified. Few stay after they are six years old. There has been a gap between the kindergarten and the first grade work, for the teachers of the first grade, which of course contains a great majority of children who have not

been to a kindergarten, have not been able to carry on the course ; but an effort is being made to encourage the primary teachers to learn kindergarten methods, and it is hoped that the gap will in time be closed. It is claimed that the kindergarten pupils have become familiar with school routine before entering the primary school, and make more rapid progress than others, so that, under favourable circumstances, they are able to complete the primary course in two years instead of three. There were 143 teachers in the kindergartens in January, 1900. They are expected to devote their afternoons regularly to visiting the families of their districts to interest the parents in the work.

6. THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS AND THE GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

Girls and boys are educated together in the primary schools, but go to separate grammar schools. The primary schools are often small, the average number of teachers being ten, and of pupils 540. There are fifty-seven schools, but in the summary accounts they are generally given as 574 classes.

The weekly time-table of work in the primary schools in 1890 was—

	Grade I.	Grade II.	Grade III.
	Hours.	Hours.	Hours.
Moral Training - - - - -	½	½	½
Physical Training - - - - -	1	1½	1½
Recesses - - - - -	2½	2½	2½
Observation Lessons and Manual Training.	3	3	3
Drawing - - - - -	1½	1½	1½
Music - - - - -	1	1	1
Languages - - - - -	13	11½	11½
Arithmetic - - - - -	2½	3½	3½
Total - - - - -	25	25	25

Hours 9 to 12 a.m., with recess of 20 minutes ; 2 to 4 p.m., with recess of 10 minutes on 5 days per week.

The course of study was revised in 1900, in the direction of giving more time to exercises that train the observing powers, and less to the formal exercises that engage chiefly the memory ; but the details of this or other possible changes since 1890 are not given in the report.

Promotions from grade to grade are made regularly twice a year, but an individual may be promoted at any time.

Pupils under seven years of age are excused attendance in the afternoon on written request of their parents.

Promotions to the grammar schools are made from the third grade of the primary schools annually ; but in addition some pupils are promoted in February, and individuals may be sent up at any time.

The superintendent desires to reduce the work of the grammar school from six grades (fourth to ninth) to five, and expects that the same work might be done by re-arrangement in five years, thus allowing the pupils to proceed to a high school at an earlier age. Even under the present system many students graduate (pass the ninth grade) before they have had the thirty weeks' education after they have completed their thirteenth year, which the law requires. There is some hardship on a boy who has graduated, but is obliged to wait without employment through the summer till he has completed his nominal term. No child under thirteen years may be employed in any factory, workshop, or mercantile establishment; from thirteen to fourteen years he may be employed under certain stringent limitations. A study of the table given on p. 327, however, shows that it is exceptional for such rapid progress to be made, that the work of a grade often occupies more than a year, and that there is a rapid falling off in number after the sixth grade. On the other hand, the last line on the table shows that attendance is well maintained between the thirteenth and fourteenth birthdays, and that the remarkable proportion of one-sixth on the whole school population is over fourteen. The numbers in the higher grades, and at the ages above the limits of compulsion, have been steadily growing in recent years.

In the report for 1898-99, the committee speak of the improvement of *morale* in the grammar schools, and of their generally satisfactory condition. We may notice that the girls remain at school a little longer than the boys, but that the numbers of the sexes in each grade from the third to the eighth are nearly equal.

The weekly time-table of work in the grammar schools in 1891 was:—

	Grade IV.	Grade V.	Grade VI.	Grade VII.	Grade VIII.	Grade IX.
Moral Training -	Hour. $\frac{1}{2}$	Hour. $\frac{1}{2}$	Hour. $\frac{1}{2}$	Hour. $\frac{1}{2}$	Hour. $\frac{1}{2}$	Hour. $\frac{1}{2}$
Physical Training -	Minutes. 70	Minutes. 70	Minutes. 70	Minutes. 70	Minutes. 70	Minutes. 70
Recess -	50	50	50	50	50	50
Elementary Science -	Hours. $1\frac{1}{2}$	Hours. $1\frac{1}{2}$	Hours. $1\frac{1}{2}$	Hours. $1\frac{1}{2}$	Hours. $1\frac{1}{2}$	Hours. $1\frac{1}{2}$
Manual Training*	2	2	2	2	2	2
Drawing -	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Music -	1	1	1	1	1	1
Language -	10	10	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	—	—
Language and Grammar -	—	—	—	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	8	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Geography -	2	2	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	†
History -	†	†	†	2	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3
Arithmetic -	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Book-keeping -	—	—	—	—	—	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Total -	25	25	25	25	25	25

\* The girls learn sewing and cookery until they are proficient. The other subjects are Carpentry, Modelling, etc.

† These subjects are done in the reading lessons or by supplementary reading.

The hours are from nine to twelve a.m., with ten minutes' recess, and from two to four p.m.

No home-work may be set to pupils below the seventh grade, and that set to the upper grades should not require more than one hour's study.

All the public schools are inspected by medical officers every morning, and cases of illness and infection are promptly dealt with.

#### 7. THE HIGH SCHOOLS.

Graduates from the grammar schools are admitted to the high schools without examination; others must pass an examination equivalent to that for graduation. Pupils are not as a rule admitted under thirteen years of age. The general course of study is for three years, but there is also an advanced course. The law of Massachusetts compels every town or city of 500 families to maintain a high school with a four years' course.

The course of study in 1891 was :—

FIRST YEAR : English language and literature, four hours a week till March 1st, then one hour.

Ancient history, two hours.

One foreign language : French, German, or Latin : four or five hours a week.

Algebra, five or four hours a week till March 1st, then one hour less.

Botany, four hours from March 1st.

Singing, one hour ; drawing, two hours ; physical training, two hours (including drill for boys).

SECOND YEAR : English, three hours ; mediæval history, two hours ; a foreign language, three or four hours ; Algebra and geometry, three or four hours ; zoology and hygiene (or book-keeping), three hours ; singing, one hour ; drawing, two hours ; physical training, two hours.

THIRD YEAR : English, three hours ; modern history, three hours ; foreign language or phonography, three hours ; mathematics, two hours ; physics, three hours ; chemistry (or drawing), three hours ; singing, one hour ; physical training, two hours.

FOURTH YEAR : English, three hours ; singing, one hour ; gymnastics, two hours ; and twelve hours at subjects selected from a list of languages, sciences, and mathematics.

Hours, 9 a.m. to 2 p.m. five days a week. The students go to twenty "exercises" weekly, each of about fifty minutes, and have about four hours for study. They have not more than twelve hours' home-work.

The superintendent of schools, in his annual report for 1900, expresses a wish for an entire reconstruction of the course of study, which should consist simply of a list of subjects from which the student might select which he pleased; while proficiency should be examined, and certificates and diplomas awarded each year.

It is to be noticed that the girls outnumber the boys throughout the high schools; the balance is partly restored in the Latin schools. In the Latin and high schools together there were 2,557 boys, and 2,854 girls in January, 1900.

#### 8. THE LATIN SCHOOLS.

Graduates from the grammar schools are admitted to the Latin schools without examination. Others must pass an examination equivalent to that for admission to the seventh grade at the grammar schools. No pupil is received under eleven years of age. Candidates for admission must present a written statement, from parents or guardians, of their intention to give such candidates a collegiate education. There are two Latin schools, one for boys and one for girls.

The course is intended to last six years. The following was the scheme of work in 1891 (abridged).—

	1st Year.	2nd Year.	3rd Year.	4th Year.	5th Year.	6th Year.
	Hours.	Hours.	Hours.	Hours.	Hours.	Hours.
English -	6	6	5	4	4	2
Latin -	5	5	5	4	4	4
Greek -	—	—	—	5	5	4½
French or German -	—	—	3½	2	2	—
Mathematics	Arithmetic 4 Geometry ½	Arithmetic 3½ Geometry ½	Algebra 4	Algebra 3	Algebra and Geometry 3	Geometry 4
Science -	Physiology ½	Hygiene ½	Astronomy and Physical geography ½	—	—	Physics 2½
History -	under English Reading		—	—	—	—
Geography -	2	2½	—	—	—	—
Physical training and Singing	2	2	2	2	2	2
Total -	20	20	20	20	20	20

Certain rearrangements of the work are allowed to suit particular requirements.

#### 9. THE NORMAL SCHOOL: STATISTICS OF TEACHERS.

"The Boston Normal School is established for the purpose of giving professional instruction to the young women who intend to become teachers in the public schools of Boston. The course of study in this school shall be for two years." Candidates for admission



must be eighteen years old ; they must be recommended for admission by the master of the last school they attended ; no examination is required from those who have completed the fourth year of the high school course, or who are qualified by some approved college or university. Special arrangements are made for those who take a kindergarten course, or who wish to specialise in a particular department. An effort has been made to include many of such subjects as drawing, music, gymnastics, cooking, sewing, wood-working, in the work of the regular teachers ; but the tendency is to give them to special departmental instructors, who should, it is said, receive an extra year's training at the normal school.

About sixty per cent. of the teachers in the Boston public schools are appointed from the normal school ; but the school was, like that of St. Louis, in 1899 and 1900, turning out graduates far in excess of the demand, and much disappointment and friction ensued.

The following table shows the number of teachers and the average number of pupils to each class :—

Teachers in Boston Public Schools, January 31st, 1900.

General Schools.	No. of Schools.	No. of Regular Teachers.			Aver. No. of pupils per Teacher approximately.
		Men.	Women.	Total.	
Normal - - - -	1	1	9	10	26
Latin - - - -	2	84	94	34	30
High - - - -	9			144	34
Grammar - - - -	57	125	703	828	51
Primary - - - -	57	—	574	574	54
Kindergartens - - - -	73	—	143	143	29
<b>Total - - - -</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>210</b>	<b>1,523</b>	<b>1,733</b>	<b>—</b>
Horace Mann (School for the deaf) - - - -	1	—	—	13	9
Spectacle Island - - - -	1	—	—	1	18
Special Classes - - - -	2	—	—	2	10
Special Teachers - - - -	—	22	100	122	—
Evening Class Teachers* - - - -	—	—	—	321	—

\* Some of these may be day teachers also.

In 1898-99 the numbers and total salaries were :—

Normal, Latin and High Schools ... ..	185	\$ 355,330
Grammar Schools ... ..	818	910,590
Primary ... ..	570	455,180
Kindergartens ... ..	137	86,780

The teachers of the Boston schools have had considerable experience and tenure of office. One-quarter only had less than nine years' experience in Boston or elsewhere, one-half less than fifteen, three-quarters less than twenty-five ; two and a-half per cent. had more than forty years.

## 10. THE EVENING SCHOOLS.

The evening high school was established in 1869, and, except for a short interval, has continued ever since. In 1900 there was an average attendance of 1,465 students at the central school, and of 322 at the branches. Students must have a preliminary knowledge of reading, writing, arithmetic and geography.

The elementary evening school had an average attendance of 2,171 students, making sixty-five per cent. of the membership.

The average attendance at the evening drawing school was 455.

No day-school student, unless by express permission, and no student under fourteen years, is admitted to any of the evening schools.

By the law of Massachusetts a city of more than 50,000 inhabitants must provide an evening school if fifty competent students make a request for one.

## 11. EXPENDITURE.

The expenditure of the school committee in 1898-99 was \$2,675,970. The chief items were:—

	\$
Salaries of Instructors ... ..	1,963,255
" Officers ... ..	70,645
" Janitors ... ..	147,777
Fuel, Gas, Water ... ..	102,936
Supplies: Books ... ..	54,326
" Stationery and Drawing Materials ... ..	23,411
" Others ... ..	60,597
School House Repairs, etc. ... ..	249,974

The cost per pupil in different schools was:—

	\$
Normal, Latin and High Schools ... ..	85.40
Grammar Schools ... ..	32.65
Primary Schools ... ..	23.31
Kindergartens ... ..	28.93

## 12. MISCELLANEOUS.

There is practically no information to hand with reference to the 13,500 children attending private schools, or to the Spectacle Island School. The Horace Mann School for the Deaf is reported as doing excellent work. The Parental School, to which 183 truants were committed in 1899, is not under the control of the school committee. Children are sentenced to it for fixed periods, but sometimes released before the end of their time on security of good behaviour. The superintendent of schools is in close communication with the parental school.

## AUTHORITIES:

Reports of the School Committee of Boston, 1897, 1898, 1899.  
Report of the Superintendent, 1900.  
Rules of the School Committee, 1895 and 1900.  
School Documents, Nos. 8, 14, 15, 16 of 1891 (courses of study) and others referred to in foot-notes.

October, 1901.

A. L. BOWLEY.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM OF ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI.

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## THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM OF ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI.

### 1. ORGANISATION OF THE BOARD.

The present organisation and government of the school system of St. Louis is based on an Act of the General Assembly of the State of Missouri, dated March 23rd, 1897.

Every city in the State of Missouri of more than 300,000 inhabitants constitutes a single school district, and is a body corporate; the supervision and government of public schools and public school property is vested in a board of twelve members, and in a Superintendent of Instruction and a Commissioner of School Buildings. The Board has power to levy taxes authorised by law, and "to purchase and hold all property real and personal deemed by it necessary for the purposes of public education or for the investment of the public school funds, to build and construct improvements for such purposes, and to sell the same."

The Board is elected from the city at large "on a general ticket." The term of office of the members is six years; they retire in rotation, four every alternate year. Vacancies are filled by appointment of the Mayor till the next election.

The constitution of the State of Missouri provides that the Board of Education may impose a tax of 40 cents per 100 dollars on all taxable real and personal property of the city; but it also provides that the rate may be increased to an amount not exceeding 100 cents, if the voters who are taxpayers vote favourably to that effect at a special election. In the Report of the St. Louis Board for the year 1899-1900, the President expresses a strong desire to increase the tax from 40 cents, at which it stood, to 60 cents, to make certain specified reforms and improvements. But no formal action had been taken up to November 30th, 1900.

The Board is divided into four Standing Committees, each of three members, on instruction, on school buildings, on finance, and on auditing and supplies; the President is an ex-officio member of all. Their duties are supervisory, not executive. They receive reports from and consult with the administrative officers of the Department under their charge, and submit reports to the general Board of Education.

The Board appoints a superintendent of instruction, a commissioner of buildings, a secretary and treasurer, and an auditor, each for four years; their salaries may not be reduced during their

term of office. The first appears to be removable for good cause by a simple majority, the others by a two-thirds majority of the entire Board.\*

### 2. THE SUPERINTENDENT OF INSTRUCTION.

The superintendent of instruction nominates three assistant superintendents. He has "general supervision, subject to the control of the Board, of the course of instruction, discipline and conduct of the schools, text-books, and studies, and all appointments, promotions, and transfers of teachers; and introduction and changes of text-books and apparatus shall be made only upon the recommendation of the superintendent, and the approval of the Board. The superintendent shall have power to suspend any teacher for cause deemed by him sufficient, and the Board of Education shall take such action upon the restoration or removal of such teacher as it may deem proper." He is expected to be familiar with the general progress of education in other places, and to suggest from time to time schemes for the improvement of the city. It is his duty to make recommendations for the extension of the school buildings when necessary. He has large powers in the appointment of teachers; he conducts the examinations, in conjunction with a committee of the assistant superintendents, principals of the high schools, and other teachers whom he may select; the examiners report to the superintendent, who prepares a list of teachers recommended by him, and presents it annually to the committee of instruction.

### 3. THE RECENT CHANGE IN ORGANISATION.

The present organisation differs from that obtaining in 1895-6 chiefly in the reduced number of members of the Board and their longer term of office; and in the greater powers of the superintendent of schools and of the other departmental officers. Before the change the Board consisted of twenty-one members, fourteen of whom were from special districts, and their term of office was four years, and they were charged with the examination, certification, and appointment of the teachers.

The President of the Board of 1899-1900, commenting on the change, writes that "The new charter, under which the Board was organised in May, 1897, continues to vindicate the wisdom of those who framed it. In the judgment of the present Board it has helped to secure efficiency in all branches of service by requiring the Board and its officers to recognise merit as the only valid claim to employment, and by conferring upon the officers a degree of freedom and a measure of authority somewhat in

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\* Seven members of the Board constitute a quorum. If only five are present, they may cause other members to be brought in and retained under arrest. A member absent for three consecutive meetings without satisfactory reasons is deemed to have vacated his seat.

proportion to their responsibilities. The members of the Board are now relieved of many petty burdens, which under the old charter they could not easily escape, yet could not successfully carry. Under the present law all technical matters, whether in the department of instruction or the department of construction, are in the hands of professional experts. Experience shows that the members of the Board still have responsibilities numerous enough and weighty enough to tax the time and temper of public-spirited men."

4. STATISTICS OF ENROLMENT AND ATTENDANCE.

The schools in St. Louis under the control of the Board are the kindergarten schools, the district schools, the high schools, and the evening schools.

The following table shows the numbers in each :—

1900—Population of St. Louis	- - - - -	575,238
1898-9—Population of "school age," viz., 6 to 20 years:		
White, 151,989; Coloured, 7,989—total	- - - - -	159,978
KINDERGARTEN:		
Enrolled in	- - - - -	10,099
Belonging to*	- - - - -	6,283
Average daily attendance at	- - - - -	5,504
DISTRICT SCHOOLS:		
Enrolled in—White	- - - - -	70,468
Coloured	- - - - -	5,552
Total	- - - - -	76,020
Belonging to	- - - - -	59,769
HIGH SCHOOL (White):		
Enrolled in, Boys, 724; Girls, 1,269—total	- - - - -	1,993
Belonging to*	- - - - -	1,551
Average daily attendance at	- - - - -	1,508
NORMAL AND HIGH SCHOOL (Coloured):		
Enrolled in, Boys, 68; Girls, 182—total	- - - - -	250
Belonging to*	- - - - -	194
Average daily attendance at	- - - - -	185
EVENING SCHOOLS:		
Enrolment, Boys, 2,007; Girls, 403—total	- - - - -	2,410
Total enrolment in Public Day Schools	- - - - -	78,263
Average number belonging to Public Day Schools	- - - - -	61,514
Total enrolment in the Public Schools, including Kindergartens	- - - - -	90,772
Estimated enrolment in Private and Parochial Schools	- - - - -	26,000

There is co-education of the sexes throughout.

\* Every child who attends school at all during the course of the year is enrolled; but those who are absent for as much as three days are struck off the roll; the remainder on the roll on any day is the number "belonging to" the school on that day. See p. 328 above in the report on the Public School System of Boston.

## 5. STATISTICS OF GRADE AND AGE, ETC.

The State of Missouri has decreed that free schools shall be established and maintained for the gratuitous instruction of all persons in the State between the ages of six and twenty years. But few people attend school for the whole period of fourteen years. Many children leave at twelve years, and only a minority go on to the high schools.

In the full course of education provided, a child would go to the kindergarten when six years old for one year, and then pass through the eight grades of the district school. Leaving the district school when fifteen, he or she would go through the four years' course at the high school. The thirteen years are practically divided into four periods: one year at the kindergarten, the first four years at the district schools, the second four years at the district schools in the "grammar school" grades, and the four years at the high school.

NUMBER BELONGING AT END OF SCHOOL YEAR TO THE VARIOUS GRADES, 1899-00.

—	White.	Coloured.	Together.
High School:			
Senior - - - - -	200	—	
Third - - - - -	288	—	
Second - - - - -	344	—	
First - - - - -	693	—	
Total - - - - -	1,525	185	1,710
District Schools:			
Eighth grade - - - - -	1,365	117	
Seventh - - - - -	2,169	99	
Sixth - - - - -	2,995	136	
Fifth - - - - -	5,484	286	
Total, upper four grades -	12,013	638	12,651
Fourth - - - - -	8,456	517	
Third - - - - -	9,267	647	
Second - - - - -	10,083	549	
First - - - - -	7,459	482	
Total, lower four grades -	35,265	2,195	37,460
Kindergarten - - - - -	5,697	363	6,060
	54,500	3,381	57,881

The above table shows the number belonging to the schools in different grades; the number at different ages is closely related.

The following table shows very clearly the number of children by age and grade in the district schools in November, 1899 :

Age between	Kindergarten.	Grades								Total pupils of each age.
		I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	
6 & 7	6,876	911	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	7,294
7 8	492	7,439	1,013	40	—	—	—	—	—	3,084
8 9	12	3,295	3,886	637	36	—	—	—	—	7,006
9 10	—	1,129	3,436	2,712	637	—	—	—	—	7,841
10 11	—	363	1,671	2,988	3,094	262	—	—	—	7,404
11 12	—	122	588	1,314	2,759	1,025	201	34	1	6,541
12 13	—	77	273	840	2,170	1,003	473	234	23	5,905
13 14	—	19	72	357	1,127	1,278	1,001	555	160	4,566
14 15	—	5	30	104	336	678	739	677	423	2,904
15 16	—	2	17	24	118	169	310	472	437	1,530
16 17	—	—	4	10	15	36	60	133	158	403
17 18	—	—	—	2	6	2	18	24	41	88
18 19	—	—	—	4	—	1	1	6	5	18
19 20	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
20 21	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	4	6
Total - Average age -	6,880 6y 7m	12,337 8y	11,070 8y 1m	9,568 10y 7m	9,240 11y 10m	5,015 12y 10m	3,045 13y 8m	2,133 14y 4m	1,206 14y 10m	61,550 10y 1m

The figures in heavy type show the number of those who are in the grade corresponding to their age, if they entered between six and seven, and moved one grade a year.

The two chief facts shown by this table are the retardation in promotion, and the great diminution in numbers before the school course has been carried far.

Every effort is now made to diminish this retardation. Promotion is not made only at the end of the year. So large are the schools that almost every quarter of a grade is represented by a class, and children can at once find their exact level, and be promoted from grade to grade as soon as they are ready. This "short interval" system has been a special feature of St. Louis education for many years.\*

The falling off in numbers as age increases is the subject of a careful analysis in the President's Report. He finds that there has been a great improvement in attendance in the third and fourth grades since 1879, but that there is still a very rapid falling off after the fourth grade. He traces the causes to the absence of a truancy law, to "a lack of interest on the part of the pupils and, secondly, a lack on the part of the parents of a just appreciation of the education now offered, and a dissatisfaction that we do not offer instruction and training of a more practical character." As a contributory cause, there is the fact that books are free in the first four grades, but that a complete set at a cost of 3 dollars 25 cents must be bought for the fifth grade. The remedies are to furnish free books through all the grades, to provide constructive work

\* See Report of the Commissioner of Education (Washington) for 1898-99, p. 303, for a detailed description.



and domestic science in the higher grades, to make this training lead on naturally to the high school work, and to increase the number of high schools and build manual training schools. It is to accomplish these objects that the President recommends that the school tax be increased from 40 cents to 60 cents per 100 dollars.

The superintendent, however, in his report notices with pleasure that there was an improvement between June, 1899, and June, 1900, in the number in the fifth grade. "The increase in this grade deserves special attention, because the fifth grade has always been looked upon as a critical age in regard to withdrawals from school. There has always been a strong decrease in number in the fifth grade. The lessons at that time become more difficult. The cost of books which the child is required to purchase is considerable; the child has arrived at the age when he can find employment in store or factory. The matter of early withdrawal from school was fully discussed in last year's report, and was subsequently explained to principals and teachers at their meetings. An appeal was made to them for a strong effort in the direction of inducing children to remain in school during the whole of the grammar school course." Further on it is remarked that the increase in the fifth grade is chiefly due to the efforts of the teachers to secure more rapid promotion from grade to grade.

The Board of Education maintained in 1899-1900, in connection with the district schools, three manual training schools—two for white, one for coloured pupils. The average daily attendance was—

	Manual training.	Domestic science.
White - - - -	493	647
Coloured - - - -	91	249

The manual training for boys includes mechanical drawing and wood-work. The domestic science for girls includes sewing, cooking, and sanitation.

These classes were attended by the seventh and eighth grades of the neighbouring district schools once a week.

Drawing is also taught, apparently through all the grades, three times a week in lessons of twenty to thirty minutes.

There is an elaborate system of providing the schools with sets of books from the public libraries for supplementary reading.\*

Apart from the payment for books in the higher grades, the schools are free to children of residents in the city; children whose parents live in the State of Missouri outside of St. Louis may be admitted—if there is room—to the elementary schools at 20 dollars, or to the high school at 50 dollars per annum. Children, whose parents live outside the State of Missouri, are not admissible, even though they may be living with relatives, unless they are orphans or bound as apprentices.

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\* For the course of study, see under Evening Schools.

6. THE KINDEGARTEN.

The first public kindergarten was established in 1873, through the efforts of Miss Susannah Blow. By the law children cannot enter them till they are six years old. The kindergartens are generally attached to schools, and an interesting table is given showing that the kindergarten children, though entering the first grade at a higher age than others, rapidly pass them.

AVERAGE AGE BY GRADES IN TWO CLASSES OF SCHOOLS.

	GRADES.									
	Kinder- garten.		I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.
White Schools	y.	m.	y. m.	y. m.	y. m.	y. m.	y. m.	y. m.	y. m.	y. m.
Having Kindergartens-	6	7	8 0	9 3	10 7	11 2	12 9	13 7	14 6	15 1
Without Kindergartens	—	—	7 6	8 0	10 2	11 5	12 8	14 0	15 1	16 6

The coloured schools show a similar result.

7. THE HIGH SCHOOL—THE COLOURED NORMAL AND HIGH SCHOOL.

“St. Louis has a smaller high school enrolment than any other large city in the country. This is probably owing to the abnormal fact that we have only one high school for white pupils in the city.”

Pupils, who were formerly admitted by examination, are now admitted on a satisfactory report from the principals of the grammar schools they have passed through. This change is to prevent the unnecessary nervous strain of an entrance examination, and the consequent cramming in the last year of grammar school education.

The following is the general statement of the high school courses of study :—

*General Courses.*

First Year.—English, Algebra, Biology (Botany and Physiology), Latin or German.

Second Year.—English, Geometry, Physics, Latin or German.

Third Year.—English, History, Chemistry, Physics, and two languages (Latin, German, French, or Spanish).

Fourth Year.—English, History, Psychology and Ethics or Chemistry; two languages, Shakespeare.

*Art Course.*

First and Second Years.—English, Geometry, Physics, Drawing and History of Art.

Third Year.—English, History, Physics, Chemistry, Drawing and History of Art, German or French or Spanish.

Fourth Year.—English, History, Latin, one foreign language, Trigonometry, Chemistry, Shakespeare.

*Scientific Course.*

First Year.—English, Algebra, Biology (Botany and Physiology), Latin.

Second Year.—English, Geometry, Physics, Latin.

Third Year.—English, Algebra, Geometry, Chemistry, Physics, Latin, and one modern language.

Fourth Year.—English, History, Latin, one modern language, Trigonometry, Chemistry, Shakespeare.

*Greek Course.*

First Year.—English, Algebra, Biology (Botany and Physiology), Latin.

Second Year.—English, Geometry, Greek, Latin.

Third Year.—English, History, Latin, Greek, one modern language.

Fourth Year.—English, History (half year), Shakespeare (half year), Physics, Latin, Greek, one modern language.

*Commercial Course.*

First Year.—English, Algebra, Biology (Botany and Physiology), Latin or German, or Drawing and History of Art, Penmanship.

Second Year.—English, Geometry, Latin or German, or Drawing and History of Art, Arithmetic and Book-keeping.

Third Year.—English, Latin or a modern language, Chemistry, Physics, Book-keeping and Commercial Law, Phonography.

Fourth Year.—English, History, Latin or a modern language, Civics and Economics, Chemistry or Psychology and Ethics, Phonography, Shakespeare.

*College Courses.*

First Year.—English, Algebra, Biology (Botany and Physiology), Latin, German.

Second Year.—English, Geometry, Latin, Physics or Greek.

Third Year.—English, Latin, Algebra, Geometry, Greek or Chemistry and Physics, German or French or Spanish, College Studies.

Fourth Year.—English, History, Latin, German or French or Spanish, Greek and Physics or Trigonometry and Chemistry, Shakespeare, College Studies.

All pupils take English, Literature, General History, Algebra, Geometry, Biology, and Physics, and these together make half the full course. Twenty lessons must be taken a week, one hundred lessons in one subject constitute a point, and eight points are necessary each year. This course has recently been arranged to suit it to the pupils' proved capacities.

Great attention has recently been paid to the Department of Physics, which has been brought "to a state of excellence hardly surpassed in any high school of the country."

There are two annual scholarships to Washington University, St. Louis.

The *coloured normal and high school* makes a speciality of training coloured teachers, and thus performs an important function in the public school system. It is almost entirely supplied by pupils from the grammar schools, admitted by examination. Few remain through the four years' course, though they begin early.

Enrolment in	1899.		1900.	
	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.
Junior Year - - - - -	58	23	60	27
Second Year - - - - -	33	17	46	18
Third Year - - - - -	43	16	37	7
Senior Year - - - - -	29	10	18	6
Normal Class - - - - -	23	—	31	—
	186	66	192	58
Numbers at 13 to 14 years - - - - -	-	-	-	2
Numbers at 14 to 15 years - - - - -	-	-	-	10
Numbers at 15 to 16 years - - - - -	-	-	-	42
Numbers at 16 to 17 years - - - - -	-	-	-	196
				250

Of fifty-four boys who graduated in 1885-1900, eighteen became clerks in the United States Government, five teachers, two music teachers, and six were still at college.

8. EVENING SCHOOLS.

Eight evening schools were opened during the winter of 1899-1900—six for white, two for coloured, pupils—and they had an average nightly attendance of 1,290 pupils and fifty-three teachers. 2,410 were enrolled; 609 attended more than fifty evenings, 738 less than twenty evenings. About one-quarter were from twelve to fifteen years, half from fifteen to eighteen years, one-quarter over eighteen; 250 were factory boys, 340 office boys or clerks. The chief studies are arithmetic, book-keeping, penmanship, and composition. Hitherto the instruction has not been graded, but in the future there are to be three grades, which we give in some detail, as this is the only clue the reports give to the syllabus of the work done in district schools:—

Elementary Grade.

(Corresponding to the Four Lower Grades of the District School Course.)

<p><i>English Language:</i> Reading, Dictation, Easy Compositions and Letters, Grammatical Instruction.</p>	<p><i>Arithmetic:</i> The four processes, Weights and Measures, Notation and Numeration.</p>	<p><i>General Information.—</i> <i>Geography:</i> North America, the United States, Canada, Mexico, South America, Europe, Asia, Africa, Australia. <i>U. S. History:</i> Columbus, the Cabots, Hudson, Standish, the Indians, Penn, Franklin.</p>
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*Intermediate Grade.*

(Corresponding to the Fifth and Sixth Grades of the District School Course).

*English Language:* As above, with writing of business letters, bills, etc.

*Arithmetic:* Fractions, Money, Decimals, Measurements of Area and Solids. Balancing an account.

*General Information.—*  
*Geography:* Elementary Physical Geography, Industry and Commerce, Government.

*U.S. History:* Washington, Jefferson, Fulton and the Steam-boat, Harrison, Jackson, Morse and the Telegraph, Lincoln, the Civil War, Growth of the United States.

*Grammar Grade.*

(Corresponding to the Seventh and Eighth Grades of the District School Course).

*English Language:* As above.

*Arithmetic:* Decimals, Measurement of lumber, Accounts, Percentage, Interest, Receipts, and Checks.

*General Information:* Conditions and Obligations of Citizenship, the Laws and Officials, Taxes, Institutions.

There are also to be classes for two years, corresponding to the high school course. Dr. Philbrick, in 1885, writes that "In St. Louis there has long been an evening high school which is regarded as a preparatory department of the polytechnic school of Washington University," St. Louis.

## 9. THE DEAF SCHOOL.

There is a successful deaf school, in which twenty-nine boys and fourteen girls are enrolled. The great purpose is to teach reading and speaking. The school has a small museum of common objects, which are useful for this end.

## 10. TEACHERS.

There were 286\* paid and thirty-six volunteer teachers in the Kindergartens in 1899-1900; the average daily attendance of children was 5,504.

There is a very great preponderance of women among the teachers; only one man is reported as an assistant teacher in a district school.

*Number of Teachers.*

	Principals.		Assistants.		Totals.
	M.	F.	M.	F.	
High School (white) - -	1	—	22	46	69
Normal and High School (coloured) - - - -	1	—	6	3	10
District Schools (white) - -	38	35	1	1,085	1,159
District Schools (coloured) - -	10	—	—	84	94
Kindergartens - - - -	—	—	—	301*	301
Evening Schools - - - -	8	—	17	24	59
Special teachers - - - -	—	—	15	17	32
Totals - - - -	58	35	61	1,570	1,724

\* This discrepancy appears in the Report, pp. 73, 74, 253.

The salaries of the teachers are as follows :—

Principal of high school, \$2,400, rising to \$3,500 in fifth year.

Other Principals, from \$600 to \$2,400, according to size of school and length of service.

Assistants in high schools, from \$650 to \$2,000.

Assistants in District Schools.	Number.	Minimum and Maximum Salaries of each Position.	
		Dollars.	Dollars.
Head Assistants - - - -	45	650	850
First Assistants - - - -	180	500	700
Second Assistants - - - -	945	400	600
Kindergarten Directors - -	125	500	650
Kindergarten paid Assistants -	176	375	400

The training of teachers at St. Louis is at present in a curious and abnormal position. Till 1898 intending teachers took a four years' course in the high school, the last two of which were largely professional, and they were then assigned as apprentices to the grammar schools for one year. But the high school turned out many more graduates than were wanted, and in the year 1900 there were enough in training to fill all demands till 1902. Consequently no entries have been allowed in the normal class since 1898, and a new scheme for the education of teachers is now prepared. It is proposed that in the future the candidates shall first go completely through a four years' course at a high school, and then two years at a new normal school, to which only a limited number of well-qualified candidates should be admitted.

At present the apprentice teachers meet for education on Saturdays. They also witness classes taken by specially competent teachers on given subjects. At the end of a year they become substitutes wherever wanted, and in two or three months obtain a permanent post on eight months' probation.

The city maintains a training class for kindergarten teachers, open to those who have finished two years at the St. Louis High School. Others are also admitted if they show good credentials. The course consists of practical volunteer work in the kindergartens of the city, and theoretical work in afternoon lessons and lectures.

There are many more qualified candidates than there are vacancies.

It is the recent policy of the Board to select only college graduates as high school teachers

## 11. RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE.

The receipts and expenditure of the School Board in 1899-1900 were—

	Receipts.	Dollars.	Expenditure.	Dollars.
From taxation - -	-	1,632,336.40	Teachers' salaries -	1,033,062.07
From State school fund		150,563.73	Maintenance (sundries) - - -	500,961.38
From miscellaneous sources - - -	-	150,703.00	Permanent Improvements and Buildings - - -	452,179.47
		<hr/>		<hr/>
		1,933,603.13		1,986,202.92

The value of the property used for school purposes is stated to be 5,556,436 dollars 71 cents.

The average cost of tuition per child belonging to the schools was 16 dollars 26 cents, and for sundries 2 dollars 66 cents per annum.

It is pointed out that in comparison with other cities St. Louis spends little on salaries and maintenance and much on buildings and permanent improvements. The average per child for total expenses is low, and the tax rate for school purposes is abnormally low. At the same time the School Board of St. Louis obtained one of the five grand prizes of the Paris Exhibition.

## 12. PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

We can unfortunately gather no information about the 26,000 pupils in private schools. We have only an incidental remark in the President's Report, when he is seeking the reason for the absence of children above twelve years old: "Our private schools are not at all unusual for cities of the first class. Whatever their quality, the number of their pupils is very small in comparison with the army of withdrawals."

## 13. CONCLUSION.

It appears that the St. Louis public schools are managed on an enlightened and well-organised system, which is being extended and improved in many directions. Good results have been made on a modest income, and many reforms have been made since the granting of the new charter. The administration, however, seems to be in advance of local public feeling, if we may judge by the rapid falling off of attendance at an early age, and the smallness of the tax levied.

The public schools of St. Louis enjoyed some years ago the great advantage of having Dr. W. T. Harris, now Commissioner of Education for the United States, as city superintendent of schools; while there he developed schemes of organisation of great importance and instruction to the whole body of American education.

## AUTHORITIES.

Rules of the Board of Education of the City of St. Louis.  
 The 45th and 46th Annual Reports of the Board.  
 The Report of the Commissioner of Education (Washington) for 1898-9,  
 October, 1901. A. L. BOWLEY.

THE  
PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM  
OF  
PHILADELPHIA.

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## THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM OF PHILADELPHIA

THE management of the public schools of the United States of America is not assumed by the State, but is wisely placed in the hands of the people, acting in accordance with the provision of a general school law. While each State has a system of public schools, the systems of school management in the different States vary in respect to the relation of State and popular authority. Among all of these organisations the Pennsylvania system is one of the most admirable, being the fullest and most perfect embodiment of the idea of popular education. Recognising the township as the unit of government, it places the schools of each township in charge of the people thereof, through their representatives, a Board of School Directors elected by the people. These Directors locate and erect school buildings, elect and fix the salaries of the teachers, determine the maximum length of the school term, adopt the course of instruction beyond that fixed by law, select the text-books to be used, and look after all the interests of the schools. The Directors of each county, assembled in convention every third year, elect a County Superintendent of Schools, whose duty it is to examine and certificate the teachers, visit and inspect the schools, and give professional direction to their instruction and government. At the capital of the State is the State Superintendent, who is charged with the duty of looking after the general interests of education in the commonwealth. It is thus seen that in the public school system of our State the balance between State and popular authority is nicely adjusted.

This State system, which is admirably adapted to rural schools, has not been found entirely suited to the larger cities of the State. The city of Philadelphia is constituted by State law as the First School District of Pennsylvania. The city has a dual system of public school administration, consisting of a central board of controllers, called the "Board of Public Education," and a number of sectional or local boards. The Board of Public Education consists of forty members, one member from each of the forty wards of the city. These members are appointed by the judges of the Court of Common Pleas, for a term of three years each. The Board of Public Education has almost absolute control of the public schools of the city. It locates and erects school buildings; fixes the courses of instruction; selects and furnishes the text-books and all school supplies; makes provisions for the education, examination, and certification of teachers, and fixes and pays their salaries; elects the superintendent of schools and all his assistants and the teachers in all the higher schools; and determines and shapes the policy of public education in the city.

The officers of the Board consist of a President, a Vice-President and a Secretary. The President and Vice-President perform the duties usually associated with such offices. The Secretary is the business agent of the Board. He keeps the minutes of the meetings, attests all warrants and instruments under the seal of the Board, takes charge of its books and papers, has the care and custody of all supplies delivered to and distributed by the Board, and keeps all the accounts of the Board, subject at all times to the inspection of its members. The Secretary is assisted in this work by a board of clerks with special duties assigned.

The Board of Education holds stated meetings, at which it hears reports of committees and of the Superintendent of Schools, discussing and taking action upon their recommendations, and performing such other business as may be legitimately brought before it. Its order of business is as follows:—

1. Roll call.
2. Admission of new members.
3. Reading of the minutes.
4. Communications.
5. Reports of standing committees.
6. Reports of special committees.
7. Communications from the superintendent.
8. Unfinished business.
9. New business.

#### DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

The detailed work of the schools is in charge of a Department of Superintendence, consisting of a Superintendent of Schools and a number of Assistant Superintendents. The duties of the Department of Superintendence are—(1) To prepare courses of study and submit them to the Board for adoption; (2) To see that these courses are properly carried out in the schools; (3) To hold meetings with teachers, discuss educational principles, and explain to them methods of instruction and discipline; (4) To visit schools and see that they are in proper condition and that the government and instruction are in accordance with the rule of the Board and the Department; (5) To render such aid to the several committees of the Board as they require of the Department; (6) To suggest forms of registers, record books, blanks for reports; (7) To attend the stated and special meetings of the Board and make such reports to it as may be deemed advisable; (8) And to perform such other duties as will promote the interests of public education in the city. The Superintendent has no voice in the selection of the teachers of the elementary schools; but he can secure their resignation or dismissal by reporting adversely upon their work in the schools.

The Board of Education transacts its business through committees, of which there are 27, as follows:—

1. A committee on the Central High School for Boys, whose duty it is to select the principal and teachers of the school, fix

their salaries and assign their duties, subject to the approval of the Board of Education.

2. A committee on the Normal School for Girls, whose duty it is to select a principal and teachers of the school, fix their salaries and assign their duties, subject to the approval of the Board of Education.

3. A committee on the High School for Girls. For duties see 1.

4. A committee on the Central Manual Training School and the North-East Manual Training School. For duties see 1.

5. A committee on an elementary Manual Training School. For duties see 1.

6. A committee on the Revision of Studies, whose duty it is to observe the operation of the graded course of study for the elementary schools and recommend from time to time such changes as in their judgment may be deemed desirable.

7. A committee on the Elementary Schools, which has general charge of the elementary schools of the city in respect of instruction, grading, competence of teachers, absence of teachers, size of classes, the addition of teachers as required by the attendance, the dropping of teachers when a school is below grade, etc.

8. A committee on Property, which has the supervision of the erection of all school buildings, and of all repairs, improvements, and alterations, reporting all contracts to the Board for its approval. This committee also has charge of the janitors of the school buildings.

9. A committee on Supplies, which has charge of all school supplies furnished the schools, consisting of books, stationery, blanks, pens, ink, coal, etc. All contracts for these supplies being reported to the Board for its approval.

10. A committee on Accounts, whose duty it is to examine all bills and accounts and report the same to the Board for its approval.

11. A committee on Qualifications of Teachers, whose duty it is to hold, by means of the Superintendent of Schools, annual examinations for teachers' certificates, and to award certificates to all who pass this examination, and also to those who are educated in the training schools of the Board.

12. A committee on Text-Books, whose duty it is to select and make changes in the text-books used in the elementary schools and report the same to the Board for its approval.

13. A committee on Office, whose duty it is to have general charge of the offices and rooms of the Board, determine the amount of clerical help to the secretary, regulate and assign clerical duties, etc., reporting all the arrangements to the Board for its approval.

14. A committee on Estimates, whose duty it is to visit annually each school building and ascertain what repairs,

additions and improvements are necessary, and report to the Board an estimate of the expenses of the Board for the coming year.

15. A committee on Superintendence, whose duty it is to select the Superintendent of Schools and his Assistants and clerks, and report the same to the Board for its approval.

16. A committee on Scholarships, whose duty it is to award all scholarships at the disposal of the Board, subject to the approval of the Board.

17. A committee on Bye-laws and Rules, whose duty it is to formulate all proposed improvements, amendments and alterations or additions in the rules of the Board.

18. A committee on Hygiene, whose duty it is to look after all matters pertaining to hygiene and sanitation in the construction and improvement of school buildings.

19. A committee on Music, which has charge of all matters pertaining to the study of music in the public schools.

20. A committee on Cooking, which shall have charge of the arrangements for teaching cooking to the pupils of the elementary schools.

21. A committee on Compulsory Education, whose duty it is to see that the State Law in respect to compulsory attendance is properly carried out.

22. A committee on Audits, whose duty it is to examine all warrants and vouchers, and certify to their correctness.

23. A committee on Free Lectures, whose duty it is to arrange for courses of free lectures to the people in the public school buildings of the city.

#### QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS.

Most of the teachers of the city are women. To educate these teachers the Board of Education has established a Normal School for Girls. The course of instruction covers two years, and includes both the theory of teaching and the practice of teaching. The theory of teaching is presented in the class-room and laboratory by text-book, lecture, and discussion; the practice of teaching is presented in a school of observation and practice.

For the education of men teachers, the Board of Education has established a School of Pedagogy in connection with the Boys' High School. The course of instruction covers two years, and is substantially the same as that of the Normal School for Girls. In addition to these two sources of a supply of properly qualified teachers, there is an annual examination of candidates not educated in the two professional schools. The examination is conducted by the Superintendent of Schools. In order to enter this examination a candidate must be a graduate of a High School, with a four years' course of instruction, or possess an equivalent education, which is to be determined by an examina-

tion in scholastic branches. A candidate passing this examination obtains either a principal's or an assistant's certificate, according to the averages obtained in the examination.

The branches in which the candidates for the principal and assistant's certificate are examined are as follows:—

Scholastic branches.—Reading, orthography, penmanship, drawing, grammar and composition, English literature, arithmetic and mensuration, geography (descriptive and physical), algebra, plane geometry, general history, United States history and civics (including constitutions of United States and Pennsylvania), elements of natural history, elements of physics, physiology and hygiene, Latin grammar and two books of Caesar, or its equivalent in French or German.

Professional branches.—Elements of psychology, history of education, school management, and theory and practice of teaching.

Candidates must obtain a general average of not less than 80 per cent. in all the branches, with an average of not less than 60 per cent. in any one branch, to be entitled to a Principal's Certificate; and a general average of not less than 70 per cent. in all the branches, with an average of not less than 50 per cent. in any one branch, to be entitled to an Assistant's Certificate.

Besides this there is an examination for a higher grade certificate, called a Supervising Principal's\* certificate, which qualifies the candidate for the highest positions in elementary schools. Applicants for the Supervising Principal's certificate are examined in the following subjects:—

Educational Psychology.		School Economy.
Science and Art Teaching.		History of Education.
		Philosophy of Education.

Candidates must obtain a general average of not less than 80 per cent. in all the subjects, and an average of not less than 60 per cent. in any one subject.

The examination for a Kindergarten certificate requires the same scholastic qualifications, the philosophy and practice of Kindergarten method being made prominent in the examination. Candidates who are graduates of a high school, or possess an equivalent education, are examined in the following branches:—

History of Education.		English Language.
Educational Psychology.		Physiology and Hygiene.
Theory and Practice of Teaching.		Elements of Zoology and Botany.
School Economy.		Geometric Forms.
Philosophy and Methods of the Kindergarten.		Vocal Music, Drawing and Modelling.

**THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.**

The elementary schools cover a period of eight years, children entering at the age of six years. These schools are graded by years, each grade corresponding to a year. The branches of

\* A Supervising Principal is one who does not teach classes regularly, but gives his time to visiting the classes and directing the work of the other teachers.

instruction in these schools are reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, including mensuration, language, including grammar, nature study or object lessons, geography, history, civil government, physiology, drawing, singing, and sewing and cooking for girls. These branches are carefully graded and distributed through the different years so as to be adapted to the capacity and development of the pupils.

These schools are divided into primary schools and grammar schools. The primary schools cover the first four years of a child's life; the grammar schools cover the second four years of its life. Many schools combine both primary and grammar grades, covering the entire eight years' work. There are a few primary schools with the first two years' work, and also a few with only the second two of the four years' work.

The number of pupils in any of our elementary schools varies according to the school population of the section of the city in which they are located, and in the size of the buildings. Our largest schools contain from 1,200 to 1,600 pupils; our smaller schools contain only two or three hundred pupils. The suburban schools are usually small and not fully graded, pupils of different grades reciting in the same classes. The number of pupils in a class should be from forty to forty-five; but for want of school accommodation the classes sometimes number from sixty to seventy pupils. The whole number of elementary schools in the city is 277: of these 168 are primary schools; 25 are strictly grammar schools, and 84 are primary and grammar schools. Besides these there are 142 Kindergartens. The entire number of pupils enrolled in the elementary schools last year (1898) was 174,850; the entire number of teachers in these schools was 3,157; of these 112 were men and 3,045 were women. The entire number of teachers in the public schools of the city was 3,471, of which 193 were men and 3,278 were women.

The salaries of the teachers of the elementary schools vary for the different positions, but are mainly as follows:—

	\$
Supervising Principals of Grammar Schools (containing boys) - - - - -	2,065
Supervising Principals of Primary and Grammar Schools (containing boys) - - - - -	2,065
Supervising Principals of Primary and Grammar Schools (containing only girls) - - - - -	1,450
Supervising Principals of Girls' Grammar Schools - - - - -	1,450
"                    "                    of Primary Schools - - - - -	1,000
Teachers in Primary Schools from - - - - -	\$470 to 620
"                    Grammar Schools, Men, from - - - - -	\$900 to 1,150
"                    "                    "                    Women, from - - - - -	\$520 to 820

These salaries are lower than in the other large cities of the country, and efforts are being made to advance them.

THE INSPECTION OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The schools are under the supervision of a Department of Superintendence, consisting of a Superintendent of Schools and a number of Assistants. The Superintendent has general charge of the educational affairs of the city. The principal duty of the Assistant Superintendents is to visit the schools and see that the work of teachers is done in accordance with the methods regarded as best suited to secure the results of mental development and the acquisition of knowledge. The majority of the assistants supervise the ordinary branches of the schools; besides which we have a Director of Drawing, a Director of Music, and a Director of Kindergartens. The sewing and cooking are supervised by two of the regular assistants. The assistant superintendents meet the Superintendent of Schools regularly once a week and report their work and the condition of schools, and advise with him at other times as the needs of the schools may require. They hold frequent meetings with the teachers, in addition to visiting their rooms, to discuss principles and methods of teaching.

THE FINANCES OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The money expended by the Board of Public Education comes from two sources, a State appropriation and an appropriation of City Councils. The whole amount of money expended for the year ending December 1898 was \$3,778,058.54. This money was distributed among various items as follows:—

Salaries of Teachers	\$ 2,391,620.39	Fuel	\$ 84,294.20
Rented Buildings	52,244.17	Books and Stationery	156,923.16
Repairs, Alterations, &c.	180,848.19	Night Schools	61,434.44
Furnaces, Stoves, &c.	19,604.17	Public Art School	7,268.24
Ground Rents	98,014.89	Cooking School	4,315.86
Cleaning Buildings	211,723.65	Compulsory Education	14,984.93
Incidentals	22,189.68	Summer Playgrounds	11,334.15
Clerk Hire	17,029.57	Scholarships	2,400.00
School Lots and Buildings	329,284.47	Music	7,900.00
		General Expenses	104,644.67

The money appropriated by the State is derived from a general State tax, of which \$5,550,000 is annually appropriated to the public schools of the State. The money appropriated by City Councils is a portion of the city revenue raised by a special city tax. The Board of Education makes an estimate each year of the amount of money needed for the public schools, and presents the same to City Councils, who vote such a portion of the estimate as they may think it is possible for the schools to get along with. The result of this is that the Board of Education is often

crippled for funds to provide for the necessary school buildings and to make such other improvements as in their judgment are needed.

#### PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

There is a large number of private schools in Philadelphia, some very elementary, and others which represent a full course of secondary education. These private schools have a curriculum of their own and have no relation to the public schools. The parochial schools of the Catholic Church are well organized in Philadelphia, and have a course of study very nearly the same as that of the public schools. There are about 40,000 children enrolled in the parochial schools of the city. The Board of Education does not exercise any authority over the private schools.

#### SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

The new school buildings of Philadelphia are worthy of favourable mention. The Board of Education has adopted a style of building for the elementary schools that for convenience and adaptation to their purpose is unsurpassed in any city with which I am acquainted. The new Normal School building erected in 1892 is the handsomest and best equipped normal school building of any city in the world. The High School for Boys, which is nearly completed, will for size, beauty, and equipment stand without a peer among the high school buildings of any State or country.

#### HIGH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.

The city High School for Girls has an attendance of about 2,300 pupils. The large majority of the pupils come from the grammar schools of the city. A few others come from private schools, either within or outside of Philadelphia. Candidates to enter the High School must pass an examination conducted by the Superintendent of Schools. There are three courses of study in the Girls' High School, namely, a General Course, a Classical Course and a Commercial Course. The principal object of the General Course is to prepare girls for the Normal School, which they enter to prepare themselves for teachers. The object of the Classical Course is to prepare young women for college. The object of the Commercial Course is to fit young women for the counting room or business office as book-keepers, stenographers, typewriters, etc. The branches of instruction in each of the three courses are as follows:—



GENERAL COURSE.

First Year.	Second Year.
*5 Algebra. * 3 Ancient History. 2 Drawing. 4 English. 5 Latin Lessons. 1 Physiology. 1 Physical Exercise. 1 Music. 1 Sewing.	4 Botany. 4 Caesar. 1 Drawing. 3 English. 4 Modern History 5 Geometry. 1 Music. 1 Physical Exercise. Cooking (afternoon).
Third Year.	Fourth Year.
3 American History and Civics. 2 Drawing. 3 English. 4 German. 1 Solid Geometry. 4 Zoology. 1 Music. 3 Physical Geography and Geology. 1 Elocution. 1 Sewing. 1 Physical Exercise.	2 Arithmetic. 4 Chemistry. 3 English. 5 French. 3 German. 4 Physics. 1 Physiology. 1 Elocution. 1 Music. 1 Physical Exercise

CLASSICAL COURSE.

First Year.	Second Year.
5 Latin Lessons. 5 Algebra. 4 English. 5 French. 1 Music. Physical Exercise (optional).	5 Caesar. 2 Latin Composition. 2 English. 5 Plane Geometry. 5 French. 4 German. 4 Greek. 1 Music. Physical Exercise (optional).
Third Year.	Fourth Year.
5 Cicero. 3 Latin Composition and Sight Reading. 2 English. 4 French. 5 German. 4 Greek. 5 Mathematical Review. 1 Physiology. Physical Exercise (optional).	4 English. 5 Vergil. 3 Latin Composition and Sight Reading. 5 German. 4 Greek. 4 History of Greece and Rome. Physical Exercise (optional).

\* The numerals give the Number of Lessons per week.

## COMMERCIAL COURSE.

First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.
4 Algebra.	3 English.	3 English.
5 English.	3 Book-keeping.	2 American History and
3 General History.	2 Commercial Arith- metic.	Civics.
3 Business Forms and Penmanship.	2 Business Methods and Commercial Law.	3 Book-keeping.
3 German, French, or Spanish.	3 Typewriting.	2 Commercial Arith- metic.
3 Physical and Com- mercial Geography.	4 Stenography.	1 Commercial Law.
1 Physiology.	2 Physics.	5 Stenography.
1 Music.	3 German, French, or Spanish.	3 Typewriting.
1 Physical Exercise.	1 Music.	4 German, French, or Spanish.
	1 Physical Exercise.	1 Music.
	Cooking (afternoon).	1 Physical Exercise.

## THE HIGH SCHOOL FOR BOYS.

The High School for Boys has an attendance of about 1,228 pupils annually. These pupils come mainly from the grammar schools of the city, though a few enter from private schools. All candidates to enter must pass an examination conducted by the Superintendent of Schools. There are three courses of study, each course covering a period of four years. The branches of the classical course are shown in the following schedule.

Freshmen Class.	Sophomore Class.
English. Latin. History (Greece and Rome). Algebra. Drawing.	English. Latin. History (English). Geometry. Chemistry. Physics. Drawing.
Junior Class.	Senior Class.
English. Latin. Greek. History (United States). Algebra. Chemistry. Physics. Biology.	English. Latin. Greek. Algebra. Astronomy. Social Science Drawing

French and German are elective. The Latin scientific course omits Greek and adds more science. The scientific course contains no Greek or Latin, which is omitted after the second year, and the course in mathematics and science is enlarged. In 1898 a separate commercial department was started at the High School, but it is a widely held opinion that the success of the venture would be better assured if it were established as an independent School of Commerce.

THE MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOLS.

There are two manual training schools connected with the system of public education, the attendance of which is about 750 pupils annually. The object of these schools is to add to the culture derived by the study of literature and science the culture derived from manual work, and also to prepare young men to engage in those occupations that require a knowledge of tools and a certain amount of manual skill. The course of instruction covers three years and is as follows ;

First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.
Literature. Rhetoric. History. German or French. Algebra. Natural Science. Drawing. Manual Work.	Literature. History (Ancient, Modern), Europe. German or French. Algebra. Geometry. Physics. Chemistry. Drawing.	Literature. German or French. Civics. Economics. Trigonometry. Surveying. Physics. Chemistry. Electrical Construction. Manual Work.

The Manual work in the first year consists of joining and turning, vice-work, forging and wood-carving, moulding and casting and pattern-making. To these are added in the second year, smithing, and ornamental iron work. The third year includes constructive work with machine and tool practice.

THE NORMAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.

The Normal School for Girls is a large institution in which most of the teachers of the city are educated. The course covers a period of two years, and to enter it a candidate must have been graduated at the High School for Girls. The number of students in the school in 1898-9 was 605; the number graduated in 1899 was 300. The course of instruction includes both the science of teaching and the art of teaching. The science of teaching is presented in the class-room and laboratory by the text-book, lecture, and discussion. The art of teaching is presented in a school of observation and practice. The science of teaching is presented under the following heads:—

1. Educational psychology.  
Including the nature of the mind, its relation to the body, and how to develop its faculties.

2. The science and art of teaching.  
Including the principles of instruction and the methods of teaching each branch of study.
3. School economy  
Including all those matters that pertain to school buildings, ventilation, school-rooms, school recitations, etc.
4. The history of education.  
Including the different systems of education, the views and influence of the great educators, etc.
5. The philosophy of education.  
Including a broad and comprehensive view of all the great educational questions grouped and reduced to a unity.

The school is equipped with a fine laboratory, in which thorough instruction is given in laboratory work, in natural history, physics, chemistry, etc. In addition to the regular instruction in the science and art of teaching, educational reading and investigation are carried on by the students, and the preparation of apparatus, devices, etc., used for teaching.

There is a model school connected with the Normal School, which is used as a school of observation and practice. This school represents all the grades of the ordinary elementary schools. The normal students are first sent into this school for a certain period of time to observe the work of the teaching of the model school. This work is discussed with the teacher of methods in the light of the principles of teaching which have been presented to them. After observing for a time the work of the regular teachers of the model school, the normal students are sent into the school of practice to do actual teaching under the supervision of critic teachers, who subsequently meet them and discuss their work, pointing out its merits and defects.

#### THE SCHOOL OF PEDAGOGY.

There is a school of pedagogy connected with the High School for Boys established for the training of young men teachers. The course of instruction covers two years and embraces the following subjects:

First Year.	Second Year.
History of Education. General Pedagogy. Psychology. Logic. School Law.	Social Science. Philosophy of Education. Psychology. School Economy. Special Pedagogy. Observation Work.

The students of the School of Pedagogy are sent into the elementary schools to observe teaching.

Along with this professional training, some scholastic work is done in the following branches—English, natural science, mathematics, history, drawing and music.

#### NIGHT SCHOOLS.

The Board of Education establishes each year a number of Night Schools that continue in operation for about five months; in 1898 there were 96 such schools. They are attended by working men and women whose education has been neglected in childhood; and by others who desire instruction in drawing, and some of the higher branches. Classes in dressmaking, millinery and cooking for young women are especially popular.

#### THE INDUSTRIAL ART SCHOOL.

The object of the Industrial Art School is to give an opportunity to the pupils of the grammar schools who have special taste or talent for art work to take special instruction in these branches. The second object is to give an opportunity to the teachers of the elementary schools to improve themselves in drawing, modelling, etc. The course of instruction embraces drawing, modelling, carving, and several forms of mechanical construction.

#### VACATION SCHOOLS AND PLAYGROUNDS.

The Board of Education has opened a number of summer schools for the instruction of children who remain in the city during the summer months and are willing to attend school during that time. These schools have attracted much attention and command the sympathy and support of the friends of public education. Summer playgrounds have also been opened in the yards of the public schools with games, gymnastic exercises, etc., under the supervision of teachers especially fitted for the work.

#### MISCELLANEOUS MATTERS.

The elementary and higher schools give instruction in all the subjects usually taught in such schools in any country. The physical sciences are taught as nature study in the lower schools, and as sciences in the higher schools with laboratory practice. Civics is taught in the lower schools in connection with history and literature and thus continued in the higher schools. Moral instruction is presented incidentally by precept and example and the committing and reading of extracts of literature that inculcate moral precepts.

There is no direct religious instruction in the public schools though the Bible is read each morning at opening exercises and the religious nature is trained by the use of literary gems containing religious reflections and sentiments. Gymnastics are taught both in the lower and in the higher schools. The Board of Education does not provide for the education of the deaf or the blind, such instruction being left to State institutions. Vacation schools and summer playgrounds have been established by the Board of Education and have been found to give great satisfaction to our people.

#### SYSTEM OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION FOR LARGE CITIES.

The system of school organization in Philadelphia, though admirable in theory, is not altogether satisfactory in its practical application. One source of weakness is that local boards do not exercise expert judgment in the selecting and locating of teachers. Representing sections of the city, considerations of friendship and social and political influences often determine the selection of teachers rather than their merits. Boundary lines between the sections sometimes prevent the proper distribution of children among the schools. On the side of the Central Board an objection is that, being appointed as a representative of a particular ward, a member is expected to give special attention to the needs and interests of that ward rather than to look after the interests of the city as a whole. Another serious defect of our system is that the Board of Education has not the control of finances, but must depend upon Councils for its expenditure on the public schools.

A system better adapted to Philadelphia may be briefly outlined as follows. First, there should be a Central Board, consisting of about 25 members, representing the city at large, rather than particular sections of the city. Second, the members of the Board should be appointed by the judges of the courts rather than by the mayor, or than being elected by the people, as insuring a more complete separation of the schools from political influences and control. This Central Board should have complete control, under State and city laws, of public education in the city. They should organize at least three distinct departments—a department of superintendence of schools, a business department, and a department of buildings. They should elect a superintendent of schools and as many assistants as are needed, and the superintendent and his assistants should have the care and oversight of all educational affairs, subject to the rules of the Board of Public Education. The Board of Superintendents should decide upon courses of instruction, examine and certify teachers, make nominations from a list of certified teachers to the Board for appointment to positions, etc. The superintendent of buildings should also be appointed by the Board and he should have charge of the location, erection and care of all the school

buildings under the general direction of the Board. The head of the business department should also be appointed by the Board, and discharge his duties subject to their direction and control.

There should also be a Board of Local Directors or Inspectors, whose duty it would be to visit the schools and look after some of the detail of their condition and working. These might be appointed by the Board of Education, or they might be elected by the people. This latter plan would be the more acceptable to our people, though the first plan would secure more efficient supervision. The functions of the Local Boards should be largely advisory, though they might have a voice in the selection or dismissal of teachers. A system of school control based upon these general principles would be much better adapted to Philadelphia than the present plan of dual control and local representation by Sectional Boards and a Board of Public Education.

EDWARD BROOKS  
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A SKETCH OF THE  
DEVELOPMENT AND PRESENT CONDITION  
OF THE  
SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN THE STATE OF  
MINNESOTA.

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A SKETCH OF  
THE DEVELOPMENT AND PRESENT CONDITION  
OF THE  
SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN THE STATE OF  
MINNESOTA.

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A discussion of the system of education of Minnesota will be of interest to the general public in so far as, in its historical development and in its problems of administration, it is representative of other States, and especially of those States known as Western States, and organised since the adoption of the Constitution.

As a Western State it has had to deal with the problems that have arisen in consequence of the great expansion of our territory, and of the immigration of foreign nationalities, which must not only be instructed, but must be Americanised and assimilated in spirit and idea with the life of a democratic people. Then, too, there are the problems which have arisen out of the industrial and religious life of a people of different national ancestries in a new country. To the solution of all these Minnesota has made her contribution.

IDEAS WHICH GOVERN IN THE SYSTEM.

In order to understand the significance of the American system of education, one must keep clearly in mind the idea and sentiment which governs and which is commonly characterised as American, namely, the essential dignity and worth of manhood as such, and unaffected in any essential respect by accidental conditions of birth or material possessions. In other words, it is the all-comprehending fact that one is a *man*, having powers of intelligence and self-determination, inheriting potentially the wisdom of the race, and entitled to all its fruitage; and that conditions of social rank, present advantage or disadvantage in the possession of wealth, knowledge or rank, are secondary and variable circumstances. Every youth inherits this sentiment—he breathes it in the very atmosphere—that whatever of good, whether of physical comforts, social position, intellectual and spiritual acquisitions,—whatever of these are for any are for him as well, provided that he has within him the ability to make them his by recognised legitimate means.

This view of life is embodied in the following :—

(1.) The public schools, like the government, are “by the people, and for the people.” That is, the initiative what the schools shall be, how conducted, and what their aim is with the

people. They are not devised by a wiser and a better class for their good; neither are they for any class to the exclusion of any other class. As the country is free to every one, and each is free to get the best he can, so the schools are for all, each to get for himself the best he can.

In the large cities very high buildings are provided with elevators or "lifts." These "lifts" extend from the lowest to the highest floor. All must enter the same lift at the lowest floor. With entire freedom to rise to the highest, they may get out at the several floors as they please. This is a fair illustration of the school system of Minnesota. All enter the first grade of the primary school, and without charge they may pass through every grade of the High School and University, or at the end of any year they may leave school without disparagement for any occupation of their choice.

(2.) In the application of this principle the matter of sex constitutes no exception. The whole field of knowledge and of opportunity is as free to every girl as to every boy. What she may have or may not have is conditioned upon her individual taste, physical and intellectual ability. Hence co-education is universal, and the whole system, from the Kindergarten to the University, is as open and free to women as to men.

The American system of schools, as of government, assumes that no one can take as good care of the people as they themselves. No one can define the proper place of woman as accurately as she herself, and no one can apply the law of womanly propriety as a limitation to her sphere of life, intellectual and industrial, so justly as she can to herself.

(3.) A new people in a new country necessarily give up or lose all the directing and limiting precedents that belong to an old and established civilisation. They do not yet know what the resources of their country are. The children do not know what their occupations and fortune will be. Parents cannot anticipate the future by training their children to their own views and habits of life. Life is experimental. Society is in transition. To-morrow is just below the horizon. Hence education must adapt itself to demands and prepare men for the occasions and opportunities of life as they may occur. It must cultivate powers of intelligent observation and inquiry, correct judgment, skilful execution, and those guiding principles of character that make men good as they become powerful.

(4.) The school systems of the Western States begin with the primary school and end with the State University.

In the older States the "common" or elementary schools were originally the only people's schools. Colleges were established and endowed by religious bodies and private benevolence, assisted and encouraged by the States. Academies were preparatory schools for colleges. These schools were for the education of those who entered professional life, especially the ministry. Later it was recognised that a self-governing people must provide themselves with the highest culture, and that their industries require the

cultured intelligence and skill that are furnished only in schools of science and learning. Hence these States since 1837 (the year of the organisation of the University of Michigan) have included and made provision for the State University as an integral part of the school system.

With these general explanations I may confine myself to a sketch of the development of the school system of Minnesota.

#### ORGANISATION.

The State Government was organised in 1858 as one of the States carved out of what is known as the Louisiana Purchase. Its area is 83,000 square miles, and its population in 1895 was 1,574,619.

The foundation, and an important part of the support of its educational system, is in the several land grants made by the general Government at various times and in different forms for the encouragement of the different departments, as I shall hereafter explain.

The importance of this provision appears in this—that the immigrants to the Western Territories were the children of a new country. Unlike their ancestors, who came from England thoroughly impressed with culture, and with the necessity of education as a basis for genuine liberty, this new generation were most immediately impressed with the importance of acquiring homes and improving their material condition. These grants of the Government afforded not only material aid, but they stood for the public sentiment of the entire nation, by which a high standard was fixed, and by which each new State must measure itself as it would be measured, and its rank given in the sisterhood of States of the Union. With loyalty to the flag, loyalty to the common schools became the universal standard of a *bond fide* American citizenship.

#### LAND GRANTS FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF EDUCATION.

These grants by the general Government began with the organisation of the North-west Territory in 1787, and have been made to (1) Common Schools, which include all grades of schools below the University that are supported by taxation. (2) Universities, organised by the State, supported by public taxation, and free to all the youth of the State. (3) Industrial Schools, in the form of Agricultural Colleges, and departments of Mechanic Arts.

##### I.—*Grants to Common Schools.*

This grant, previous to 1848, was one section, or square mile in every township, but, since that date, has been two sections, the sixteenth and thirty-sixth in every township, or one-eighteenth

of the entire territory. This grant is turned over to the State without qualification or other condition than that it should be used for the support of the Common Schools.

It was accordingly incorporated in the Constitution of this State that these lands should not be sold for less than five dollars an acre, and that the proceeds should be held and invested as a permanent fund, the interest of which should be equally distributed for the support of Common Schools.

*Statistics.*

Whole number of acres in grant	-	3,000,000
Amount of permanent fund, the		
proceeds from lands sold	- -	\$12,087,627
Estimated amount of permanent		
fund when all lands are sold	- -	\$20,000,000

II.—*The University Grant.*

Four townships in amount have been granted for the support of the University. The lands were selected by the State from lands not already appropriated, and amounted, in round numbers, to 150,000 acres. The proceeds of sales are likewise held and invested as a permanent fund, the interest from which is for the current expenses of the University.

III.—*Industrial Grants.*

1. In the year 1862, in what is known as the Agricultural Land Grant Act, the Government appropriated lands to each State — 30,000 acres for each senator and representative of Congress. These lands are to be used for the support in Industrial education, named "Agriculture, Mechanic Arts, and Military Tactics." In many States separate institutions were organized, and known as Agricultural Colleges. In others the instruction was made a part of the University curriculum, and the fund was invested with that of the University, and administered by the Board of Regents of the University. This latter course was pursued in Minnesota. The grant to this State was 120,000 acres. The permanent fund from this and the University grant is 1,319,157 dollars. The revenue for the fiscal year 1898-99 was 50,000 dollars.

2. A second grant, under what is known as the Hatch Bill, of 15,000 dollars annually, was made in 1878 for agricultural experimentation and the dissemination of knowledge among the farmers of the State. This fund is also administered by the Regents of the University. All lands, buildings, and apparatus are furnished by the State.

3. A third grant was made in the same interest in 1890, in what is known as the Morrill Bill. This was a grant in money to every Agricultural College of 15,000 dollars for the first year, to be increased 1,000 dollars annually until it reaches the maximum of 25,000 dollars, when it will become annual and permanent.

This fund is administered by the Board of Regents of the University. The required instruction is given by the University, and this amount accordingly becomes a part of the current expense fund.

With this outline of the support given by the United States Government to schools in all departments, I proceed to an outline of what has been done by the State of Minnesota.

#### THE COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM.

This system, or part of the entire system, must be considered in two forms as determined by the conditions of life. These are (1) the Rural Schools, and (2) Graded Schools of cities and villages.

##### *Rural Schools.*

The territorial unit is the school district, or so much of a country neighbourhood as can be accommodated by a single school house and teacher. It varies in area from one to six square miles, and contains a population as varying—from ten to forty children of school age. The School Board consists of a Director, Clerk, and Treasurer, who are elected for a term of three years at the annual meeting of all resident citizens, male and female. The distribution of authority is as follows :—

1. The State fixes the minimum length of the school year at five months of twenty days each. It requires each county to elect a County Superintendent of Schools, and to pay him (or her) an annual salary of not less than ten dollars for each district under his supervision. It requires each teacher to hold a certificate of qualification.

2. The citizens in annual meeting elect the School Board, vote the number of months of school to be held above the minimum limitation, vote the amount of tax to be levied for its maintenance, for supplies of apparatus, repairs, libraries, and improvements, as well as for sites and new buildings.

3. The School Board elects the teacher, and directs the general management of the school. It expends moneys as authorised by the annual meeting, and makes all required reports to the State through the County Superintendent, and to the School District at its annual meeting.

The Rural School is necessarily ungraded. The course of study includes the common English branches—reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, grammar, United States history, and civil government.

The teachers are taken from the normal schools, high schools, and schools of like or lower grade. The majority of the teachers are young women. Elections are generally for the term of three, four, or five months, rather than for the year. Only the best schools employ teachers for the year. As a result, the schools suffer by the frequent change of teachers, and the whole body of teachers is continually changing, by reason of the insecurity of positions and the short term of service. The whole

body changes on an average every three and one-half years. Besides, the districts are in many cases so small, schools having from six to twelve pupils, that their very poverty compels them to have short terms and cheap teachers.

*Graded Schools of Cities and Villages.*

These schools of cities and villages are organised either under special charters, in which case they are called "Special Districts," or under a general law, in which case they are called "Independent Districts." The only important difference between the two classes is that in some cases, as the city of St. Paul, the School Board is an administrative body with limited powers, and is appointed by the Mayor.\* Further than this, the outline of the independent districts which I shall now give will apply to special districts as well.

The boundaries of independent districts correspond in nearly all cases with those of the municipality.

1. The general law fixes the number of the Board of Directors at six, and their term of service at three years. It also fixes the maximum limit of taxation that may be imposed, either for current expenses or for buildings.

2. The people annually elect officers and vote money for buildings and sites. Women are electors at school meetings and are also eligible to all school offices.

3. The Board of Directors is a corporate body, and has full control of the property of the district. It determines the length and the terms of school to be held, and votes the amount of tax to be levied for the current expenses of the school, for libraries, for apparatus, and for repairs. It elects a Superintendent of its schools, and an Examiner of its teachers, fixes a course of study, selects the text-books to be used, and, in short, has full control of the affairs of the school.

If the administration of this class of schools is compared with that of rural schools, it will be seen that in the latter the powers of the Board are quite limited, and that much of the power of initiative action is reposed in the people at their annual school meeting. On the other hand, in the independent district the power is largely centralised in the hands of the Board of Education, the people having no direct authority in the conduct of the schools beyond the election of officers as their representatives, and the provision of school buildings.

The grounds for this difference in method are, that in cities men and women of broad views, who intelligently comprehend the needs of the district, are likely to be chosen; that efficiency is secured by a centralised administration, and that the acts of the Board are more directly under the eye of the people, and therefore that the Board is more obedient to an intelligent public sentiment. This, together with the other fact, that the districts are larger and wealthier, appears in these characteristics:—

The school year is usually nine, and in some cases ten months. Teachers are employed by the year, and in many cases continued

\* See Appendix B.

at their own option. The schools are graded. The course of study covers eight years of elementary instruction, and, in all the better schools, four more years of high school instruction.

*Support of Common Schools.*

The financial support of the schools is from the following sources:—

1. The support afforded by the National Government which has already been explained.
2. The State levies an annual tax of one mill, or one-tenth of one per cent., on the State valuation. This amount is added to the revenue from the Permanent School Fund, and apportioned to the districts in proportion to the number of pupils who have been in attendance not less than forty days during the year.
3. The third source of support is local. The State requires each district to levy a tax of one mill upon its taxable property. It also requires the district to levy as much more as will make its entire levy equal to what it receives from the National and State Governments combined. In addition, the district votes whatever is required to meet the current expenses of the school.

*Statistics.*

	1898.	1900.
Number of districts - - - -	6,414	6,706
Number of pupils enrolled - -	384,063	399,207
Number of teachers:—		
Male - - - - 1,991		1,764
Female - - - - 5,927		6,114
Total - - - -	7,918	7,878
Number of teachers having taught three years or over in the same district - - - - -	622	628
Number of teachers having taught one year only in the district -	3,267	2,605
Average monthly wages:—		
Males - - - - -	\$30.00	\$38.30
Females - - - - -	\$31.00	\$31.08

*Support of Schools.*

	1898.	1900.
Current School Fund, apportioned -	\$1,020,216	\$1,295,459.98
Average rate of local taxation in mills - - - - -	11.31	11.48
Amount of apportionment to each scholar entitled—		
October - - - - -	\$2.50	\$2.73
March - - - - -	\$0.90	\$1.25
Paid for teachers' wages - - - - -	\$3,235,879	\$3,842,987.23
Appropriations for teachers' institutes and training schools - - -	\$27,000	\$27,000
Appropriation for support of State high schools - - - - -	\$48,000	\$65,000

## HIGH SCHOOLS.

The High School is the completion of the common school system, and what has been said of the control and support of the common schools by the National Government and by the State, applies to the High School as well.

But the High School sustains a twofold relation, in that it completes the common education, and also is preparatory to the higher education of the University. This second office calls for a more particular treatment.

In the early history of the country, secondary and higher education were represented by academies and colleges, generally under the control of private corporations and religious bodies. The academy was a preparatory school for the college. In the Western States, where the whole people, expressing their purpose by legislation, made provision for the education of all classes and for all callings, it appeared that the general Government had made no provision for secondary education. We had a University land grant and a Common School land grant, but none for secondary education. The great gap thus left was bridged in the following way. The cities, chiefly in the interest of their own business, extended the courses of their common schools to include what are known as high schools. These, in one way or another, provided the instruction required for entering upon a college course. Next, the University prefaced its course with a two-years preparatory department to meet and to supplement the work of the high schools. This was the imperfect and very unsatisfactory condition in 1881, when the State Legislature, in order to provide more general and thorough preparatory instruction, dropped the preparatory course in the University and instituted what is known as the State High School Board, consisting of the Governor of the State, the Superintendent of Public Instruction, and the President of the University. This Board has authority to inspect all high



schools applying, and to grant to each school 800 dollars upon condition that (1), it maintains a course of study preparatory to the University in a manner satisfactory to this Board; and (2) it admits without charge all students from other districts in the State who desire to pursue this course. The school year must be of nine months' duration.

The inspection of High Schools is as follows:—

1. An expert officer is employed by the High School Board, who gives all his time to the visitation and the improvement of the schools.

2. Annual written examinations are held in all schools under the supervision of the State Board, upon questions prepared by the Board, and for each subject passed a certificate is issued admitting the holder to the University in that subject.

As a result, (1) Students may complete their preparation and take their entrance examinations at their homes. (2) The several local communities are encouraged to support and to improve their high schools, for the better education of young men and women, whether for domestic and industrial pursuits, or in preparation for a higher education in College or University.

Regarding these schools, it is to be observed that:—

1. The schools coming under these provisions are entered upon this list upon the special application of the local board of education, and are distinguished as State High Schools.

2. The standard of admission and continuance upon the list is not a fixed course of study, nor a curriculum that is complete in preparation for the University. It is rather that of a good and growing school with four years of high school work, and satisfactory indications that the school is to be developed with reasonable expedition into a well equipped high school in its curriculum, in the quality of its teaching, and in its outfit of apparatus and library.

3. There is no payment according to results. Every school on the list receives the same amount, 400 dollars hitherto, and by enactment of the Legislature of 1899 the amount hereafter will be 800 dollars. The State Board has no authority in the management of the school. It fixes the conditions upon which a school is accepted. Its power is then limited to accepting and continuing, to rejecting and removing.

Statistics.

—	1898.	1900.
Whole number of State High Schools -	100	116
State appropriations for High Schools -	\$48,000	\$85,000
Aggregate enrolment - - - -	11,503	12,436
Number of non-resident pupils receiving free tuition - - - -	1,411	1,377
Number of final examination papers forwarded - - - -	14,859	20,181
Number of certificates granted- - -	10,748	15,838

STATE INSPECTION OF ELEMENTARY GRADED SCHOOLS.

For the improvement of graded schools of small villages which cannot support a high school, the State by the law of 1899 has appropriated to each 200 dollars annually, and has provided for State inspection. The conditions upon which these schools receive this grant are: Nine months school; at least four teachers; certain qualifications of teachers and principal; a suitable school building; a substantial school library, and such other equipment as is necessary for doing efficient school work; a regular and orderly course of study, embracing all such branches as may be required by the State High School Board.

Under this law a special Inspector gives his entire time to the supervision of the village schools. There are now 110 such schools receiving the aid.

In addition to the conditions above stated, the State High School Board requires each school to give free tuition to non-resident pupils of the 7th and 8th grades of school work. In 1898 there was an average of fifteen such pupils in each school. These pupils are generally boys and girls from country districts too small or too poor to furnish adequate educational facilities.

STATE SEMI-GRADED SCHOOLS AND STATE RURAL SCHOOLS.

The unsatisfactory condition of our rural schools is due in part to the low estimate in which education is held in many agricultural districts, in part to their opposition to submitting to rigid educational supervision, and in part to the selfish ambition of leading men to manage school affairs in their own interests. The result has been that politics has prevented efficient supervision, and we have the condition already described.

To improve the rural schools and to encourage the more appreciative districts to provide better teachers, for longer terms and at annual salaries, the State applies the method described above respecting high schools and elementary graded schools to semi-graded schools and to rural schools, except that it does not inspect these schools. This is left to County Superintendents.

The State gives annually 75 dollars to one-room rural schools, and 100 dollars to two- or three-roomed schools, provided these schools maintain school at least eight months each year, employ teachers holding first-grade or equivalent certificates, and have certain specified minimum equipment in buildings and supplies.

GRANTS.

The grants to schools under the law of 1899, amount to 162,000 dollars annually, and the benefit to the school system is out of all proportion to the money spent. The schools take pride in State recognition, and are ambitious to retain the aid even at an expense much exceeding the money received.

The grants are apportioned as follows:—

State High Schools - - - -	\$85,000
State Graded Schools - - - -	26,000
State Semi-Graded Schools - - - -	11,000
State Rural Schools - - - -	40,000
	<hr/>
	\$162,000

#### THE STATE UNIVERSITY.

The State University is organised and located by the Constitution of the State, and not by special charter. Its government rests in a Board of Regents of thirteen members. The Governor of the State, the Superintendent of Public Instruction, and the President of the University are members *ex officio*; the remaining ten are appointed for six years by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate. This body have entire control of all matters of finance subject to the Legislature. They establish Chairs and Departments, elect all instructors and fix their salaries, and recommend or improve all courses of study pursued.

The name "University" must be understood as an institution including the academic work of the college, graduate work as provided for in European Universities, and besides, the expansion of philosophical and scientific departments into technical schools as demanded by the industries. As the old universities expanded philosophy into the departments of law, theology, and medicine, the modern university, in like manner, has added the departments of applied science and philosophy, electrical, civil, and mining engineering agriculture, and pedagogy.

The development of the University in subjects and departments has been in response to the demands of public sentiment and public needs. Its early organisation in 1851 was interrupted by the financial stress of 1857, followed by the disturbances of the Civil War. Its present history dates from its new charter of 1862.

Its beginning in the early history of the State was without adequate preparatory schools. For this reason there were provided two years of preparatory instruction, and four years of collegiate or academic instruction. Since that time professional departments of Law and Medicine have been organised, the former in a three-years, the latter in a four-years course.

#### Agricultural Education.

When provision was made for the Agricultural College by means of the land grant of the general Government, the organisation was after the type of the established classical and scientific schools and colleges. When not attached as departments of established classical institutions, the faculty was very naturally, and perhaps necessarily, taken from classical institutions, and, following their own ideals, these schools became

literary and scientific schools with agricultural attachments. The result was that they educated their students into tastes and ambitions leading them into any pursuit rather than agriculture. To require a young man to have a literary preparation that fits him for entering upon collegiate training, and to provide agricultural education following, and as a part of collegiate education, is to give him an early direction that precludes making him an agriculturist. This was the experience of Minnesota, to the great dissatisfaction of the farmers of the State. Very few students even entered upon the course, scarcely any completed it, and none were known to give their attention to farming after graduation.

In the year 1888 the following scheme was proposed in the Board of Regents for the organisation of the School of Agriculture.

1. The purpose of this school is to give young men of a good common school education, and to those who have had a boyhood experience upon farms, such elementary training as will fit them to pursue intelligently and skilfully their calling.

2. The school is located on the State farm of 250 acres, about three miles from the city of Minneapolis.

3. In order to secure the attendance of boys who have had a farming life and experience, the school opens in October and continues until April.

4. The course is two and three years long, and consists in (1) instruction in English branches, in such use as is required by an intelligent business man. (2) Elementary manual training in wood and iron, such as will fit one to make and repair the ordinary implements and buildings of the farm. (3) Laboratory instruction in the elements of Chemistry and Physics, so far as is necessary to understand the ordinary processes of growth and fertilisation of soils and the like. (4) A study of the animals of the farm, in relation to their uses for milk, meat, working and breeding, and to their feeding and care. (5) Instruction in the making of butter and cheese, and in judging the quality of the same.

For the entire course all necessary provision is made in laboratories, barns, stock, and the like, by which all instruction is immediately applied to the work of the farm.

A most important provision is, that after having been under instruction for the six months of the winter, when they have most leisure, they then go out to their farms for the busy months of spring and summer. They are in this way enabled to earn money, put in practice the new ideas they have acquired, and, what is of the greatest importance, their attachment to and tastes for farm life are strengthened.

Then, supplementary to this, an agricultural course in the University is provided for a select few who wish to become proficient in the science of agriculture, as experts in agricultural experimentation, and as teachers.

The results have been exceedingly satisfactory in these regards:—

1. The school is wholly free from the domination of the classical and literary spirit of the University. It does not measure itself socially or in its learning by the standards of the classical department. It is independent in spirit, and claims for itself equal rank with other institutions and courses.

2. The school is thoroughly established in the confidence of the agricultural classes, which appears in the fact that no department of the University receives such generous appropriations, and is looked upon by the Legislature, which in a large degree represents agricultural districts, with such favour as the School of Agriculture.

The following table will show the growth and patronage of the school:

	1888.	1899.
Number of pupils - - - -	47	312
Percentage from farm life - - - -	—	80
Percentage who enter upon some agricultural industry - - - -	—	90

The phenomenal success of the School of Agriculture for Boys led to the demand by the agriculturists for the addition of a department for the daughters of farmers, in which they would be given practical instruction in those domestic and industrial occupations that belong to country life. It was urged that the principle of co-education, which thus far has been the rule in our system of education, should apply in the interests of the daughters, as well as of the sons, of farmers.

A separate hall has been erected for young ladies, and a liberal course of instruction has been laid out. In addition to the common English branches it includes theoretical and practical instruction in Domestic Economy, Cooking, Sewing, Dairying, Horticulture, and other subjects of kindred nature.

This department was opened in 1897, and is thoroughly established in the confidence of the public.

Statistics—1898-99.

	Income.	Capital.
Value of grounds and buildings - - -		\$1,572,000
Value of scientific apparatus - - -		90,000
Productive funds - - - -		1,307,219
From tuition and other fees - - -	\$91,000	
From productive funds - - - -	55,429	
State or municipal appropriations - - -	129,335	
From United States Government - - -	39,000	
From other sources - - - -	58,777	
<b>Total Income - - - -</b>	<b>\$373,541</b>	

*Attendance.*

—	1898.	1900.
Graduate students - - - - -	184	177
College of science, literature and arts . . . . .	934	936
College of engineering, mechanic arts and school of mines	181	286
Department of agriculture . . . . .	470	503
College of law - - - - -	439	528
Department of medicine - - - - -	409	556
Summer school—University section - - - - -	302	389
Total - - - - -	2,919	3,375

## THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS.

All teachers in the public schools are required to hold certificates of legal qualification, which are issued upon special examination, and to those who have completed the prescribed courses of the professional schools for teachers. These schools are:

I.—*State Normal Schools.*

These schools, of which there are now four, and a fifth soon to be opened at Duluth, prepare teachers in courses of three and four years for the graded schools below the High schools.

Admission is given to those who have completed a good common school education. The instruction in the elementary course is in the branches taught in the common schools, methods and principles of teaching the same, and training in practice under the supervision of expert critics. The advanced course extends over one and two years more, and comprises instruction in the elements of Latin and the natural sciences, together with a more extended course in Psychology and the History of Education.

The instruction given in Normal Schools has necessarily been largely in subject matter; but as the High schools have increased in number and efficiency, a strictly professional course has been organised, to which the graduates of high schools are admitted and given instruction in the art and theory of teaching, and training in the schools of practice. This course extends through one year.

Statistics.

	1898-9.
Value of buildings, etc. - - - - -	\$746,100
Annual appropriation for current expenses - -	\$125,000
Number of students :—	
Male - - - - -	437
Female - - - - -	1,698
Total - - - - -	2,135
Number of graduates :—	
Male - - - - -	25
Female - - - - -	242
Total - - - - -	267

II.—Summer Schools for Teachers.

The number of teachers supplied by Normal Schools is wholly inadequate to meet the demands of rural schools, for the reason that the graded schools of cities and villages offer greater inducements in better salaries and more permanent engagements. The latter therefore absorb the greater part of all those graduated by the normal schools. The greater number of teachers in rural schools have no special training, and provision is made for their improvement in what are known as Summer Training Schools.

These are movable schools of four weeks each, located by the Superintendent of Public Instruction in the various counties of the State. Short courses of instruction are given in elementary branches, and in methods of teaching and school management. They are supported by State appropriation, and are free to teachers. The cost of a school of fifty teachers is about 100 dollars a week.

One of these schools is for the entire State. It is held at the University and is organized in two sections, Elementary and Advanced. The Elementary section is conducted in the interest of the teachers of graded schools of the State, while the Advanced is for those who teach in high schools. The purpose of this school is to improve teachers in the subjects which they teach, and to inform them upon the progress of educational ideas and problems.

Statistics.

	1898.	1900.
Number of Summer Schools - - - -	45	41
Number of teachers enrolled - - - -	5,642	4,818
State appropriation for Summer Schools and Institutes - - - - -	\$27,000	\$27,000

## SCHOOLS FOR DEFECTIVES.

The children who are defective in sight, hearing, or intelligence, and who thereby cannot be taught in the common schools, are provided for by the State in three separate institutions located in the city of Faribault. In these they are provided with homes and are given an education adapted to their condition.

*The Blind.*

The school for the blind is free to all blind children in the State between the ages of eight and twenty-six years. Board, care, and tuition are furnished without charge.

The school is equipped with all the appliances of a modern school of this class. Special instruction is given in music and in manual training and industrial work, such as sloyd, broom-making, hammock-weaving, bead-work, basket-work, and sewing. The course of study embraces a period of seven years, beginning with the kindergarten and ending with the usual English studies at the beginning of the high school.

During the year ending July 31, 1900, there were 90 pupils enrolled, of whom 56 were males and 34 females.

*The Deaf.*

This school is free to all deaf children between eight and twenty-five years of age, whose parents or guardians are citizens of the State. The school course is seven years, which, by a vote of the Directors, may be extended three years. About one-third of the time is devoted to industrial training in trades, such as boot and shoe making for boys, with printing, carpentry and cabinet making and baking; and for girls, dressmaking, plain sewing and cooking.

The enrolment for the year ending July 1st, 1900, was 252; 148 boys and 104 girls.

*The Feeble-minded.*

This school was opened in 1882, and to it were transferred many children who, for want of better provision, had been sent to the school for the deaf and to the insane asylums.

The main building, costing \$200,000, is divided into a north wing for girls and a south wing for boys, and a central part for administrative rooms, hospital, assembly hall, industrial rooms and the culinary department.

The children are grouped into "families" for home life, each group being under the care of an attendant during the hours when not in school. This grouping is arranged both according to age and congeniality. In the schoolrooms the groupings are arranged according to comparative mental ability.

During the year 1899-1900 the enrolment was—males, 377, and females, 348. Of this number 234 were in the training department. A large percentage become self-supporting.



## SCHOOL FOR DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN.

This school, known as the State Public School, was established in 1885. It provides a temporary home and school for the dependent and neglected children of the State.

In the school all bodily wants are cared for, and instruction is given in morals and the common school branches. The average time of retention being ten months, no systematic training in trades is undertaken; but all are well occupied in the various industries and services of this State home.

Through an organized State agency children are provided with homes in families, which are regularly visited to learn of the condition and care that is given the children.

Up to January 1, 1899, there had been received from 72 of the 82 counties, 1,824 children—1,131 boys and 693 girls. Of this number all but 233, then in the school, had been placed in family homes. Of those so placed 1,030 still remained under the supervision of the school. Information gained by visitation showed that 83 per cent. had developed into young men and women of good character. The cost of the entire property has been 203,743 dollars.

## THE REFORM SCHOOL.

A school is established by the State at the city of Red Wing for the care, corrective discipline and industrial training of youths under 21 years of age who are otherwise incorrigible, or who have been guilty of crime. The aim is to counteract the results of idleness and evil companionship by moral and intellectual instruction and by a training to habits of industry through useful and remunerative occupations.

In 1895 the name of the school was changed to the Minnesota State Training School for Boys and Girls. This was to avoid the appearance of separating these youths from society and identifying them with the criminal classes.

The school is organized on what is known as the "open family plan." The school is divided into families of from 50 to 75, according to ages, each family being in charge of a family manager, a teacher, and a housekeeper.

The number of inmates, July 31, 1898, was 275 boys and 45 girls. The cost of grounds and buildings has been 307,037 dollars. The *per capita* cost of caring for the inmates has been 185 dollars.

## THE REFORMATORY PRISON.

This outline of the various methods by which the principles of education are applied for the improvement of society would not be complete without a brief description of its application to prison discipline. The basis of the old prison discipline is primitive. The criminal must suffer, and although it may

prevent him from repeating the offence, or may deter others through the example, it seldom if ever makes a good citizen out of the criminal.

The Reformatory Prison, which is located at St. Cloud, applies the penalties of law in ways that tend to correct evil habits and immoral dispositions, and so restore the offender to citizenship. The young who have not gone far and have not become inured to crime are committed to this reformatory. The sentence is conditional. The penalty is separation from all society and occupation at some useful industry. All are entered in the third class, with a garb indicating the class; good behaviour and industry promote to a second and a first class, and finally to a parole out of prison which is continued provided the person lives respectably.

#### SPECIAL TOPICS.

##### I.—*Education and Religion.*

Although the political philosophy of France has had much to do in giving form to American government, and in defining the entire separation of Church and State, it must be borne in mind that the attitude of the American people towards religion is that which they inherited from the "mother country," and the same that they brought with them as the foundation of the new commonwealth.

The relation of religion to education is expressed in the Ordinance of 1787: "Article III Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be for ever encouraged."

The attitude of the National Government is this: That as the supreme institution guarding the rights of all its citizens, in the pursuit of all their interests, secular and religious, its greatness lies in the prosperity of all. Yet it makes political alliance with no man, no class of men, and no institution. Of all others, those that promote the virtue and benevolence of the people, and which foster the highest ideals of life, are most generously recognised and fostered by the State.

That religion is considered an essential element in the American State appears in the administration of oaths, the appointment of a day of thanksgiving to God, the opening of sessions of Congress and Legislatures with prayer, and in the appointment of chaplains and religious instructors for schools under the care of the State, the youth of which have had no religious instruction in their homes, as for prison, reform schools, schools for defectives, and for indigent children. The prohibition of the State is against any instruction in forms and doctrines that characterise any particular institutional form of religion.

As a consequence of this attitude of the State, it has been incorrectly inferred that irreligion is the religion of the State,

and that its purpose is to exclude its youth from the influences of Christianity.

The present obstacle lies, not in the irreligion of the people nor in the atheism of the State, but in the claim by religious bodies that the teaching of religious history and morality is the exclusive province of the institution, and in the assumption that all such instruction has for its purpose the bringing of persons into their respective communions. With this in view, all agree in forbidding anyone to teach who does not belong to a religious community, and are even suspicious of instruction given by one belonging to another communion than their own.

If it is asked whether the history and precepts of Christianity will ever become a part of our common school system, I reply that this may be possible when the several institutions, or denominations, or churches that are representative of Christianity shall agree upon what history, truths and principles are fairly representative of Christianity and are of first importance in the formation of character; and, second, when instruction in the same is freely allowed upon conditions of moral and intellectual qualification without regard to ecclesiastical authority.

#### II.—*Compulsory Attendance.*

This State, in common with many of the other States of the Union, has a law requiring the attendance of children between six and fourteen years of age for at least twelve weeks each year. It must be confessed, however, that it is practically a dead letter in this State, as it is in most others.

The chief reason is that it is contrary to the genius of our government. The assumption is that education, like wealth and industry, is something that all desire for their children, and the best the State can do is to place it within their reach. The intent of the law is to require parents to give their children the advantages to which they are entitled, but the great consideration which is given parents in the conduct of their family affairs has thus far rather protected them in the neglect of their children.

The only noticeable progress made in compulsory attendance has been the enforcement of the "Factory Law," which prohibits the employment of children under 14 years of age who have not attended school at least 12 weeks during the year. But as Minnesota is largely an agricultural State the operation of this law has not had very important results.

For a digest of all laws of the several States on this subject, see the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for the years 1893-94, Vol. II

#### III.—*Free Education.*

The State provides the opportunity of education to all its youth from the primary schools through the University without charge. This applies to what is usually recognised as education for general culture, and preparatory for special vocations.

The limit, however, is not clearly defined. In the early years the elements of industrial training are introduced, as sloyd and manual training, sewing and cooking. In the University, Civil, Electrical and Mining Engineering, and Agriculture are free, and rank with the College of Literature, Science and the Arts. When the subjects are taught with a view to professional preparation, tuition is charged sufficient to defray the cost of instruction, the buildings and equipment being provided by the State.

Under this regulation the following courses are offered at the University:—

Course.	Years.	Annual Tuition.
Law - - - - -	3	\$50-00
Medicine - - - - -	4	\$100-00
Dentistry - - - - -	3	\$100-00
Pharmacy - - - - -	2	\$80-00

At two of the Normal Schools the State has provided halls for students; the cost of board, however, is paid by the student. The State in no department of its public schools provides a living for students. The presumption is that any young man or woman who has sufficient force of character and intellectual ability to warrant a higher education will be able to gain it without such aid. Many students in our colleges and universities pay their expenses in whole or in part by working in vacations, and in term time giving some hours daily to work, such as distributing daily papers, waiting on restaurant tables, and in looking after the "chores" of a family.

D. L. KIEHLE.

University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

[The foregoing paper was prepared by Professor Kiehle in September, 1899. In order to bring it up to date, it has been revised, and appendices have been prepared, by Miss Beard and Miss Matheson of the Board of Education Library, the new statistics, etc., being taken from the Report of the U.S. Commissioner of Education 1898-9, and the Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, State of Minnesota, 1899-1900.—Ed.]

## APPENDIX A.

## SCHOOL LAW OF MINNESOTA, CHAPTER 352, 1899.

To encourage a better condition of the public schools and to appropriate money therefor. Public high graded, semi-graded and rural schools.

## ARTICLE I.

SECTION 1. The governor, superintendent of public instruction and the president of the University of Minnesota, ex-officio, are hereby constituted a board of commissioners on graded and preparatory schools for the encouragement of higher education in this state. Said board shall be called the "State High School Board," and shall perform the duties and exercise the powers hereinafter mentioned. High school position of.

The members of said board shall serve without compensation, but shall be entitled to their actual and necessary expenses.

SEC. 2. The state high school board is hereby authorized to appoint a suitable person to inspect high schools who shall be called the "High School Inspector." High school

It shall be the duty of such inspector to visit each high school in the state and make a report thereon as hereinafter provided and to perform such other duties as may be required by the board.

The salary of the high school inspector shall be fixed by the high school board, and he shall also receive necessary travelling expenses to be paid in the same manner as provided by law in the case of state officials.

The high school board shall also appoint a suitable person to inspect state graded schools who shall be called "Graded School Inspector," and whose duties shall be similar to those of the high school inspector. Graded school inspector

The salary of the graded school inspector shall be fixed by the high school board, and he shall also receive necessary travelling expenses, to be paid in the same manner as state officials. Said board may employ such assistant examiners as shall be found necessary to carry out the provisions of this act; Assistant examiners.

Provided, no such assistant examiner shall be paid a compensation to exceed three (3) dollars per day, or fifty (50) cents per hour for services actually performed, and no compensation shall be paid to any person receiving a salary from any state institution.

SEC. 3. The state high school board shall have power to establish necessary and suitable rules and regulations relating to examinations, reports, acceptance of schools, courses of studies and other proceedings in connection with high and graded schools claiming state aid. Board to establish regulations and courses of study.

SEC. 4. The said board shall keep a careful record of all its proceedings, and shall on or before the first (1st) day of September in each year make a report to the superintendent of public instruction covering the previous year, showing in detail all receipts and disbursements, the names and number of high and graded schools receiving aid and the number of pupils attending the classes in each, to which report it may add such recommendations as is deemed useful and proper. Board to keep record of proceedings.

## ARTICLE II.

SEC. 5. The public schools of this state entitled to state aid as herein provided shall, for the purpose of this act, be divided into four (4) classes, as follows, viz.:

- State high schools.
- State graded schools.
- State semi-graded schools, and state rural schools

**State high schools.** Sec. 6. Any public graded school in any city or incorporated village or any township graded school in this state which shall comply with the provisions of this act, may become a state high school entitled to aid as herein provided.

**Conditions for becoming state high school.** Sec. 7. In order to be entitled to state aid as a state high school, such school shall have first fully complied with the following conditions, viz. :  
 First—It shall have maintained for the school year next preceding that for which aid is granted at least nine (9) months school.

Second—It shall admit students of either sex from any part of the state without charge for tuition, but no such school shall be required to admit non-residents unless they shall pass an examination in all the common school branches pursued and completed in the eighth (8th) grade of the graded schools of this state, viz. : Arithmetic, English grammar, geography and United States history.

Third—It shall have regular and orderly courses of study, embracing all the branches prescribed by the state high school board, as prerequisite for admission to the collegiate department of the University of Minnesota.

Fourth—It shall be subject to such rules and regulations, not inconsistent with this act, as may be prescribed by the state high school board, and such school shall be open to visitation by any member of said board or the high school inspector at all times.

**Visiting of high schools.** Sec. 8. The state high school board shall cause each high school receiving aid under this act to be visited at least once in each school year by the high school inspector or such assistant as it may appoint, who shall carefully inspect the instruction and discipline of the classes and make a written report on the same immediately, and no money shall be paid in any case until such report shall have been received and examined by the board, and the work of such school approved by a vote of said board.

**Applications for state aid.** Sec. 9. The said high school board shall receive applications from such schools for State aid and shall apportion to each of said schools which shall have fully complied with the provisions of this act and the rules of the board relating to state high schools, and whose applications shall have been approved by the board, the sum of eight hundred (800) dollars in each year : *provided, however,* that in case the amount appropriated and available under this act for the payment of aid to such schools shall, in any year, be insufficient to apportion to each of such state high schools as are entitled thereto the full amount of eight hundred (800) dollars, then in such case such amount as is appropriated and available shall be apportioned pro rata among all the schools entitled thereto.

**Powers of board as to applications for aid.** Sec. 10. The high school board shall have full discretionary power to consider and act upon applications of high schools for state aid, and, subject to the provisions of this act, may prescribe the conditions upon which such aid will be granted ; and it shall be its duty to accept and aid such high schools only as will, in its opinion, if aided efficiently perform the services contemplated by law ; but not more than five (5) schools shall be aided in each county in any one year.

Any school accepted and continuing to comply with the law and regulations of the board, made in pursuance thereof, shall be aided not less than two (2) years.

**Promotion of graded school to high school.** In case any state graded school, as hereinafter provided, shall have attained such a degree of proficiency as to entitle it to promotion to a high school, and the state high schools in the county have already reached the number of five (5), such graded school, in the discretion of the board, may be so promoted, and take the place of the high school in the county first receiving state aid for the period of at least two (2) years ; that any state high school so deprived of state aid shall continue under the supervision of the board, with all the privileges, except state aid, of a preparatory school for the University of Minnesota.

## ARTICLE III.

SEC. 11. Any public school in any town or village, or any township graded school in the state, not entitled to aid as a state high school, but fully complying with the provisions of this act relating to state graded schools, may receive such aid as hereinafter provided for state graded schools. Conditions of receiving aid by graded schools.

SEC. 12. In order to be entitled to aid as a state grade school, such school shall have fully complied with the following conditions, viz :

First—It shall have maintained for the school year next preceding that for which aid is granted at least nine (9) months school.

Second—It shall be well organized, having at least four (4) departments in charge of a principal and teachers having such qualifications as may be required under the rules established by the state high school board ; *provided*, such principal shall be a graduate from the advanced course of a state normal school, or the academic or pedagogical department of some reputable college or state university, or have a first grade certificate, or state professional certificate.

Third—Such school shall have suitable school buildings, a substantial library and such other apparatus as is necessary for doing efficient work.

Fourth—It shall have a regular and orderly course of study embracing all such branches as may be required under rules enacted by the state high school board.

SEC. 13. Said board shall cause each graded school in the state, claiming aid under the provisions of this act, to be visited at least once in each year by the graded school inspector or an assistant inspector, who shall carefully inspect the instruction and discipline of the classes and see that such school is complying with the provisions of this act and the rules established by said board, and make a written report on the same immediately ; and no money shall be paid in any case until such report shall have been received and examined and the work of such school approved by a vote of the high school board. Grade schools, how visited.

SEC. 14. The said board shall receive applications from such schools for state aid and shall apportion to each of the said graded schools which shall have complied with the provisions of this act and the rules of the board relating to state graded schools, and whose applications shall have been approved by such board, the sum of two hundred (200) dollars in each year ; *provided, however*, that in case the amount appropriated and available under this act for the payment of aid to such schools shall in any year be insufficient to apportion to each of such state graded schools as are entitled thereto the full amount of two hundred (200) dollars, then in such case such amount as is appropriated and available shall be apportioned pro rata among all the schools entitled thereto ; and *provided, further*, no graded school which shall be connected with or in the same district with a state high school shall receive any aid under the provisions of this act. State aid, how apportioned.

SEC. 15. When any state graded school shall have attained such a degree of proficiency as to satisfy the trustees thereof that it has the qualifications necessary to entitle it to be advanced to the class of state high schools and to receive aid as such, said trustees may make application to the state high school board to have such graded school raised to the class of state high school, and if upon an examination into the records and standing of such school, the board is satisfied that it has attained a standard of curriculum, teachers and daily work, complying with all the requirements necessary to entitle it to a promotion, the said board may raise such state graded school to a state high school, entitling it to state aid as such Graded school, how admitted as high school

ARTICLE IV.

**Semi-graded schools, how admitted as such.** SEC. 16. Any common school district in this state, or any public school in any hamlet or village, or any township graded school in this state, not entitled to state aid as a high school or graded school, but fully complying with the conditions of this act relating to state semi-graded schools, may receive such aid as is hereinafter provided for state semi-graded schools.

SEC. 17. In order to be entitled to aid as a state semi-graded school, such school shall have first fully complied with the following conditions, viz. :—

First—It shall have maintained for the school year next preceding that for which aid is granted at least eight (8) months school.

Second—It shall be well organized, having at least two (2) departments under the supervision of proficient teachers, at least one of whom shall hold a first grade certificate, or a diploma that is valid as a certificate from the advanced course of a normal school of this state, or a diploma from the advanced course of a normal school of another state which has been approved by the superintendent of public instruction, or a professional state certificate ; and all other departments of such school shall be taught by teachers having at least a second grade certificate.

Third—It shall have a suitable school building, out-houses or other necessary accommodations, a library and such apparatus as is necessary for doing efficient work.

Fourth—Such school shall have a regular and orderly course of study and shall comply with such rules as may be established by the superintendent of public instruction.

**Applications for state aid as semi-graded schools.** SEC. 18. Applications from districts for the aid herein provided, in the case of state semi-graded schools, shall be made to the superintendents of schools in the counties in which such schools are located.

County superintendents shall forward to the state superintendent of public instruction such applications as are endorsed and recommended by them, together with the certificate of the superintendent of the county wherein the district making such application is situated, to the effect that such district has fully complied with all the conditions mentioned in section seventeen (17) of this act.

**Aid, how apportioned.** SEC. 19. The said superintendent of public instruction shall apportion to each of the said schools which shall have fully complied with the provisions of this act, and such rules of a general nature as may be established by him relating to semi-graded schools, the sum of one hundred (100) dollars in each year ; *provided, however,* that in case the amount appropriated and available under this act for the payment of aid to such schools shall in any year be insufficient to apportion to each of such state semi-graded schools as are entitled thereto the full amount of one hundred (100) dollars, then in such case such amount as is appropriated and available shall be apportioned pro rata among all the schools entitled thereto.

**Record to be kept by state superintendent.** SEC. 20. The said superintendent of public instruction shall keep a record showing all schools applying for and receiving state aid as state semi-graded schools in each year and a detailed account of all moneys received by him and disbursed for such purpose.

**State superintendent to establish regulations.** The said superintendent is also authorised to establish such rules of a general nature as shall be found necessary to secure uniformity and the best results among schools receiving such state aid.

**Semi-graded schools how raised to graded schools.** SEC. 21. When any state semi-graded school in this state has attained such a degree of proficiency as to satisfy the superintendent of schools of the county wherein such school is situated that it has the qualifications necessary to entitle it to be advanced to the class of state graded schools,



the said superintendent may recommend the same to the state high school board for such advancement, and if upon an examination into the records and standing of such school the board becomes satisfied that it fully complies with all the requirements necessary to entitle it to promotion, such board may raise it to a state graded school, entitling it to aid as such.

## ARTICLE V.

SEC. 22. Any common school district in this state not located in any Rural incorporated village or city, and not entitled to state aid as a high school, schools, how graded school, or semi-graded school, but fully complying with the conditions of this act relating to state rural schools, may receive aid as such hereinafter provided for state rural schools.

SEC. 23. In order to be entitled to aid as a state rural school such school shall have first fully complied with the following conditions, viz.:

First. Such school shall have maintained during the school year next preceding that for which aid is granted at least eight (8) months school.

Second. It shall be taught by a teacher holding a first grade certificate, or a professional State certificate, or a diploma from one of the normal schools in the State, endorsed according to law, or a diploma from a normal school of another State which has been approved by the superintendent of public instruction.

Third. It shall have a suitable school building, outhouses, a library, and such other apparatus as is necessary for doing efficient work.

SEC. 24. Applications from districts for aid as herein provided for in Applications case of state rural schools shall be made to the superintendent of schools for state aid of the counties in which such schools are located. County superintendents shall forward to the state superintendents of public instruction such applications as are endorsed and recommended by them, together with the certificate of the superintendent of the county wherein the district making such application is situated, to the effect that such district has fully complied with all the conditions mentioned in section twenty-three (23) of this act.

SEC. 25. Said superintendent of public instruction shall apportion to State aid, each of said schools fully complying with the provisions of this act, and how such rules of a general nature as may be established by him in relation to apportioned. state rural schools the sum of seventy-five (75) dollars in each year; provided, however, that in case the amount appropriated and available under this act for the payment of aid to such schools shall in any year be insufficient to apportion to each of such state rural schools as are entitled thereto the full amount of seventy-five (75) dollars, then in such case such amount as is appropriated and available shall be apportioned *pro rata* among all the schools entitled thereto.

SEC. 26. The superintendent of public instruction shall keep a record which shall show all schools applying for and receiving aid as state rural schools in each year and a detailed account of all moneys received by him and disbursed for such purpose. The said superintendent is also authorized to establish such rules of a general nature as shall be found necessary to secure uniformity and the best results among schools receiving state aid as state rural schools. Record to be kept by state superintendent.

SEC. 27. The superintendent of public instruction shall include in his Biennial report a comprehensive statement of all receipts and disbursements, the names and number of schools in each class receiving aid, the number of pupils attending the classes in each and the cost of supervision of all schools receiving aid under this act for the years covered by such report; to which report may be added an estimate of the appropriations necessary to meet the requirements of this act for the succeeding two (2) years and such other recommendations as he shall deem useful and proper. Report of state superintendent.

Appropriations for high, graded, semi-graded and rural schools.

Sec. 28. For the purpose of carrying the provisions of this act into effect the following sums are hereby appropriated annually, to be paid out of any moneys in the state treasury not otherwise appropriated, viz. .

For aid to state high schools the sum of eighty-five thousand (85,000) dollars.

For aid to state graded schools the sum of twenty-six thousand (26,000) dollars.

For the necessary expenses of the state high school board and the salaries and travelling expenses of the high school and graded school inspectors, in a sum not to exceed nine thousand five hundred (9,500) dollars, shall be drawn from the annual appropriations herein made for high and graded schools in proportion to the respective amounts appropriated to each, which sum shall become available on the first (1st) day of August, one thousand eight hundred and ninety-nine (1899).

For aid to state semi-graded schools the sum of eleven thousand (11,000) dollars.

For aid to state rural schools the sum of forty thousand (40,000) dollars, which amounts or so much thereof as shall be necessary shall be paid on the warrants of the superintendent of public instruction drawn on the state auditor.

*Provided*, the first annual appropriation herein provided for shall become available August first (1st), nineteen hundred (1900), for the school year ending July thirty-first (31st), nineteen hundred (1900).

School laws repealed.

Sec. 29. Chapter one hundred and forty-four (144) of the General Laws of eighteen hundred and eighty-one (1881), as amended by chapter one hundred and one (101) of the General Laws of eighteen hundred and ninety-three (1893); chapter sixty-one (61) of the General Laws of eighteen hundred and eighty-one (1881), extra session, as amended by chapter forty (40) of the General Laws of eighteen hundred and eighty-three (1883); chapter one hundred and eighty-three (183) of the General Laws of eighteen hundred and ninety-five (1895), and chapter two hundred and fifty-nine (259) of the General Laws of eighteen hundred and ninety-seven (1897), as amended by house file number one hundred and thirty-five (135) of the thirty-first session of the legislature of Minnesota, approved March eleventh (11th), eighteen ninety-nine (1899); chapter one hundred and fifty-one (151) of the General Laws of one thousand eight hundred and eighty-three (1883), and chapter two hundred and fifty-six (256) of the General Laws of eighteen hundred and ninety-seven (1897), and all acts and parts of acts inconsistent with this act are hereby repealed.

## APPENDIX B.

CONSTITUTION OF THE LOCAL EDUCATIONAL AUTHORITY IN THE  
CITIES OF MINNEAPOLIS AND ST. PAUL.\*

The cities of Minneapolis and St. Paul are situated within ten miles of one another in the State of Minnesota. A short account of some of the principal features of the Constitution of the Educational Authority in each of these two cities is given below as affording a striking example of the varieties of organisation which may exist side by side in the same State, and which are all covered by the common name of "School Board."

## MINNEAPOLIS.

## ST. PAUL.

*Name of Educational Authority.*

Board of Education.

Board of School Inspectors.

*Number of Members. How elected.*

The Board of Education consists of 7 School Directors elected by the people at the time of, and as a part of, the general biennial election for State and County Officers, but on a separate ballot.

The Board of School Inspectors consists of seven persons appointed by the Mayor.

*Term of Office.*

The term of office is six years, two school directors being elected every two years, except every sixth year, when three are elected.

The term of office is three years two School Inspectors being appointed every year except every third year, when three are appointed.

*Vacancies, how filled.*

Vacancies are filled at the next annual election for the unexpired term of office.

Vacancies are filled by the Mayor for the unexpired term of office.

*Officers of the Board.*

The Officers consist of a President and Secretary, who must be School Directors. The City Treasurer and City Controller are Treasurer and Controller, respectively, of the Board. The Officers are elected annually.

The Board elects a President, Vice-President, and Secretary to serve for one year, and a Superintendent of Public Schools to serve for two years.

*General Powers of the Board.*

The Board of Education is a legal Corporation, has a common seal, and is capable of suing and being sued, of buying, receiving, selling, and conveying real or personal property, and of making and enforcing contracts. The title to all real and personal public school property in the City is vested in the Board.

The Board of School Inspectors is not a corporation, and cannot sue or be sued or hold property, all contracts being made in the name of the City of St. Paul, and the title to all property being vested in the city.

\* Compiled from the Report of the Commissioner of Education (U.S.A.), 1895-96, Vol. I., Chap. I., Laws relating to City School Boards.

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in the State of Minnesota.*

*Authority to Levy Taxes.*

The Board of Education is authorized and empowered to levy upon the taxable property in the city such taxes as will raise sufficient sums of money for all school purposes, including purchase of sites and buildings and expenses of maintenance of the same, but the aggregate levy must never exceed in any one year 4 mills on the dollar of assessed valuation.

The Board must make return of the annual levy of taxes to the County Auditor, and the taxes are collected by county officers at the same time and in the same manner as State and county taxes, and the full amount paid over to the City Treasurer to the credit of the Board of Education.

*Authority to obtain Sites and erect School Buildings, etc.*

The Board of Education may purchase real estate for school purposes if six directors vote for such purchase, and may sell or convey the same on the vote of five directors. They have also compulsory powers of acquiring real estate whenever it is deemed expedient to do so. The Board may hire or erect and maintain school-houses, and has entire control and management of all the common schools of the city.

The expense of the Public Schools is limited to the amount appropriated by the Common Council. The tax imposed by the Council may not be greater than 2½ mills, nor less than 2 mills, on the dollar of assessed valuation. All school moneys are paid to the City Treasurer, and the City Treasurer and Controller report to the Board of Inspectors every month as to the amount of funds in the City Treasury set apart by the Council for educational purposes.

The Board of School Inspectors must report annually to the Council as to the need of new buildings, specifying as nearly as possible the cost of the sites required and the probable cost of suitable buildings. If the state of the school fund justifies it, the Council by a three-quarter vote may empower the Mayor and the President of the Board of Inspectors to obtain the necessary sites and erect suitable buildings, in accordance with plans and estimates submitted by the Board of Inspectors. The Board of School Inspectors have the care, custody and control of school-houses. They cannot, however, purchase their own supplies, but must make a yearly statement to the Mayor of what are required. These are then advertised for and obtained by a Committee of the Council.

*Authority to employ and dismiss Teachers etc.*

The Board of Education has power to employ superintendents and teachers, and to make rules and regulations for the government of the schools and for the employment and examination of teachers, prescribing their powers and duties. They also make rules for the grading and classification of pupils and prescribe the course of study, books to be used, etc.

The Board of School Inspectors have full power to employ and dismiss teachers, the City Council having no control over them in this respect. Teachers serve during the pleasure of the Board, and after one year's successful service are not subject to annual elections.

The Board reports yearly to the Mayor on the subject of teachers' salaries, specifying in detail the salaries proposed for the coming year. This report is transmitted to the Council, who may reduce the total amount, but may not raise it nor may they fix the salary of any teacher.

NOTE ON SCHOOL ATTENDANCE IN THE PUBLIC  
SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE following table shows for a number of years the chief  
statistical items dealing with the question of school attendance  
for the whole of the United States.

TABLE A.

	1899-70.	1879-80.	1890-00.	1894-95.	1898-99.	1899-
total population . . . . .	35,558,871	50,155,788	62,622,250	69,108,780	78,000,220	75.2
persons 5 to 18 years of age . . . . .	12,055,448	15,065,707	18,548,201	20,869,207	21,280,774	22.1
different pupils enrolled . . . . .	6,871,622	9,807,505	12,722,681	14,243,765	15,188,715	15.1
percentage of total population enrolled . . . . .	17.22	19.67	20.32	20.61	20.47	
percentage of persons 5 to 18 enrolled . . . . .	57	65.6	68.61	69.68	69.34	
average daily attendance . . . . .	4,077,347	6,144,148	8,163,635	9,548,722	10,880,407	10.1
ratio of same to enrolment . . . . .	59.3	62.3	64.1	67	68.6	
average length of school term (days) . . . . .	132.2	130.3	134.7	139.5	143.2	
total number of days attended by all pupils . . . . .	530,058,423	800,719,970	1,098,222,725	1,331,775,974	1,488,076,162	1,520.
average number of days attended by each person between 5 and 18.	44.7	53.1	59.2	65.1	68.2	
average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled.	78.4	81.1	80.3	92.9	96.3	

[U. S. Commissioner of Education: Report 1899-1900, Vol. 1, p. xii.]

It must not, however, be assumed that the conditions of school attendance are uniform throughout the United States. In actual fact it is far otherwise, as may be seen from the two following tables, and in perusing the table given above, it must not be forgotten that it includes public secondary schools as well as primary. In no State does the age of compulsory attendance extend up to 18 years of age. The actual age limits now in force are shown in Table B, which is taken from the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1899-1900. From this tabulated statement it will be seen that 14 States have no legislative enactment on this matter; in *one* State the statutory period is from 6 to 14; in *one* from 6 to 16; in *one* from 7 to 13; in *four* from 7 to 14; in *two* from 7 to 15; in *three* from 7 to 16; in *thirteen* from 8 to 14; in *one* from 8 to 15; in *four* from 8 to 16; for *five* States the information is not available. Thus it will be seen that one State fixes the upper limit at 13; 18 at 14; three at 15 and eight at 16.

Another factor of supreme importance in estimating the value of such compulsory attendance is the length of the school term. This varies from 70 days per annum in North Carolina to 189 days in Massachusetts and Connecticut. The figures for each State and for the divisions into which they are grouped are shown in Table C.

TABLE B.—Showing the Age Limits of Compulsory and Free Attendance at School.

	Age Limits of Compulsory Attendance.	Age Limits of Free Attendance.		Age Limits of Compulsory Attendance.	Age Limits of Free Attendance.
ATLANTIC DIVISION:			NORTH CENTRAL DIVISION:		
Alabama	7-15	5-21	Ohio	8-16	6
Hampshire	8-14	Over 5	Indiana	6-14	6
Connecticut	8-14	5-21	Illinois	7-14	6
Massachusetts	7-14	No limit.	Michigan	7-16	5
Maine	7-15	Over 5.	Wisconsin	7-13	4
New England	7-16	Not fixed by law.	Minnesota	8-16	5
New York	8-16	5-21	Iowa	None.	5
New Jersey	—	—	Missouri	None.	6
Pennsylvania	6-16	6-21	N. Dakota	7-14	6
ATLANTIC DIVISION:			S. Dakota		
Delaware	None.	6-21	8-14	6	
District of Columbia	None.	5-20	Nebraska	8-14	5
Florida	8-14	6-17	Kansas	8-14	5
Georgia	None.	5-21	WESTERN DIVISION:		
Virginia	8-14	6-21	Montana	8-14	6
North Carolina	None.	6-21	Wyoming	7-16	6
South Carolina	None.	6-21	Colorado	8-14	6
North Carolina	None.	6-21	New Mexico	8-16	5
South Carolina	—	—	Arizona	—	—
Florida	None.	6-21	Utah	8-14	6
CENTRAL DIVISION:			Nevada		
Arkansas	7-14	6-20	8-14	6	
Mississippi	None.	6-21	Idaho	8-14	5
Alabama	None.	7-21	Washington	8-15	6
Georgia	None.	5-21	Oregon	8-14	6
Florida	None.	6-18	California	—	—
Alabama	None.	6-17			
Georgia	None.	6-21			
Florida	—	—			

of the United States.

TABLE C.—Showing the average length of the School Term in 1899-1900, in <sup>e</sup> state School Systems. (a).

	Average Number of Days the Schools were kept.	Average Number of Days' Schooling given for every Child between 5-12.	Average Number of Days Attended by each Pupil Enrolled.		Average Number of Days the Schools were kept.	Average Number of Days' Schooling given for every Child between 5-12.	Average Number of Days Attended by each Pupil Enrolled.
UNITED STATES - - - - -	144.6	88.3	99.1				
NORTH ATLANTIC DIVISION - - - - -	177.1	87.5	128.8				
SOUTH ATLANTIC DIVISION - - - - -	112	41.9	65.3				
SOUTH CENTRAL DIVISION - - - - -	99.7	41.2	66.6				
NORTH CENTRAL DIVISION - - - - -	155.6	82.2	103.7				
WESTERN DIVISION - - - - -	145.7	80.5	99.2				
<b>NORTH ATLANTIC DIVISION :</b>				<b>NORTH CENTRAL DIVISION :</b>			
Maine - - - - -	141	80.6	105.2	Ohio - - - - -	165	88.2	12
New Hampshire - - - - -	b 125.8	c d 71	c d 99.1	Indiana - - - - -	162	87.8	11
Vermont - - - - -	156	88.7	111.3	Illinois - - - - -	132	86.8	12
Massachusetts - - - - -	139	10.47	145.7	Michigan - - - - -	d 161.8	e d 88.5	e d 11
Rhode Island - - - - -	d 197	d 85.4	d 125.4	Wisconsin - - - - -	g 169	e 80.2	e 11
Connecticut - - - - -	189	98.6	125.8	Minnesota - - - - -	169	72.3	9
New York - - - - -	175	89.8	121.8	Iowa - - - - -	d 168	d 86.9	d 10
New Jersey - - - - -	d 185	d 78.4	d 119.2	Missouri - - - - -	144	68.3	9
Pennsylvania - - - - -	166.6	80.9	123.6	N. Dakota - - - - -	155.7	77.9	8
<b>SOUTH ATLANTIC DIVISION :</b>				S. Dakota - - - - -	129.1	92.3	11
Delaware - - - - -	a 160	a 75.3	a 109.8	Nebraska - - - - -	125	92	10
Maryland - - - - -	d 128	d 72.2	d 108.8	Kansas - - - - -	120.2	71.1	8
District of Columbia - - - - -	121	89.4	126.9	<b>WESTERN DIVISION :</b>			
Virginia - - - - -	d 119	d 88.6	d 67.5	Montana - - - - -	c 140	76.7	8
W. Virginia - - - - -	108	49.7	69	Wyoming - - - - -	e 110	e 58.6	e
N. Carolina - - - - -	70.8	51.9	86.6	Colorado - - - - -	149.8	92.5	9
S. Carolina - - - - -	88.4	85.8	83.2	New Mexico - - - - -	b 96.6	e 20.5	e
Georgia - - - - -	112	43.5	69.8	Arizona - - - - -	125	40.7	7
Florida - - - - -	93	43.2	63.7	Utah - - - - -	151	83.6	10
<b>SOUTH CENTRAL DIVISION :</b>				Nevada - - - - -	154	78.1	10
Kentucky - - - - -	e f 115.4	e f 62.9	e f 71	Idaho - - - - -	106	53.2	e
Tennessee - - - - -	96	47	67	Washington - - - - -	b 143	b 87.4	b
Alabama - - - - -	73.3	25.7	61.9	Oregon - - - - -	116.6	67.4	
Mississippi - - - - -	d 106.1	d 37.9	d 58.3	California - - - - -	166.2	93.1	12
Louisiana - - - - -	120	57.3	89.5				
Texas - - - - -	108.2	39.8	73.0				
Arkansas - - - - -	77.5	22.4	48.1				
Oklahoma - - - - -	95.3	59.5	61				

a. Taken from Vol. I., p. lxix., of United States Commissioner's Report for 1899-1900.  
 b. In 1897-98.  
 c. Approximately.

d. In 1898-99.  
 e. In 1891-92.  
 f. In 1896-97.  
 g. In 1893-94.

To arrive at any satisfactory conclusion with regard to attendance, the data supplied by these figures are hardly sufficient. Dr. Harris believes that the real meaning of the present conditions is best shown by the following table:—

TABLE D.—Showing the average number of years of schooling (of 200 days each) that each individual of the population received at the different dates specified in the table, taking into account all public schools, primary and secondary.

	1870.	1880.	1890.	1895.	1904.	1906.	1908.	1909.	1900.
UNITED STATES.	2.91	3.45	3.85	3.97	4.17	4.22	4.45	4.45	4.44
N. Atlantic Division - -	4.43	4.84	4.90	5.10	5.28	5.51	5.71	5.67	5.90
S. Atlantic Division - -	.80	1.90	2.42	2.51	2.70	2.98	2.97	2.78	2.72
S. Central Division - -	.80	1.57	2.30	2.33	2.50	2.44	2.98	3.06	2.90
N. Central Division - -	3.71	4.19	4.67	4.84	5.00	5.21	5.25	5.14	5.34
Western Division - -	2.77	3.57	3.98	4.30	4.45	4.85	5.25	5.23	5.23

This Table does not mean that the average duration of the school life of an American child attending a public school is 4.44 years; but that if the actual number of attendances made during the year 1899-1900 were to remain constant during a period of thirteen years (*i.e.*, the number of years between five and eighteen), and were distributed over the whole of the population of school age (the latter itself remaining unchanged during this period), the sum of attendances would be sufficient to provide for each member of that population 4.44 years' schooling of 200 days each. [Thus if the figures given in Table C. for the average number of days' schooling given for each child between the ages of five and eighteen in the United States, *viz.*, 68.3, be multiplied by 13 and divided by 200, the result will be the figure entered in Table D for the year 1900.]

These results, however, are too remote from actual facts, too neglectful of the perpetual ebb and flow of life in a great progressive state, to contribute much towards a better comprehension of the existing state of affairs. Several material points are left unsolved by these figures. It is not explicitly stated whether any children under five and over eighteen are included among those enrolled as attending school. It is not stated how many hours' daily instruction constitute a day's attendance; furthermore, no discrimination is made between primary and secondary schools, and it is impossible to determine from these figures how far compulsory attendance is effective up to the age of sixteen in those States which have fixed the upper limit at that age. It is nowhere stated how many children cease attending school at the age of fourteen or earlier, and this is a matter of great importance in dealing with the statistics of attendance in elementary schools.

It will be noticed that the average for the whole country is not inconsiderably reduced by the irregularity or paucity of attendance in the Southern States.

March, 1902.

A. E. TWENTYMAN.



SOME POINTS OF EDUCATIONAL INTEREST IN THE  
SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES.

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1. To ensure an intelligent study of any department of a great people's national life, it would seem advisable, if not essential, to trace out and identify the motive forces which are at work cementing its units into masses, and then, by following these to their sources, to gain as intimate as possible an insight into the deep-seated principles which, consciously or unconsciously, are moulding the opinions and actions of the nation as a whole.

In the history of past centuries, religious enthusiasm and freedom at any price for the oppressed have furnished the propelling powers to which the world at large is indebted for much of its progress. The mainspring of action in many nations to-day is rather a firm belief in the priceless value of education, a faith eventually to be justified when the true conception of that sorely abused word dawn on its fervent though often misled worshippers. The educational institutions of the United States are largely the outcome of this faith, they are looked to by society to do certain specific work in maintaining the life and advancing the welfare of the people, and are being effectively and ingeniously turned to account to absorb and transform into ardent citizens of the country of their adoption the many representatives of European nationalities, who find their way to this great gathering ground for the oppressed or discontented under older civilisations.

Probably the first impression received upon entering a grade school in the United States is the number of nationalities represented among the children; Swedes, Poles, Irish, Germans, Bohemians, Italians and "Hebrews"; the question instinctively arises, where is the true-born American? Which children are the actual descendants of the "Mayflower Pilgrims"? In an

assembly of adults, usually but one or two types are noticeable; how have these marked racial distinctions in the children been, to so large an extent, merged into the typical American man or woman? The process of assimilation is intentionally promoted by the machinery of the public school system. The "Star-spangled Banner" waves over each schoolhouse; in most school entries the same flag is displayed. It is figured in red, white, and blue on blackboards, it is waved in miniature by the Kindergarten babies. It plays a prominent part in every national fête and every school festivity, symbolising the unity of the people it protects. This dumb show, however, is not held sufficient to foster the spirit of patriotism among the children of the republic, or to arouse and develop it among their adopted brothers and sisters; vocal expression is given weekly, if not daily, to the sentiment of pride in, and loyal devotion to their country and its flag, and the result of the impressions thus made on the plastic natures of the young people subjected to the process is seen not only in their sensitive minds but exercising an actual moulding influence upon their physical appearance, obliterating old types and recasting them into a perceptible uniformity of figure, speech, and action.

The opening exercises witnessed one spring morning in the Girls' Grammar Department of a New York City public school are typical of the means taken to develop, not alone this desirable patriotism, but the spirit of courtesy to others and a high ideal of the true significance of school life and work. The principal, and some of her assistants, took their places on the platform at one end of the large assembly room. At the first chord struck on the piano the pupils marched in, each class headed by a flag-bearer. When all had filed into their places, a huge silken banner was carried up the centre of the room by three girls, all their companions saluting as it passed. It was ceremoniously handed to the head girl, who supported it, while addressing to it, in set form, words of respect and admiration, subsequently repeated by the whole number standing:—"Flag of our great Republic, inspirer in battle, guardian of our homes, whose stars and stripes stand for bravery, purity, truth, and union, we salute thee. We, the children of many lands, who find rest under thy folds, do pledge our lives, our hearts and sacred honour to protect thee, our country, and the liberty of the American people, for ever, one country, one language, one flag"; a verse of "The Star-spangled Banner" being sung as it was placed in its usual position by the dais. The principal then bowed a courteous "Good-morning" to her small army of girls, the bow and the greeting being charmingly and unanimously returned. The reverent reading of a psalm and singing of a hymn followed this little ceremony, after which the head girl repeated the school motto, "The fire burns brightest on one's own hearth," carrying with it a useful lesson to the embryo home-makers. Promptly the leader of each grade followed with the selected class motto for the session, all good moral aphorisms. Then, with admirable

discipline, the partitions were slid into their places, the large hall was divided into eight class rooms, and the day's studies were begun. The practice of singing patriotic songs at these morning exercises seems very general in the States, keeping constantly before the children the idea of unity, strength, freedom, and prosperity. The grand words of the Fatherland Psalm,

O God of Hosts, with Thy strong hand,  
Protect our homes and Fatherland,  
Be Thou our shield in war or peace,  
And guide our steps till life shall cease.

Teach us in truth and light to grow,  
Thy laws to live, Thy words to know ;  
In Thee we will for aye abide ;  
O, King of Glory, be our guide.

or the inspiring lilt of the "Red, White, and Blue," or the simple rhythm of "The Flag Song," appeal forcibly to the child foreigner—"drunk with freedom," as one school supervisor expressed it—and bind him fast to his new home, while the free-born child swells with pride in his grand inheritance.

Decoration Day, the 30th of May, is also made the occasion of prominently emphasising these sentiments. Instituted to commemorate the deaths of those who gave their lives in the service of their country during the Civil War, it is now becoming an annual ovation to Patriotism, without distinction between North and South ; and this was the keynote of its last celebration at the Chicago Institute. The students marched into the Assembly Hall to spirited strains, each scholar in every department—kindergarten, grammar, high or normal—carrying the "Stars and Stripes." After singing the "Battle Song of Freedom," the Principal, Colonel Parker, read some dramatic verses on the brave men who fell in the Civil War, and then, interspersed with folk songs from North and South, and rendered attractive by stereopticon pictures, two or three representatives of each class, from the six-year-old child to the graduating student, recited a few lines in praise of their country and its flag, or gave a short, anecdotal history of the great men, statesmen or generals, who had played their noble part in the making of its history. Stirring and impressive to a visitor, such ceremonies penetrate into the very life of the children reared under their influence, and it is hardly surprising that the national pride, so studiously fostered, overflows in occasional floods of exuberant self-satisfaction. But the devotion to country is not mere effervescent sentiment ; its deep stream sweeps all men alike into its strong current, absorbing equally the native and the "stranger within the gates," creating a force, physical and moral, irresistible in its amplitude were it concentrated on a concern intimately affecting the national well-being.

2. The impression gained while visiting the United States Educational Exhibit at the Paris Exposition of 1900, and again at Manchester in 1901, has been confirmed during some weeks spent in the country itself, viz., that the prevalent desire in American schools is to give to each child the opportunity of self-expression

and to suit that opportunity to the age and circumstances of the individual. This "principle of free activity," considered by some as the most capricious element of child nature, is increasingly made to bear its part in formal training, most visibly perhaps in the elementary stage of drawing, where children are encouraged to express themselves pictorially. Under skilled and thoughtful teachers (notably in New York and Chicago, but also in many less known schools) this root ideal is manifest, that is to say in the lower grades; in the higher grades the application of the principle is more difficult to trace, even where it is preserved and developed, though the attainment of continuity throughout the curriculum in method and practice is probably merely a matter of time. Perfection of execution is not demanded; the effort may be crude and quaint in conception and frequently feeble, but at least it is the child's very own, illustrating his individual impression gained through oral, visual, or manual observation; while the process demands that perseverance and skill be exercised, accuracy developed, and experience gained; his attention being directed to the difference between faulty execution and the actual object which it is desired to represent or produce, the child is guided to observe his own shortcomings and to work for his own self-improvement. To take one example which occurred recently in class work: a small boy depicted a horse by a horizontal line for the body, a circle for the head, and four vertical lines for the legs; his teacher asked him if he actually considered his picture resembled the desired animal. The little fellow was fully aware it did not, but it was the best he could do from memory, familiar as he was with the form both in life and in picture books. He was advised to look attentively at every horse he saw, and then to try again. At the end of six months he triumphantly exhibited a very creditable sketch, the result of his own unaided effort, perseverance, and ability.

This principle enters into the conception of education which Dr. Dewey is testing in his experimental school at Chicago; that is to say, the right development of the power of self-expression, the stimulus for which, he maintains, is found in the needs of the organism. He points out in his valuable paper on "Interest as related to training of the Will," that effort arises normally in the attempt to give full operation, and thus growth and completion, to the powers urgent for development; what is known as "interest" being primarily a form of self-expressive activity. In the attainment of this self-expression, Dr. Dewey shows that many difficulties and obstacles have to be overcome. To realise self-expression means to *do* something, and in the doing, resistance is met, and must be faced. Under his system of training the child faces a problem naturally, stimulated by the consciousness that it is a difficulty which has arisen within and out of his own experience, and that, in order to secure his own end, the difficulty must be overcome. The old theory that the child gets more intellectual and mental discipline when he goes at a

matter unwillingly, and not spontaneously out of the fulness of his own heart, is fairly generally shaken to its foundations in the United States, and the eyes of the educational world are turned expectantly to the experimental schools at Chicago, where opportunities exist for applying the test of practice to theories which sound full of "sweet reasonableness" to the child-lover.

An intimate friend and colleague of Dr. John Dewey's, who has had exceptional opportunities for penetrating—with the trained mind of an educational expert—deep beneath the surface of his propositions, is of opinion that his is the most spiritual, philosophical conception of education yet projected, and applauds the practical courage which subjects theories still imperfectly grasped by even intelligent teachers to their inevitably imperfect though well-intentioned execution. To endeavour concisely and accurately to express and condense the gist of his method savours of presumption, almost of impertinence; but one main idea seems to be as follows:—The fact that at a certain age the infant must be supplied with opportunities for using its developing teeth, and strengthening its muscular activities, is commonly recognised, so much so that no educational credit attaches to the nursery programme which supplies these needs, or, in other words, provides bread crusts or ivory rattles upon which to exercise the growing teeth, or sets chairs at such suitable intervals that baby's first attempts to walk are assisted and stimulated by their sufficient proximity to his tottering limbs. Now this system of providing the right environment at the right moment should be extended throughout childhood and adolescence, not only to promote physical, but also intellectual and moral development in the growing child, the teacher being the medium between him and his environment.

The teacher or parent has to face the problem—how may present interests and special ends be utilised so that through them the child will be presently correlated with the civilisation into which he is born, and out of them may grow in due time such a sense of law, and of the claims of law, as to hold and reinforce character in critical periods of temptation? "This utilising of interest (or self-expression) and habit to make of it something fuller, wider, something more refined and under better control, might be defined as the teacher's whole duty, and the teacher who always utilises interest will never merely indulge it. . . Just how to use interest (or self-expression) to secure growth in knowledge and in efficiency is what defines the master teacher. . . The period of elementary education requires that the child shall be taken up mainly with direct, outgoing and positive activity, in which his impulses find fulfilment, and are thereby brought to conscious value. . . In the time of secondary education there is basis for reflection, for conscious formulation and generalisation, for the back-turned activity of mind which goes over and consciously defines and relates the elements of its experience. Here the teacher can bring the

child to consciousness of the larger meaning of his own powers and experience, not simply through giving them such outlet that the child perceives the bearings, but indirectly and vicariously through reflection upon and absorption of the experiences of others." ("Interest as related to Will." Second Supplement to the "Herbart Year-Book, 1895.") Thus teachers should find out the child's concept of a fact, and along what channel it was gained, whether by the eyes, ears, hands, or otherwise, and, while guiding him to a fuller concept, they should realise and provide for its attainment along one or other converging lines by each unit of their classes.

Some circumstances and studies lend themselves more easily and evidently than others to the advancement of this aim. At present it is often perplexing how to provide suitable environment, especially for stimulating the older children. They must constantly receive guidance from the judgment and experience of their elders, and are assisted if the social spirit be cultivated in very early days, when the instinct to protect others smaller and weaker than oneself seems strong and spontaneous; for unconscious selfishness often exists in older children, witness the difficulty of getting the brighter members of a class to give out their clearer conceptions to more backward companions; the spirit of service, too, must be kept alive, in some cases even it needs arousing through the instinct of imitation. And all this should be developed, guided, made habitual, in Dr. Dewey's opinion, by means of suitable environment.

A variation of his noble conception of what constitutes education seems to adopt as its method the surrounding of the child with such attractions and novelties as shall arouse its desire to know, rather than to create a thirst for knowledge through a consciousness of actual need in order to gain certain ends. Sentiment replacing to a great extent self-expression and self-help as a dominant factor in the scheme, inevitably suggests comparison with the houses in the parable built respectively on foundations of sand or rock.

Again in the Pratt Institute High School at Brooklyn, N. Y., Dr. Luther Gulick emphasises, in practice, his view of this principle, that while general training is essential, yet the strongest part of each individual must be allowed to express itself, in order that he may fulfil his duty to society, and also to increase his economic value, and a very similar idea is exemplified in Dr. Edward Shaw's educational system, which he bases on the pamphlet, written by J. H. G. Heuzinger, 1797, and evidently deeply studied by Froebel, entitled "Ueber die Benutzung des bei Kindern so thätigen Triebes beschäftigt zu sein." In his school (New York City) can be profitably observed what has cost the interpreter years of hard study to work out, viz.: "that the physical activities of the child, or to speak more comprehensively, the motor activities of the child may be so employed as to aid largely in mental development, thereby

making that development not only a fuller one, but rendering its attainment easier for the child, . . . the child gaining the materials of knowledge through systematic activities, assisted by a well rounded and closely correlated course of study . . . in short let some doing accompany all the child's efforts to learn." This valuable factor in wise education, the right interrelation of studies, is well brought out in Dr. Luther Gulick's School Schedule. In his opinion few subjects need be taken, but those must be dealt with thoroughly and on a very broad basis. History, for example, can and should embrace a study of civilisation, commercial, social, and industrial. But this fascinating subject of the correlation of subjects is too complex to be entered upon in this place, though it is constantly and widely discussed at present in the United States.

The success of these methods, as of all others worth attention, hinges on intelligent teachers; they are required to assume the attitude of experienced companions, rather than of tutors and governors, and to be ready to give credit for work accomplished, to discover the pupil's ability to do given things; a reversal of what has been described as the present school system, namely, the discovery not of power but of weakness—not of success achieved, but of disheartening shortcomings. Absolute confidence in the teacher on the part of the principals, great elasticity in the treatment of subjects and small classes, are essential to success.

3. Another forcible impression received, and perhaps worthy of record, is the homelike atmosphere of a large number of the public schools, which appeals very pleasantly to the eyes and ears of visitors. It is apparently the partial outcome of two prevalent forces; one, that to which lengthy reference has already been made, the desire to adopt little foreigners into the great national heart, the realisation that their stunted conceptions of fraternity need stimulus, that their repressed affections must be provided with opportunity for outlet in attractive surroundings; the other seems to lie in the greater and always growing insight into child life, and the attention devoted to securing the environment pertaining to its free development. Speaking generally, the teachers appear gentle, soft-voiced, cultured, women, and there is a marked absence of high-pitched tones and conventional methods. A captious critic might, indeed, find fault, in some noisy city districts, that the voices are too low to be easily audible all over the rooms.

The schools in most cities contain very beautiful photographs, carbons, platinotypes, lithographs, and occasional coloured prints of celebrated people, places, and pictures; Stratford-on-Avon, the English cathedrals, or views in Rome, being most favoured. Usually these measure, unframed, 16 by 25 inches or 20 by 30. Van Dyck's "Children of Charles the First," Burne Jones' "Golden Stair," and Watts' "Sir Galahad" are popular for figure subjects, and good casts of the Samothrace Victory or of the Venus of Milo three or four feet high, and fine reliefs of

Della Robbia's "Singing Boys" are found in a great number of High and Grammar schools, and Kindergartens. The pictures cost from three to fifteen dollars, the casts and reliefs about the same amounts; real things of beauty, elevating and educative in the highest sense. Almost without exception quality is preferred to quantity in these school decorations. In some cases the staff has organised entertainments, which have furnished the funds to procure them. In others, special gifts have been made by friends of education, citizens donating 300, 500, or 1,000 dollars for this express purpose. In the West Roxbury High School at Boston, for instance, the Association of College Alumni have decorated one classroom with fine photographs of 15th century Italian Art at a cost of 600 dollars; while the Boston Public School Art League has, during its few years' existence, produced visible results not only in New England but throughout the entire country. Believing that "environment is perhaps the most powerful influence in life," its members subscribe two dollars annually for the decoration of school corridors, rooms and halls with reproductions of the masterpieces of art: the names of Phillips Brooks, Edward Everett Hale, and Julia Ward Howe being among the twenty-four names attached to the petition presented to the School Board when the movement was organised in 1892. As a result of the favourable action of the Board many of the Boston schools have rooms decorated with pictures and casts illustrating Roman, American, or English historical events; in a few instances colour decorations of the walls having been artistically carried out. Each annual report shows more good work done, and in 1898 the Art League published a most useful pamphlet containing notes and suggestions on school room decoration, with priced lists of suitable pictures and casts. It is a very common practice for graduating classes in the various high schools to give a handsome photograph or cast to their alma mater, usually selected to contribute to the general scheme of decoration. The taste displayed is excellent, and great pains are taken to secure fine examples for the poorest districts. A magnificent reproduction of Guido Reni's "Aurora," imported direct from Rome, and costing 18 dollars, is to be seen again and again in such schools. In one or two instances the frames are made by the boys as a part of their manual training. As an example of the practical interest displayed in this matter, I may mention the case of the principal of the John Sprye School at Chicago, who is gradually acquiring a collection of photographs representing the leading types of pictorial art, and arranging them with skilled care on the four walls of the irregular octagon forming the entrance hall of his school, from which wide corridors diverge east and west, the remaining sides being occupied respectively by stairway and conservatory. The school is located in a specially poor neighbourhood, and he is hoping that the educational influences of these choice pictures will extend far beyond the children when he has secured, as he shortly hopes to do, the use of the classrooms for club purposes.



during the evening hours. Upon entering this school, the first thing that meets and charms the eye is this conservatory, opening from the octagonal hall and facing the principal entrance, filled with beautiful foliage plants and ferns, tended by the children, and useful as a nursery for the plants conspicuous in every room and on every corridor. Not content with beautifying the school inside, Mr. Tibbitts and his pupils are transforming its bare surroundings into a pleasant garden, while he has organised a "Neighbourhood Horticultural and Gardening Club"—of which his school is the meeting-place—with the object of inducing the people within a mile radius to transform their unsightly yards into lawns and gardens. Addresses are given on the raising of seeds which lend themselves to easy culture, sample packages being distributed freely in the early spring by Mr. Tibbitts, who personally offers 100 dollars to be divided in prizes at the end of the season.

Large ferns and lovely flowers are found in greater or less number in every schoolhouse, while ornamental screens, a fancy chair or table, an occasional piece of good furniture, are common objects in the schoolrooms of many city schools, especially in the East. The introduction of these home-like and decorative articles of furniture is possible where 15 or 20 square feet of floor space is the rule per head. The use of the black-board for room decoration is very general, graceful sketches of scenery or buildings, etc., illustrative of the geography or history lesson, or of the faces and homes of notable men and women, appearing on the walls of many schools. In the Kindergarten and Primary grades, these are frequently in colour, each season, for example, having its appropriate representation by birds, blossoms or berries. The thought that to destroy such illustrations too promptly might be painful to the well-intentioned artists was confirmed by the information gained in one school that a graceful figure of "Evangeline" had remained for two years before the children, but this was stated to be very exceptional. Artistically designed calendars for the current month, executed in coloured chalks, and permitting of a daily weather record, on Mr. Jackman's Nature Study plans, are very prevalent, and of great interest to the children. These naturally remain only for a few weeks. The representation, also in coloured chalk, of the birds or flowers of the month, in connection with nature work, struck me as useful, and more attractive to the class than ordinary printed pictures. It is interesting to note in this connection, that in the children's room of the Boston Free Library there is a prominently placed notice board furnished with coloured pictures of birds, leaves, flowers and fruits to be looked for locally at that season.

That "to be brought into tune with good things is the first step towards being good," is a conviction held by the majority of teachers in all countries, and without doubt those in the United States work diligently to surround their charges with sweetness, cheeriness, and beauty. County superintendents of

schools give many instances of simple, ingenious devices employed by teachers in remote rural districts to decorate most unpromising rooms, and an admirable article for their guidance written by Mrs. Cora C. Price, and issued in his biennial report by Mr. Orville Price, County Superintendent, Cook County, Illinois, would be of real value in its suggestiveness to many an English teacher, including as it does a price list of pictures and casts desirable for school houses, and concluding with the caution that the teacher's most important work begins when the pictures are hung, and the decorations complete in their chosen places. To encourage the beautification of school yards, the National Government has appointed that one day annually shall be observed as a festival designated "Arbor Day," and devoted to the ceremonious planting of trees and shrubs in otherwise bare, cheerless grounds. Professor H. L. Bailey, of Cornell University, believes that an attractive playground will do more than a profitable wheat crop to keep the child on the farm, and in support of this opinion, he has given, in a publication called "The Youth's Companion," valuable hints, suggestions, plans and directions as to the planting and cultivation of school grounds, replete with the fulness of his nature lore and experience, of which the purpose is to create a national sentiment which shall eventually result in the universal beautifying of the grounds of the rural schools of the United States. It has been wisely said that the teacher should try to represent in the school and its surroundings what he would desire to see reproduced in the homes of his pupils.

4. In the United States, as in our own country, there is an apparently steady increase in the percentage of women teachers; though it is the opinion of Dr. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education, that, relatively, women teachers are not increasing in large cities, the apparent higher percentage resulting rather from the growing population and consequent additional requirements of the schools; he holds that women are to be preferred for primary work, as it is the "mother" rather than the "father" tone and influence which should be aimed at in the grade schools; but, to-day, women teachers have, in some cities, not merely monopolised the primary and grammar schools, with the exception of the position of principal, still shared with men, but in high schools they appear in a large majority—only as college professors are their numbers very limited. The question as to the ultimate result of handing over the education of boys and girls almost entirely to teachers of the one sex, however highly qualified, is dealt with incidentally in an able article on "The American Woman," recently published by Professor Hugo Münsterberg, Professor of Psychology at Harvard University, who asks, emphatically, "Can it be without danger that the male youth of this country up to the eighteenth year are educated by unmarried women? Is it a point to be discussed at all that the nation's manhood requires a manly inspiration, direction and control?" The whole

development of the younger generation in art and science must be moulded with the impress of the feminine mind with inevitable effect on future civilisation. Without denying for a moment the ability of women in certain spheres, Professor Münsterberg draws attention to the inherent difference of attitude towards knowledge, characteristic of the sexes. He is not alone in his opinion that a woman's tact and æsthetic feeling, her instinctive insight, sympathy, natural wisdom and morality, need leavening with the harder logic, more active critical powers, and the broader views of a man. The economic side of the question, he considers, is of less importance than the effect on the national civilisation. It is the economic aspect, however, which is most generally considered. The woman will give better services than the man for the same salary, and in many cases works for a smaller sum. The Harvard Professor pertinently adds, "There was never before a nation that gave the education of the young into the hands of the lowest bidder."

To generalise is always rash, in the case of the United States it is dangerous, for each city or rural district is a law to itself in scholastic matters; but it is true that in almost every city and county the rate of remuneration for women is less than that for men, though Chicago and Philadelphia constitute notable exceptions; the salaries there are on the same scale for both, the average being in almost all cases considerably higher than that which obtains in England.

As a comparison of opinion of distinct interest, the following extract is given from "The Teachers' Manual," placed in the hands of the teachers and school officials of the Island of Porto Rico. It gives a brief but official account of the educational thought and literature of the system of school organisation at present prevailing in U.S.A., and is printed in Spanish and English: "In the second quarter of the present century the number of women and men employed in the public schools of the Union seems to have been nearly equal, though the women were gradually becoming the majority during the last half of this period. At the present time in some cities having excellent school systems, as for instance Minneapolis, Minnesota, a city of over 200,000 inhabitants, there are no male teachers employed in primary schools, either as teachers or principals, and there are buildings of eighteen and twenty rooms, with over a thousand pupils in attendance, boys and girls together, ranging in age from the kindergarten to seventh and eighth grade pupils of fifteen and sixteen years, where not a single man is employed.

"In Grand Rapids, Michigan, there are but four male principals and twenty-nine women principals. In the city of Louisville, Kentucky, nineteen principals in the public schools are women and ten are men. In Cleveland there are thirty-eight women principals and ten men. And in all of these cities there is not a single male teacher or assistant employed as grade teachers.

"It is an interesting fact, further, that the employment of

women teachers is most extensive in the Central-western and North-western States, where the public schools are confessedly the best of the Union. Furthermore, it is not customary, and in many of the best systems it is contrary to law, to employ married women in the schools, family duties being assumed to be incompatible with service as a teacher.

"This extensive employment of women is based on sound economical and pedagogical grounds. It is more economical. Women, and especially young women, are willing to work for lower salaries than men of equal educational qualifications. The fact that the vast majority of teachers are young, and leave the profession upon marriage, or to follow other pursuits in life occasions a constant change in the teaching force; and the employment of teachers familiar with modern methods and inspired with the energy of youth, adds greatly to the effectiveness of the educational system.

"Women are by nature, temperament, heredity, by all those influences that determine sex, better fitted than men to appreciate and sympathize with the child's way of looking at things and of apprehending facts. They secure more readily the confidence and affection of young children. They introduce into school life a sympathetic element that is, in most instances, lacking in primary schools conducted by men. The moral influence of women in the public schools is better than that of men. They are not as a rule addicted to the same vices as many men—to smoking, drinking, and low conversation. The employment of women tends to remove the political factor in teachers' appointments. So long as men teachers are extensively employed there will be politics in the schools. The confidence of parents in women teachers is greater than it is in men. They more readily entrust their children to women, and they can depend more confidently upon them to inculcate into their children habits of system, order, and refinement.

"Moreover, where the sexes are educated together, there are manual employments and industrial branches which should be taught in the schools that women alone can teach. Women have been found as capable as men to teach sloyd and metal working, and the other branches of a technical school, but men have not been found who, either by taste or training, could teach sewing and the kindred industrial arts required in the educational course for girls."

In some cities security of tenure is assured to the teacher, in others, where re-appointment must take place annually, the system might be described as a Reign of Terror, and militates against real progress. The widespread political corruption is starting also to an outsider—influencing as it does every department of local government, and exercising baneful effects on the authorities connected with education. Its existence is openly discussed and deplored, but the strong man is yet to be born who will cleanse the Augean stable of municipal life in the United States.

Until recently the rural schools were usually under male

teachers. Now, in whole counties of some States, these also are entirely in the hands of women, and serve to develop in the latter great self-reliance and resourcefulness. But the work in many such schools is handicapped by the ignorance and indifference of the Local Boards, over whom there is no absolutely controlling authority, so that they are practically free to exercise their short-sighted parsimony, until it stultifies the very object of their existence. In some States the County Superintendent can indirectly remedy this dilemma by refusing to re-register a teacher, however capable, where the conditions are such that she can accomplish no good work. To obtain suitable lodgings for women teachers is often a difficult matter, especially in such agricultural districts as are in the hands of Germans, *e.g.*, some parts of Illinois, where the old, debasing methods of requiring field labour from women still continue. In these farms the deencies of life scarcely exist, and a cultured woman could not be asked to encounter the inevitable discomforts. Efforts are made by some County Superintendents to centralise schools, and to secure one really efficient teacher or staff of teachers for the children of several townships (or districts of six square miles), usually very sparsely populated. The most insuperable difficulty to this plan, however, is transport; the children must be collected from the scattered farms in wagons, and conveyed to and from the school, which in such cases would be many miles from some of the homesteads. Not only are some Boards too indifferent to raise money for this purpose, but during the winter months the tracks may be, and usually are, twelve inches deep in mud, rendering vehicular traffic well-nigh impossible.

5. Co-education is general throughout the States, and is considered by Dr. W. T. Harris to contribute to the prevalence of women teachers. He is in cordial sympathy with the system—his experience having shown him its many advantages, which he summarized as follows in a circular issued by the United States Bureau of Education: "Co-education of the sexes is preferred because it is *natural*, following the ordinary structure of the family and of society; *customary*, being in harmony with the habits and sentiments of everyday life, and of the laws of the State; *impartial*, affording one sex the same opportunity for culture that the other enjoys; *economical*, using the school funds to the best advantage; *convenient*, both for superintendent and teachers, in assigning, grading, teaching, and discipline; *beneficial*, to the minds, morals, habits, and development of the pupils."

It seems an admitted fact that girls become more full of resource and capable of much self-reliance, that boys gain in refinement and a deeper appreciation of, and respect for, girlhood. With both the outcome is a wider knowledge of human nature, which must contribute to the national well-being, the young people getting to know one another well, and forming during their years of school companionship intimacies founded on common interests, which ripen later into the feelings which

lead to happy marriage. To whatever cause it may be attributed, the entire courteous devotion of American men to their wives is a pleasant sight to see. The girls, by their diligence and perseverance, act as an incentive to the boys, benefiting in their turn by the less emotional standpoint usually taken by the growing lad. In very rare instances does any undesirable spirit manifest itself, even among high school students, who meet at a most susceptible age on terms of great intimacy. Many social organisations are initiated jointly by the young people, as a typical example of which may be cited the weekly recitation given by the students of the Eastern High School at Cleveland, Ohio. Each Friday, at 12 o'clock, they assemble in the large hall. A member of the senior class acts as president, and a programme of prose or poetical recitations, piano and violin solos, and choral singing is performed by selected individuals from the whole school. Courteous attention is given, even when the performer does not attain a high standard, though the applause gauges very accurately the estimate in which any given performance is held by the audience. Apparent impartiality ruled on the occasion when I was present. The president for the day was a good type of the trim, graceful, self-composed girl student. The performers were about equally divided as to sex, and, though criticism was frank, it was kindly, and absolute decorum prevailed. The Principal spoke highly of the excellent social influence of these weekly gatherings.

The youth of the teachers in charge of these high school classes is frequently noticeable, and reliable instances have been given me of the results being questionable when a male teacher of 23 or 24 is in charge of a class containing girls from 15 to 17 years of age, attention being concentrated on personal appearance rather than on study; but the discipline maintained is usually excellent; and, as Dr. W. T. Harris quaintly remarked in the course of conversation, the evil is self-curing, for the lapse of a few years will remedy the root cause, and the at present somewhat juvenile professor will present an appearance of mature dignity to successors of existing generations of students. The position has arisen from the rapid increase of High Schools and the accompanying demand for an immediate large supply of highly qualified teachers. It is also noticeable that in spite of the proverbial "high pressure" existence in the States, men preserve a remarkably youthful appearance well on into middle life, a fact which doubtless conduces to the impression just recorded.

6. The free-and-easy attitude of American boys or girls to their elders is undoubtedly a surprise at first to a visitor from the old country, for this tone of equal comradeship is as apparent in school as in home life. The children enter and leave the room with great freedom; they sit, or more generally loll, in their seats as best pleases them, and the class work is usually carried on in a conversational style. Still, throughout, one is conscious of the existence of a very pleasant spirit. The

teachers are kind, considerate, helpful—the pupils happy, bright, and, as a rule, responsive.

There is an evident absence, especially in the west, of that caste spirit which Dr. Harris holds responsible in a certain degree for some of the most conspicuous characteristics of English life. The Anglo-Saxon race, he points out, has always established local self-government wherever it settled, but, in a new country, where there are no old associations, it is entirely free from caste restrictions; and as one result there is this marked equality between the teacher and taught in the schools and colleges.

In visits to numerous schools the question of punishment never once presented itself, nor was evidence visible of the need for its existence. I was assured on good authority that no rod had been used for twenty years in Chicago, and during the time that Dr. Harris was superintendent of schools in St. Louis, he secured the reduction of corporal punishment to 1 per cent. of its former amount, by requiring a report of each case from the teacher in charge. In some cities a plan of suspension has been successfully tried, where a particularly refractory or difficult pupil has to be dealt with. The parent is communicated with, and informed that the child cannot be permitted to attend school for an indicated length of time, and that a permit for the return must be obtained before re-admittance. In Washington, among other enumerated advantages of such a system, it was pointed out that the real source of the trouble may be a misunderstanding or an instinctive antagonism between the pupil and his teacher. This method of suspension permits, in such cases, of transferring the child to another school, where he starts a new record, and greater care can be exercised as to the environment in which he is placed.

A county school superintendent, of many years' standing, states that in ten years this topic of discipline had not been discussed, indeed hardly referred to, in the annual institutes and meetings of teachers held during that period; and in the course of 130 visits paid by him to country schools during the past session, not half a dozen cases of disorder worth noticing had occurred. He considered that the mutual sympathy obtaining in schools, the familiar relations between teachers and pupils, accounts for this; also the fact that children and their difficulties are better understood than formerly.

Much is now heard of self-government in schools. The Principals of High Schools will frequently say with pride that good order is maintained without one single rule being laid down, and that the influence of public opinion seems sufficient to curb any lawless spirit or uncourteous action. Nevertheless, if conditions be analysed, the restraining influence and experience of the staff can usually be traced in the actions of the students, and frequently an active part is taken by them in the students' own organisations for the purpose of maintaining order.

Two instances in actual practice may be cited as of general interest. The first is best described in the words of the Principal

who is responsible for its initiation, Mr. C. W. French, of the Hyde Park High School, Chicago, who is an earnest exponent of this system or theory. He writes:—

"We began working along this line about six years ago, and had to feel our way very slowly. I had no definite plan in mind, only a discontent with existing methods and a conviction that a radical change was necessary. I discussed at length with teachers and pupils the right relations of a citizen towards government, and tried to bring out the idea that school life was not different in its obligations and responsibilities from the life outside. I also tried to develop an appreciation of the fact that the welfare of the school was of as much interest to the individual pupil as to the teacher, and that he was equally responsible for its maintenance; also, that the disorderly and inattentive pupil was doing a direct injury to every member of the school as well as to the teacher, and that it was the duty of each one to protect himself from such injuries. When I had succeeded in awakening to some extent, what may be called the *social conscience* of the school, I put keeping order in the halls in passing back and forth to recitations into their hands, and told them that I should not interfere in any way for a stated period in their management. I suggested a simple form of organization which they perfected, and which they have since effectively maintained. From that day I have had to give practically no attention to the order in the halls through which from 500 to 1,000 pupils pass hourly, and the order has been better than when the teachers tried to maintain it.

"From that beginning, I have gradually expanded the system until now it covers the whole school except the recitations, the entire management of which must be in the hands of the teacher. Of course, our system is not by any means perfect, but we have made real progress from year to year, and the school has simply been revolutionised. The order is distinctly better and it is voluntary. Being trusted, the pupils are proving themselves worthy of confidence. I can leave classes alone for a recitation period, and they will elect some one of their number to serve as teacher, who will conduct the class as seriously, and sometimes as capably, as the teacher. There is friendly and confidential relationship existing between pupils and teachers which was impossible under the old system, for the teacher is now the helpmeet, not the taskmaster. The rudeness and boisterousness which characterises the American youth of this age has almost disappeared, and the old standards of student honour no longer obtain. If a student sees another breaking the law, he does not hesitate to enter a complaint, or to appear as a witness against him at his trial; and, so far as I can see, no stigma attaches to him. My whole school, teachers and pupils, are committed to the system; and so far as I can learn, the patrons are pleased. While we have hardly passed beyond the experimental stage, I am quite sure that we have proved the feasibility of the system, and that it is capable of producing very desirable results."

The Constitution, and an Act to provide for the organisation of the Hyde Park High School as a School City, have been printed, and the following extracts will serve to indicate their nature and the regulations in force; the Preamble running as follows:—

"We, the students of the Hyde Park High School, sitting in the Assembly Hall, in order that we may secure training in free government, develop our powers of self-control, and more fully know our relations as individuals to society, do adopt and ordain this Constitution as a basis for the Student Government of the Assembly Hall.

"1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a House of Representatives, under such restrictions as are herein made.

"2. The House of Representatives shall be composed of representatives elected, one from each district, for a term of twelve school weeks, except as provided in Section 3 of this Article.



"3. The rows of students shall be numbered consecutively, beginning at the north, and shall be designated as districts; and at the first election of representatives, those elected from the districts bearing an odd number, shall be elected for only six school weeks.

"11. The House of Representatives shall elect a Clerk from the students of the Assembly Hall, not members of itself, who shall serve for six school weeks, and whose duty it shall be to keep a record of the proceedings of the House of Representatives, to safely keep all records and documents belonging to the Student Government of the Assembly Hall; and to file all laws and other enactments in an orderly manner.

"12. The House of Representatives shall have power to organize its own committees and make its own rules; to compel the attendance and good behaviour of its members by such rules and penalties as it may choose to adopt; to expel, by a two thirds vote of its members, any representative whom it may deem to have proven unworthy of the office; to define and provide a penalty for all offences against the students of the Assembly Hall; to provide for the general order and interests of the Assembly Hall.

"13. Clause 3. No bill shall become a law until the expiration of at least three school days after its passage.

"The President shall be elected by popular vote from the students of the Assembly Hall for a term of eighteen school weeks.

"The House of Representatives shall try all impeachments, and shall be the sole judge of the accusation.

"When the President is being tried, the Presiding Chancellor shall preside over the House of Representatives.

"The Supervisor of Wardens shall be appointed by the President, and shall hold office during good behaviour and the term of the President.

"It shall be his duty, with the assistance of his subordinates, to enforce the laws; to apprehend offenders and bring them to trial before the Board of Chancellors; to assist in the collection of evidence and otherwise promote the prosecution of offenders as the Prosecuting Attorney may require; to execute such provisions as may be made for the general order and welfare of the Assembly Hall.

"The Prosecuting Attorney shall be appointed by the President, and shall hold office during good behaviour and the term of the President.

"It shall be his duty to look after the interests of the students of the Assembly Hall in all cases before the Board of Chancellors; to see that all apprehended offenders are prosecuted; to execute any provisions, orders or instructions which the House of Representatives may entrust to him.

"The chief executive officer of the School City shall be a Mayor, who shall be a regular member of the school, and carry at least fifteen hours of work a week, with a standing of at least 75 per cent. in each study, for at least two school months previous to his election; and if, for two consecutive months while in office, he shall fall below this standard, he shall thereby be disqualified from holding office longer, and his successor shall be at once elected to fill out the unexpired term.

"His term of office shall be five school months, and until his successor is elected and qualified.

"The City Council shall consist of the Mayor, two Aldermen from each class room of the building, and two teachers elected from the Faculty.

"Any regular member of the school, who is carrying fifteen hours' work a week, with an average standing of 75 per cent., shall be eligible to the office of Alderman.

"The City Council shall sit with open doors, and shall publish an account of the proceedings of each meeting.

"A general election for Mayor, Clerk, Attorney, Treasurer, and Judges shall be held during the first weeks of January and June, respectively.

"Inasmuch as the City of Chicago has a wider range of civic need than the School City can have, it is understood that the powers and duties of all officers are similar to those of the City of Chicago, only so far as these powers and duties are appropriate to the needs of the School City.

"The Government of the Assembly Hall shall constitute a separate department with the following features :—

"An officer known as the First Assistant Chief of Police, shall be appointed by the Mayor, whose duties shall pertain exclusively to the Assembly Hall.

"Three tribunes for each period of the day shall be appointed, and shall have immediate oversight of the Hall; each tribune taking charge of a particular section.

"The First Assistant Chief of Police, in conjunction with the Mayor, shall appoint the tribunes for the Assembly Hall.

"The First Assistant Chief of Police shall have general oversight of the Hall, and shall see that the tribunes properly perform their duties.

"It shall be the duty of the tribunes to see that the regulations hereafter enacted are observed, and to report flagrant or repeated violations to the Court."

The second example selected is in operation at the Polytechnic School at Toledo, where what is called the Polytechnic Republic exists, regulated by a Council which consists of the Principal and two members of the staff, together with the fifteen students chosen by their companions from each year's class, freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors. This committee adjudicates upon student delinquencies, repeated "tardiness," disorderly conduct in the corridors, violent loss of temper, or cigarette smoking, which in the present instance has as a result been completely abolished. The penalties inflicted on the culprits, who are called before the committee and allowed a fair hearing, may be, in the case of unpunctuality, a decree to make up the lost time; or for other offences an apology to the committee, or actually the humiliation of a public apology to all the students. Rules have been drawn up by this committee to which all students are requested to conform.

The Council is constituted by an Act, entitled "To provide for the organisation of a Polytechnic Republic," and opens with the words :—

"Believing that training in the duties of citizenship is an essential feature in the education of young men and women, the students and faculty of the Toledo Polytechnic School do ordain and establish this constitution for the purpose of promoting the welfare and best interests of the Toledo Polytechnic School.

"This Council shall consist of the Superintendent and representatives of the faculty, and from each class represented in the school.

"The officers of the Republic shall consist of a President, Secretary,

Director of Public Order, Attorney, and other officers as are hereinafter specified.

"The Director of Public Order shall be elected by ballot of the entire school, majority vote electing. The general election shall take place as provided in Article II., Section 3.

"The Attorney shall be appointed by the President, and shall not be a member of the Council. He shall serve five months, and until his successor is duly appointed and qualified.

"It shall be the duty of the Attorney to present to the Council all cases of violations of the law. He has the power, subject to the approval of the Council, to summon any member of the school or faculty as a witness before the Council.

"The Council also has the power, subject to the approval of the Superintendent, to administer punishment to any student guilty of any misdemeanour, or violation of law; no student shall, however, be judged guilty without a full and free hearing of the case.

"The Council shall meet with open doors, and shall publish an account of each meeting."

Here, though ostensibly self-governing, the students are actually under the supervising control of the more experienced directors. The method is advantageous in developing a communal as well as an individualistic spirit in the young people, and seems more prevalent in the Western States than in the Eastern, which are more strongly leavened by European traditions. Principal George Carman of the Lewis Institute, Chicago, considers that strong personalities result from the existence of few regulations or restraints, and reposes confidence in the restraining influence of public opinion, assisted by the rapid development of the social instinct which takes place during High School life. This social feeling must be led to crystallise the traditions of good government—public opinion sufficing to maintain order, and making for high morality and self-control.

7. The feeling of responsibility for their own success in life, characteristic of American youth, shows itself in their determination to acquire the thorough education in which they have such a firm faith. It is no uncommon occurrence to be told that such and such a boy is maintaining himself by his own labour during his High School course. He may earn from ten to twelve dollars a week, as a lamplighter for instance—some enterprising lads even undertake newspaper sales, farming out "walks" to other boys, thereby exercising the faculty of organisation at an early age. From Boston to St. Louis, and even farther west, this is common. A fairly wide range of occupations is open to him, though the self-supporting student has a hard struggle for existence very frequently. He may act as carman during the evening hours, or serve in shops on a Saturday night. He may take charge of house furnaces, or undertake a laundry

agency. He may milk cows on a farm attached to a College of Agriculture, or distribute the milk in a neighbouring city; while waiting at table is a method of earning board widely practised. For girls, domestic service seems the chief employment. The physical fatigue, as well as the mental strain of leading this double life, frequently necessitates an extension of the college course, and effectually debars the worker from social enjoyments, but it has its compensating value in "developing grit," significant of future success in life. It is to be hoped that maintenance will be more generally included in the scholarships now offered by most universities, though this would only affect a very small minority, for statistics show a steadily increasing number of students in high schools and colleges each year. This has been described as the "era of High School building." The number, public and private, has increased in the last ten years, according to figures furnished by the Washington Bureau of National Education from slightly over 4,000 to between 7,000 and 8,000—a clear proof of the persistent demand for accommodation in schools equipped for secondary education—and though 60 per cent. of their students are girls, young men are still found in large majorities at universities throughout the country, a fact which is significant of the large proportion of lads who pass on from high school to college.

8. It is impossible to exaggerate the high estimate placed upon education in the United States—it is held to be the foundation of all success, an opinion exemplified by the enormous sums devoted annually to the endowment of educational institutions by wealthy citizens. No one can come in touch with these without being impressed by the vigorous activity of the national educational life; it seems as if its pulse throbs with the energy of youthful zeal and enterprise; strong in its determination to rear a race of patriots, sound in mind and body, skilful of eye and hand, equipped for every phase of life, permeated with habits of industry, perseverance, serviceableness, trained in schools characterised by a healthy, home-like, sympathetic atmosphere. The ideal is not yet attained—much remains to be done. Meanwhile, I believe, it is shared by the many earnest, thoughtful teachers watching over the interests of England's children, who are steadily aiming at the same goal, animated by the same devoted spirit, courageous in the face of difficulties, strong to overcome all obstacles, undaunted by the fortunately transient, though meanwhile hampering, limitations imposed upon them by the traditions and precedents of a system deeply tinged with the conservative convictions of past generations.

Alice Ravenhill.

Sept., 1901.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN THE  
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

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[Since this paper was printed, American education has sustained a heavy loss through the death of Colonel Parker, the importance of whose work is gratefully realised by all English students of education.—*Error*]

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

I. STATISTICS OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The oldest State Normal School in America dates back to the year 1839; but nearly twenty years before that date classes had been set apart in secondary schools for the special preparation of teachers. In those days private schools had usually a greater reputation than public schools; and in several States the former were the first to undertake, out of philanthropic motives, the task of furnishing trained teachers. Since that time training institutions of both kinds, public and private, have continued to grow and increase. The Report of the Commissioner of the Bureau of Education at Washington for 1898-99 gives the number of the various institutions engaged in the preparation of teachers of each class thus:—

—	Institutions.	Students.
* Public Normal Schools - - - -	167	44,808
Private Normal Schools - - - -	165	23,572
Attached to public Universities and Colleges	29	2,541
Attached to private Universities and Colleges	206	6,950
Attached to Public High Schools - - -	544	8,930
Attached to Private High Schools - - -	378	6,886

The private Normal Schools flourish mainly in those States which lack public schools, very few, for instance, being found on the North Atlantic seaboard. They are frequently little more than business enterprises, and, therefore, admit students without entrance examination. The best of them are not so well organised and equipped as the State institutions, the methods of which they follow. I shall therefore not refer to them further.

II. THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS BEFORE THE YEAR 1880.

The first State Normal School owed its existence to the revival of elementary education, which took place about the year 1840. In 1837 Massachusetts established the first State Board of Education. They appointed as their Secretary Horace Mann, the

\* Public signifies directly under the control of a local or central authority; private, controlled by churches, societies, or individuals; a few of the latter receive State aid

Apostle of the Common School. As he tramped the country preaching to rich and poor in every town and village, the necessity of establishing good free schools, he spoke, too, of the importance of specially trained teachers. In 1838 a member of the Board, Mr. Edmund Dwight, offered 10,000 dols. to establish a Normal School on condition that the Board doubled the amount. Horace Mann pushed the matter forward, and already in 1839, two schools were at work ; another followed in 1840.\*

Then for the next twenty years comparatively little progress was made ; Massachusetts opened one more ; New York one ; Rhode Island one ; but there was loud opposition to such schemes. We are told, indeed, that during the first ten years only the heroic endurance of privations on the part of the staffs and the persistent advocacy of Horace Mann, prevented the three schools of Massachusetts from being closed. The Normal Schools became popular only when some generations of teachers from them convinced the public of their value ; and when the Civil War had more deeply impressed the public conscience with a sense of the duty of a democratic community towards the education of the rising generation. Then the movement for establishing Training Schools for teachers spread rapidly west and south, and, despite the financial difficulties prevailing at the end of the Civil War, many excellent schools were soon at work.

The beginning of the movement in Pennsylvania was of much earlier date, and is of interest to Englishmen, because the Quaker City was for a time the home of Lancaster, the author, with Bell, of the monitorial system. In Lancaster's system there was an alluring, but delusive, combination of philanthropy and cheapness. A model school was established after English patterns with Lancaster himself as principal, to train monitors and pupil-teachers in the art of teaching. From 1818 to about 1848 this system held sway over a part of Pennsylvania, and hindered progress in half a dozen other States. When it was abandoned in Pennsylvania the State was divided into thirteen districts, each of which is now provided with a Normal School.

In the State of New York "Training" from the beginning has followed two directions. Classes for this purpose were attached as early as 1821 to several "Academies," or Secondary Schools. In 1834 the Government granted subsidies of 400 dols. and upwards to any Academies organising such classes ; a report of 1842 shows 681 students enrolled in them. It was seen, however, that the training here given fitted the students to become teachers in select schools rather than in the Common Schools, and, in 1844, a Normal School was opened in Albany to train teachers specially for the latter purpose. Here the movement stopped until 1867, when the School Superintendent of Oswego, Dr. Sheldon, prevailed on the State Board to expand the work

\* St. Mark's College, Chelsea, the first Training College in England aided by a Government grant, was opened in 1841.



of his flourishing training class into a Normal School. Dr. Sheldon himself was appointed Principal of the new Normal School without, however, resigning his post as Superintendent. Therefore he was able to use the common schools of the town, schools staffed by teachers whom, to some extent, he had trained, for the purposes of observation and practice by students in the Normal School. \*Dr. Sheldon held this position until his death, in the year 1898. Owing to his nobility of character, his enthusiasm for education, and his constant efforts to improve the methods of the Common Schools, the Oswego school was attended by many teachers from other States; and for a quarter of a century it exerted a decisive influence on the methods of the Normal Schools then springing up in the west and south. It is of interest to us to learn that the work at Oswego was started on its progressive path by a teacher from England. Dr. Sheldon, when yet only Superintendent of Schools, heard at Toronto of object-lessons and the Pestalozzian method; he also saw there the appliances for teaching by this method, which had been imported from the Home and Colonial College in London. Forthwith he sent for a teacher from this college to take charge of his training class, and he himself entered the class as her pupil. She remained at Oswego only eighteen months, but in that time the object-lesson method had taken firm root, and it spread from Oswego throughout the United States. The methods, therefore, of the American Normal School until about the year 1880 resembled those which have been esteemed in elementary education in England. Thereafter new forces appear, forces which aim at moulding the methods of the elementary school into accordance with a scientific theory of education; "training" then began to take a new significance, and soon it greatly extended its bounds.

Before passing to consider this, from the professional point of view, the important epoch in the history of the subject, let us see what had been accomplished before 1880.

In the year 1866 eighty-seven State Normal Schools had been established, and thirty-two County or City Normal Schools; thirteen States had only one Normal School each, and nine had none; Pennsylvania had eleven, New York nine, and Massachusetts five; none of the other States had more than four.

### III. SUPPLEMENTARY FORMS OF TRAINING.

But outside the Normal Schools, public and private, other agencies were at work, less efficient, but yet valuable. One we have mentioned above—the training class attached to an Academy or High School, or organised under the special direction of a city Superintendent.

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\* His daughter, Mary Sheldon Barnes, wife of Prof. Earl Barnes, was well known to teachers in London before her lamented death in 1898.

The practice of establishing City Training Classes, copied from New York State, has become general, because of the favour granted by Americans to *local control* in school affairs. Any town which engages a special superintendent for its schools is independent of the control exerted by the State Superintendent, and has permission to establish its own Training Class. Such classes are generally attached to the City High School, *i.e.*, the High School offers a year or two of professional study to the pupils who intend to become teachers in the City Schools.\* In the larger cities the Training Class has grown beyond the control of the High School, and developed into a City Training or Normal School, with an equipment rivalling that of the State Normal Schools. For example, the Girls' Normal School of Philadelphia was separated from the Girls' High School in 1895; it numbers now about six hundred students. New York has a "Normal College," with a course of four years, and four hundred students; Boston and Chicago have Training Schools, each with about five hundred students.

Thus the number of teachers entering the schools with preliminary training is rapidly increasing, but it is estimated that even yet not half of the total number pass through either a Normal School or Training Class.† To help the untrained and also to stimulate all to continue their professional studies and improve their practice, it is the custom throughout the States to hold annually "Teachers' Institutes." They last usually a week, sometimes longer. As a rule, they are organised by the County and City Superintendents, who also take an active part in leading the classes; sometimes they are controlled by Teachers' Associations. It is said that they are annually attended by one-half the teachers of public schools; in some States attendance is compulsory.

The Institute dates back to the revival of education led by Horace Mann and Henry Barnard, and it has undoubtedly aided greatly to cultivate amongst the teachers an interest in professional study, and spread afar new ideas.

E. J. Payne, late Professor of Pedagogics in Michigan University, describes it as "a Normal School with a very short course of study." Frequently a noted lecturer is engaged to give a course of lectures on some aspect of educational philosophy or of science, and this may form the basis for a course of reading, continuing during the coming year.

When writing of Teachers' Institutes Prof. Boone says: "Almost no agency, excepting a formal and established course of training,

\* Analogous administratively to what would be the case in England if the Pupil Teachers' Centre were a department of the local Secondary School.

† Dr. Harris gives the number of normal students in each million of inhabitants in 1880 as 240; in 1897 as 936. Mr. Rankine, H.M.L., gives the number of teachers in English elementary schools in 1901 as 77,733 un-certificated and 62,065 certificated. But of the latter only 36,020 have passed through a Training College.

can do so much for the right guidance of the teacher, the sharpening of her understanding, and the full rounding of her professional character, as the frequent meeting, under wise direction, of a body of teachers in daily co-operation and intercourse.”\*

Of a similar character, but lasting from a fortnight to six weeks, are the Summer Schools of Pedagogy, which are now held at several Normal Schools, watering-places, and Universities. The University of Chicago continues a full programme of work right through the summer quarter, and several hundred teachers enter its academic and professional classes for either the whole or half session.

Yet another department of training deserves mention. In the year 1898-99 Kindergartens were maintained by 213 cities in connection with their public schools, and these were staffed by 2,532 teachers. To train teachers for these Kindergartens 164 Normal Schools have opened Kindergarten departments, with a course varying in length from six months to two years. But in general the Kindergarten training of these schools does not yet rank so high as that of several private schools and Kindergarten Associations.

The Kindergarten was first established in the United States in 1868. In 1873 Dr. Harris, who was then Superintendent of Schools at St. Louis, prevailed on the Board of Education to introduce the system into the public schools of that city, and he himself helped to train the first teachers. Since then Froebelianism has had a growing influence in attracting attention to the necessity of establishing rational principles of education, and making these the basis of the methods and devices taught in the Normal School.

#### IV. THE ENDEAVOUR TO REACH A SCIENTIFIC BASIS FOR TEACHING AND TRAINING.

We have now marked out the directions followed by various school boards and societies in seeking to raise the standard of teaching power throughout the country during fifty years previous to 1880. After that date, however, we perceive some novel agencies at work, which aim at nothing less than reforming—or may we say transforming?—the methods of the Common School. During the last twenty years so much has been effected in this direction, that it should be possible to-day to form some estimate of the relative value of the “new education,” and to note its relation to “Training.”

Before 1880 there were many tokens of dissatisfaction with the results of the Common School education, and the spread of the Kindergarten system was leading people here and there to the view that a remedy for the evils would be found only in adapting school life to the needs and natural powers of the child. Yet this *new era* in education broke in abruptly upon the old routine.

\* “Education in the United States,” by R. G. Boone, p. 125.

Mechanical methods were then cramping and binding down the natural springs of life in the child as with iron fetters, and explosives were needed to set him free.

Again it was an enlightened Massachusetts Board of Education who provided a place where they might take effect without killing the operator. In 1875 at Quincy, a small town near Boston, the School Board were dissatisfied with the state of the schools, and they engaged as their Superintendent Francis Parker, a teacher who was known to have recently studied education in Germany, and to be prepared with innovations, to improve matters. They gave him a free hand, and before long complaints reached them. The new Superintendent had banished the "readers" and "ready reckoners"; and he had told the teachers to "burn the spelling-books." It was said that the children did not even learn the alphabet (!), and that the discipline in the schools was being ruined. The Board paid visits of inspection; they found that boredom and punishments had disappeared; both teachers and pupils were lively and occupied, and the children were happy. They agreed to let the Superintendent pursue his way. When Colonel Parker left Quincy in 1883 we find entered on the report of the committee this statement: "He has transformed our public schools. He found them machines and left them organisms. He breathed life, growth, and happiness into our schoolroom, and the weary prison became a pleasure house."

In April, 1900, the twenty-fifth anniversary of the inauguration of the "Quincy Methods" was celebrated at Quincy; and many friends then met again, after long years of service in other fields, to do honour to the first leader of the New Education. To us the note of deepest significance in the speeches and letters that marked the occasion is the evident sense of victory; it is taken for granted that the field is altogether won. "There is hardly a good feature in our primary and grammar grades," wrote the Superintendent of Brookline, "that does not owe something to him (Colonel Parker)." Dr. Harris said that he looked "atly, Colonel Parker's work as a reform rather than a revolution." "The method of authority had prevailed; such a method is of lectures. The true method is the method of enlightenment. The Quincy system has proclaimed that the school shall be a temple of freedom." Dr. N. M. Butler said that Colonel Parker has "called upon the teacher to leave off being a merchant dealing in information, and to prepare himself to become a builder of human souls."

Francis Parker won the rank of colonel by his services in the Federal Army. He had begun to teach when a boy of sixteen, nine years before the war; and the scenes of the battlefield served only to deepen the convictions of the teacher: he determined to seek in education the forces that would banish war. When the war ceased, he conducted for four years a Normal School at Dayton, Ohio. Then, perceiving the need

of a period of investigation and study as preparation for further advance, he went for two years to Germany, and entered the Berlin University as a student. Here he made a special study of the philosophy of Hegel. On his return to America he accepted the Quincy appointment; and proceeded to work out methods of education in accordance with the conceptions he had then reached of mental development.

His work at Quincy showed him that a reform of school methods based on principles of mental development, could be effected only by teachers who understood those principles. Therefore the reform must first enter the Normal Schools. After leaving Quincy he was for a short time Assistant Superintendent of Schools in Boston, and then he accepted a call to the Principalship of the Cook County Normal School, Illinois. This school had been established four years; it had already won a good reputation, and the committee desired a Principal who would raise its professional standing still higher. It was situated in a small park in a suburb of Chicago; and was permitted by the Chicago Board of Education to use one of their schools as a practising school. Colonel Parker found the committee liberally disposed, and they helped him to gather a staff pledged to research and reconstruction, some of whom are still working with him. The programme of this school was divided into four departments: Natural Science, Mathematics, Geography, and History. The task assigned to the staff in each department comprised the investigation of all available material, whether ancient or modern, for the purpose of discovering the parts most valuable and most suitable for children. Colonel Parker devoted himself mainly to watching that the method of presentation in training class and practising school, was in conformity with the natural laws of mental development. "The school," said Colonel Parker, "should not be a place where children learn in order to live, but a place where they live in order to learn"; therefore *life* must be investigated, life everywhere and in all ages, in order to find what events should be presented to children, what scenes they should live over again. Anthropology and the lives of primitive races yet living, natural science and myth, industries and games, civic government and popular song—harvests must be gleaned from all these fields to yield bread for the nurture of the children in the elementary school.

So the Nature Study was inaugurated, which, connected with the name of Mr. Jackman of Cook County Normal School, has already spread through the common schools of the United States; and a new conception of the History suitable for little children—a study of the industries and civilisation of primitive peoples—began to take form there in the class-room of Miss Rice. The school soon began to attract students from a distance; many experienced teachers came to it from other States, and then carried the new gospel to their homes,

But the line of advance had to be cut through much opposition. Colonel Parker says that he does not like fighting; but his opponents know that, wherever he believes the question at issue to touch the rights of children, he will be as eager for attack now as when he led his regiment to battle for political freedom. The noise of school battles in Chicago, indeed, first attracted the attention of many educationists to his work, and amongst other tokens of encouragement he treasures letters from B. H. Quick, the author of "Educational Reformers."

The heads of public educational institutions in the United States have frequently very uneasy seats; they are subject to annual re-election, and a turn of the political sympathies of the Board, or a wave of unpopularity may send them adrift. Again and again only the strenuous exertions of Colonel Parker's friends prevented this calamity at the Cook County Normal School. The Chicago Board of Education established its own training class; and when the civic boundaries of Chicago were extended so far as to absorb the greater part of Cook County, Colonel Parker's school was no longer necessary to the Cook County Board. As the College entailed a heavy expenditure, mainly (as it appeared) in order to train teachers from other cities and States,\* the managers decided in 1896 to give it up, and the staff received notice that they would be disbanded at the end of the year. After many appeals from different quarters the Chicago Board of Education were persuaded to take over the Cook County Normal School, plant and staff, and transfer thither the City Training Classes. Thus it became the Chicago Normal School.

But to neither party did the new arrangement prove very satisfactory. Instead of the hundred or so pupils, of whom the greater part were experienced teachers, the school now received four hundred girls and about twenty boys straight from the City High Schools. It was found necessary to change the character of the teaching and proceed more slowly. On the other hand, the Principal and his methods were not generally popular with the Board. Very fortunately at this juncture Mrs. Emmons Blane, a wealthy Chicago lady, determined that the work should be rescued from its trammels and be given room for growth. In the spring of 1899 she offered to Colonel Parker to found and endow for this purpose an "Educational Institute" in Chicago to undertake the professional training of both elementary and secondary teachers, independent alike of State and City. The amount of property she devoted to the enterprise was 3,000,000 dols. (£600,000).

In July, 1900, the new institute began work with a large Summer School. Since then it has undergone a further transformation; it accepted last spring the offer of the Trustees of the University of Chicago to enter the circle of its professional schools, and is

\* The student of American civic institutions will be aware how powerfully the independence of cities and States (lacking a central unifying influence) has affected education at every turn.

now known as the "School of Education" of the University of Chicago. The friends of educational progress may well congratulate Colonel Parker and his staff on reaching such a goal. The University of Chicago, though established barely fourteen years, is already both large and wealthy, and many of its professors are men of repute on both sides of the Atlantic. The new School of Education will both render service to the other departments of study in the University and itself share in their advance.

In this summary of Francis Parker's career we have said little about the principles on which he seeks to build. It is said that his chief power consists in inspiring other workers, and in urging them on to their best efforts; and that he succeeds in this despite the fact that he rarely finds it possible to give clear expression to his own deepest convictions.

As far as we can judge, his philosophy of education is most akin to that of Froebel. He strongly denounces the doctrine that the instincts of the child are naturally evil, and he appeals for school-room methods which permit free development. His teachers say that he constantly tells them to "keep their hands off the children" (not, of course, merely in a physical sense). Self-activity and a right environment bulk as largely in his theory of education as they do in the "*Education of Man.*"

In the field of psychological investigation Colonel Parker lays no claim to originality. He has accepted from the doctrines regarding mental and moral development laid down by previous thinkers, those which seemed to him nearest the truth, and has set himself the task of constructing a class-room practice in harmony therewith.

But other leaders who are now at work shaping American education say that, before we can hope to formulate a sound system of education, we must reconstruct our psychology. They tell us that the science of mind has hitherto considered (mainly, when not solely) the adult mind. The child mind is not merely a simplified and incomplete adult mind; it passes through various transformations, sloughs off old forms and shoots out new ones several times, before reaching the final stage. Therefore no sound system of education can be established until we have a trustworthy genetic psychology. The leader in this school of thought is Dr. G. Stanley Hall, President of Clark University, Worcester, Massachusetts. Dr. Stanley Hall began his investigations into the development of mental life in children more than twenty years ago, when he was Lecturer on Pedagogy at Harvard. His first publication on the subject appeared in May, 1882, under the title "Contents of Children's Minds." (*Princeton Review.*) In 1880 he was appointed Professor of Psychology and Pedagogy at Johns Hopkins University, and in 1888 President of Clark University (founded in 1887), a small institution, established to promote exclusively scientific research, and therefore admitting only graduate students. On the list of subjects which may be

submitted by students seeking a degree in philosophy Dr. Hall has given to education the rank of a "major" subject. Every year, therefore, one or more special inquiries into phases of child life or educational values are being carried on under Dr. Hall's guidance. The inquirer first pushes his investigation as far as he can over the plain of childhood at home and abroad; then he must search the other life sciences—biology, anthropology, and sociology—for any light these may throw on the subject, and he must glean from literature and history what men have previously felt and said about it. After sifting all this material he must formulate conclusions or suggestions of general educational value. The results of his investigation are published in one of the two journals issued by the University—the *American Journal of Psychology* or the *Pedagogical Seminary*.

The chief contributions which have been already furnished to the science of education by the Clark School may be conveniently classed under four heads: (1) Physiology and Physiological Psychology; (2) The Instincts of Childhood; (3) The Stages of Mental Growth; (4) Arrested Development.

1. The laboratory for experiments is in the charge of Dr. E. C. Sanford. It constitutes the starting point for many investigations, which are carried later into the schoolroom.

2. Many studies have been made with a view to discovering the peculiar nature and time of development of the various instincts. Dr. Hall considers the chief business of the Kindergarten and Primary School to be the cultivation of healthy instincts, and the transformation of tendencies which are harmful to such as are helpful.

3. That there are well-marked stages in mental development, alternate leaps and rests, has been proved by the investigations into the growth of the body and the development of instincts. Dr. Hall has sought to determine the periods at which various studies should be begun, and how the curriculum of the school may be adapted to the uneven rate of mental growth.

4. That arrest of development is a common result of our present unscientific training of children is a conviction that will be shared with Dr. Hall by many a teacher and parent. It is interesting to note that in an article in the *Forum* of September, 1901, he asks for the gift of 1,000,000 dols. to Clark University to establish an experimental school, in which to test their new educational principles. "The school," he writes, "will be essentially pedocentric rather than scholocentric; it will fit both the practice and results of modern science and psychological study; it will make religion and morals more effective, and will contribute something to bring the race to the higher maturity of the superman that is to be, effectiveness in developing which is the highest and final test of art, science, religion, home, State, literature, and every human institution."



Clark University comes into touch with the Common School teacher in its Summer School, which is attended by between two and three hundred teachers from institutions of all grades. The teachers come to hear of the latest doctrines, and also of the latest speculations, of the psychologist and educational theorist. Thus interest in the "Child Study Movement" has spread rapidly, and Dr. Hall and his coadjutors are now assisted by a host of workers, who supply him with the material for investigation. Also many independent investigators have entered the field, amongst whom we should note specially Mark Baldwin, Professor of Psychology at Princeton University, and Earl Barnes, late Professor of Pedagogy at Leland Stanford Junior University.

Genetic psychology, however, is only one line in the great march of scientific progress that marks this age. It is advancing step by step with the other sciences of which it is a branch—physiological and experimental psychology, anthropology, and sociology. In the larger Universities in America each of these sciences is assigned to a distinct department (more than twenty richly equipped laboratories are engaged in investigations in physiological psychology); and their influence in shaping the new ideas about education must be noted when endeavouring to account, as we now must seek to do, for the sudden development of Education Departments and Schools in the Universities.

#### V. TRAINING INTRODUCED INTO THE UNIVERSITIES.

The Normal School has never been so widely separated from the University in America as in England. Among educational institutions in general it ranks next to the University; many noted University professors began their career as instructors in Normal Schools, and a few schools have from the beginning either been affiliated to Universities, or have been granted permission under certain conditions to bestow degrees. For instance, the Peabody Normal College, Nashville, the only public Normal School of Tennessee, constitutes the Literary Department of the State University. Ohio has no Normal School; but in 1885 a Normal Department was opened in the State University, which, to some extent, supplies the lack. The Michigan State Normal College and the Normal College of New York City grant degrees of pedagogy.

The first demand for a more advanced instruction in the theory of education than was possible in the Normal Classes, came from University students who looked forward to becoming principals and superintendents of schools. After the Civil War there was a rapid advance in organising State systems of education, and many young men could then enter positions of responsibility and leadership straight from the University. To meet their needs courses of lectures were planned on school management and organisation. Brown University, Rhode Island, offered such a course in the years

1850-55; Michigan University in 1860. The first permanent Chair of Education was established at Iowa State University in 1873. The State Universities of Central and Western America, being closely connected with the general State system of education, rapidly followed the example of Iowa. The older universities of the east moved more slowly. To-day at least one professor of pedagogy is found in all universities or colleges of any note; and in several he is assisted by other professors, and the work organised as a special "department."

The courses of study in pedagogy are in general "elective," that is, they may be selected as a part of the work leading to a Bachelor's Degree. Several Universities offer also "post-graduate" courses. As examples of the work done in such departments I may cite the programmes of Michigan and Harvard Universities. The former offers ten different courses, viz.: "One in the art and one in the science of teaching; one in school supervision; one in child study; one in the sociological aspects of education, and four in the various phases of the history of education. The total amount of work given in one semester amounts to twenty-four hours." At Harvard "the courses cover the history of education, an introduction to educational theory, the organisation and management of Public Schools and Academies, and of City School systems, practice in teaching (there is no Practice School, but visits are paid to the Public Schools of Boston), methods of teaching Secondary School subjects, Foreign School systems, and a Seminary for the most advanced students for the special study of current educational problems."

During the last ten years in a few universities, the last and most important stage in the evolution of a University School of Education has been reached, viz., the establishment of schools for the purpose of carrying out *experiments in education*; and, coupled with this, for the purpose of offering opportunity for the observation of the best methods of teaching as exemplified by the most highly-trained specialists. Thus University Schools of Education are now beginning to claim a footing with Schools of Medicine and Law.

Two causes have mainly conduced to the founding of such schools. (1) The influence of genetic psychology in showing that no training is sound which is not based on a practical study of children. It follows from this that the University needs its child laboratory not only and not first as a practising ground for the student, but as a field for scientific observation; (2) the growing feeling that educational experiments must be carried on in the University by experts trained to distinguish mental characteristics, to guide mental development, and to foresee the effect of classroom practice in distant years. The public welfare, it is said, demands this of its scientific leaders—that they no longer leave to individual and casual efforts progress in a science so complex, and fraught with issues so vast, as is the science of education.

Illinois and Wisconsin State Universities have established "Schools of Practice." We have already mentioned that Dr. Stanley Hall hopes soon to found an Experimental School. For some years an Experimental School in the University of Chicago and two Practising and Experimental Schools in Columbia University have been proving the unique value which can be derived from a University "Laboratory of Education." The Chicago Experimental School was established six years ago by Dr. Dewey, Head of the Department of Philosophy and Pedagogy, for the purpose of discovering the special methods by which certain educational principles could be put into practice. In this school laboratory methods are practised in the lower classes. The children are there employed at various industries with a view, not only to form habits of industry and helpfulness, but also to bring them into right relations to society, and to promote rational intellectual development. Knowledge is sought for in answer to the problems which arise in connection with manual work. The industries are organised with the view also of stimulating inventiveness and developing the habit of adapting means to ends.

During the year 1900 a set of most valuable monographs on education were issued from Professor Dewey's department. I venture to say, from personal observation of the work and the wealth of ideas and originality contained in these monographs, that it is reaching the deepest springs of child life. No doubt many mistakes may be discovered in it, but these must accompany all experimenting, and more especially all educational experiments. The demand we must make of such a school is, that it shall show us how to bring our educational practice more into accordance with the laws of human development, and to such a demand Dr. Dewey's school is furnishing a striking answer.\*

This school owes its existence to the genius of Dr. Dewey, who has had to struggle against financial difficulties; and in point of equipment and fulness of opportunity for practical training, it has been hitherto much outshone by the Teachers' College of Columbia University, New York. As this is the most complete and extensive Educational Training School yet established, and as, no doubt, it will serve as model for many Schools of Pedagogy in other cities, I will mention its special features at greater length.

It had its origin in the desire of an Industrial Association to train good teachers of the domestic and industrial arts. The Committee of this Association had educational insight, and they recognised that industries can become educational only in so far as they follow sound general educational principles. "Industrial training," they said, "to have its fullest value must be an integral part of general education." So they elected as their President Dr. Nicholas

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\* Now that Colonel Parker's Institute has been incorporated with the University of Chicago, students of education should find there a professional school offering the widest opportunities, both philosophical and practical.

Murray Butler, a Professor of Philosophy at Columbia University, and a leader of educational progress, and proceeded to follow his advice in the matter of establishing a Training College for Teachers of the Domestic Arts and Industries. It opened in the autumn of 1887, with a staff of five teachers and a compulsory two years' course of work. Eighteen students entered for the full course, and eighty-six for special courses. Besides the professional subjects of study, such as would be found in any Secondary Training College in England, the course comprised:—Industrial art, domestic economy, mechanical drawing, and woodwork. It was a College which "undertook to train teachers able to teach manual training in connection with other subjects as a part of regular school work." The number of pupils rapidly increased, until in 1891 it was deemed advisable to raise the character of the school by stiffening the conditions of entrance. Since then it has admitted without examination graduates of Colleges and Normal Schools; other candidates for admission must first pass an examination, which places the required qualifications as equivalent to a two years' College course.

As far back as 1880 proposals had been laid before the Committee of the Columbia University, New York, to establish a professional school for the training of teachers for Secondary Schools and of Supervisors of Education.\* President Barnard year after year urged on the Trustees the duty of a University towards the education of the country. "Education is nowhere treated as a science, and nowhere is any attempt made to expound its true philosophy." So he wrote in his report to Congress for the year 1881.

When the "College for Teachers" was founded he gave it his hearty support, and expressed the hope that some day it would be brought into organic union with Columbia University. This became possible in 1898; it was then fully incorporated with the two Colleges already established, Columbia (men) and Barnard (women). It has now a staff of seventy-two special lecturers and instructors, and its students enjoy the right of admission to certain courses in the other Colleges. The work of the College is divided into five departments to meet the needs of different classes of teachers: (1) The graduate course of one year for graduates of Colleges and Normal Schools, leading to the higher diploma; (2) a course of one year for undergraduates of Columbia University or graduates of other Colleges, leading to the secondary diploma; (3) a course of two years for students who have completed a two years' College course, leading to the elementary diploma; (4) a Kindergarten course of two years, leading to the Kindergarten diploma; (5) courses of two years, leading to diplomas as teachers of domestic arts or domestic science, fine arts, manual training, or music.

Of the subjects of study on the yearly programme a certain number are prescribed, the student having the liberty to select about as

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\* Superintendents, Inspectors, etc.

many more. Any teacher who wishes to specialise in the philosophy of education can choose from twelve classes in philosophy; the student of psychology and child life from nineteen; the teacher of English and literature can select from about thirty; anthropology and biology are represented by six courses each, economics and sociology by ten.

As the College was founded in the first instance to train expert teachers, the practical side of the work has always received great attention. A model school called the Horace Mann School was established, for which in 1893 separate buildings were provided, capable of admitting 1,000 children. It includes both sexes and all grades, from the four-year-old Kindergarten child to the last year of High School *i.e.*, to the age of eighteen. It was found as this school grew, that it became less available for purposes of experiment and as a practice ground for the pupil-teacher; as only approved methods, and students with sufficient experience to apply them, could be admitted to its classrooms. Experimental work, therefore, has been relegated to another school, which is under the immediate charge of the College Professor of the Theory and Practice of Teaching.

It would seem that to encourage a school that is to serve as a "model" for imitation, to grow beyond the limits necessary to illustrate all the grades of school work may be a serious mistake.\* The overgrown City Schools are one of the evil features of our present educational systems, which, it is to be hoped, a more enlightened conception of education will abolish.

As the special strength of Colonel Parker's work lies in the emphasis laid on a selection of the best material, so the training at Teachers' College has its strong feature. There the chief stress is laid on method, *i.e.*, that the method of instruction both in the College and in the Practice Schools shall follow sound scientific principles. Dr. F. McMurry, the Professor of Method and Criticism, was formerly a student under Dr. Rein at Jena, and so here, as in the pedagogical department of many American Universities, Herbartianism forms the groundwork of the exposition of educational theory. Discussion, library and seminar methods have largely displaced the lecture in the University classrooms, and great emphasis is laid on training the students to do independent work.

New York has yet another University (the University of the City of New York) † distinguished by the attention given to the science of education; I mention it specially, because it has been the first to organise a full course of post-graduate work, leading to the degrees of Master and Doctor of Pedagogy.

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\* This limitation is a feature of Professor Rein's "Uebungs Schule," at Jena, in Germany.

† Not the same institution as the University of the State of New York, which has its headquarters at Albany, and is only a "University" in the Napoleonic sense, *i.e.*, a synthesis of the higher educational agencies of the State.

It is coming to be more and more recognised, that, under the American system of education, the chief responsibility for the welfare and progress of the schools rests with the Supervisors and Superintendents, and there is a growing demand for trained, broad-minded, and highly-cultivated men to occupy such positions. To meet this demand this University opened in 1890 the first professional School of Pedagogy. For the M. Ped. one year's attendance is compulsory; for the Dr. Ped., usually two years. Twenty courses of study are offered, covering physiological, experimental, analytic and genetic psychology, ethics, aesthetics and sociology as applied to education, philosophy, the history of education, the elements and institutes of pedagogy, and, lastly, school organisation. No practical work is provided, but the degrees are granted only after evidence of two or three years' successful school teaching.

#### VI. THE RECONSTRUCTED NORMAL SCHOOL.

We may now turn back to consider what has been the *general effect on the Normal Schools* of the recent development of mental science, and of efforts to reconstruct the curriculum, and reform the methods of the Elementary School. We note, firstly, the efforts made to raise the *general level of culture* of the teacher; secondly, to give him scientific professional training.

(1) The general level of culture has been raised by increasing the qualifications demanded for entrance. In Massachusetts, candidates must have had a High School course of four years; in the City Training Schools this is also required; in the Normal Schools of other States the conditions of entrance are lower, but the tendency is to bring them up to the level of Massachusetts. Again, the Normal Schools (like the Elementary Training Colleges of Great Britain) began with a one or two years' course of study, which was chiefly devoted to academic subjects. This was necessary because the students formerly came to the Normal Schools insufficiently prepared to enter upon professional training; now, as a rule, a two years' course of study is compulsory to gain a certificate, and a three or four years' course is offered to those who desire higher qualifications. Many schools offer a special professional course of one year for College graduates.

(2) The effect on professional training needs more detailed consideration. In the beginning of things in Massachusetts, a course of study was laid down to cover: (1) instruction especially in the common branches of the Elementary School curriculum; (2) the art of teaching; (3) the science of school government. Now, so far as a general description of topics is concerned, no great change is to be noted. Mr. A. J. Boyden, Principal of the State Normal School at Bridgewater, in a report written for the Paris Exhibition of 1900, gives an analysis of the general course of work laid down by the Massachusetts Board of Education which practically covers the same ground, except that instead of "The Science of School

Government" we find, "The Normal Student shall be led to make a practical study of children." This change, however, really affects the treatment of topic 2 (the art of teaching); and I will therefore return to consider it specially, after endeavouring to show why Number 1 (the common branches of the Elementary School) still holds a prominent place.

The eight grades of an American Common School require at least the three Rs, arithmetic, geography, and the history of the United States. Of late years nature study, drawing, vocal music, general history, and the outlines of civil government have been added in most town schools and many country schools. The student at a State Normal School is expected already to *know* these subjects, and to have taken two or more years of study beyond the standards of the Elementary School; but she knows them as mere knowledge; she must now revise them—learn them over again, from the standpoint of the teacher of them. To quote Mr. Boyden: "The Normal student must be carefully led through the educational study of the subjects of the curriculum, that he may learn to use each in the teaching process, and thereby learn the method of teaching"; and Dr. W. T. Harris writes about this part of the work thus: "No work that is done in the Secondary School—that is to say, the High School or the Academy—is an equivalent for the Normal School work done on the same studies. . . . The teacher needs precisely this re-examination of all his elementary branches in their relation to the higher studies that furnish them with their rules and laws."

We see, therefore, that teachers in American Training Colleges hold that a special scientific method belongs to the presentation of each subject, and that this method can be reached only by special studies undertaken with this purpose in view. As a rule, at the end of a course in special method the students are required to write notes of lessons, and to demonstrate their grasp of both subject and method by teaching a class. Under Colonel Parker at the Cook County Normal School, almost the whole work was of this nature. In September the students studied in the morning with the professors of the Training classes the subjects, which they would teach in the afternoons of October in the Practice School. Schemes of courses of ten or more lessons were written and carefully criticised by both the Training and Critic teachers before the beginning of October. Thus by the end of the year the students had worked over a full scheme of studies for the whole of the eight grades of the Elementary School; they had examined, and to some extent got by heart, a *materia medicæ*.

The present writer feels that work of this kind puts a meaning into "method" altogether different from a mere rule of thumb, applicable to any and every subject and "lesson." "Method" is understood as a necessary element of the subject, not as a form to be imposed upon it. Again, to quote Mr. Boyden, "The

separation of Normal School work into 'the academic study of subjects and the study of methods' is not sound educational practice.'

Passing on to the special work in psychology and theory of education, we find that here during the last ten years a revolution has taken place. Formerly the work was limited to a text-book on the science of mind, and to one or two text-books on school management. Now during a two years' course of study two or three periods a week are devoted to psychology and child study in the classroom, and much more time is given to observation and to the study of special topics out of class. The volume of reports already mentioned contains a special account of the work in this subject at the Fitchburg Normal School, Massachusetts, by Professor R. A. Kirkpatrick, a brief summary of which will help us to understand the direction it is taking.

In the first year introspective psychology and observational child study are made most prominent, and books are used but little. The aim is to make the students more conscious of what they already know about mental activity and the peculiarities of child nature, and to lead them to form habits of *observing* and thinking about such things. Classifications are early made by producing certain forms of mental activity, noting their peculiarities, and naming them. General activities, like habit and attention, are studied first; then special intellectual activities, such as sensation, perception, etc., followed by studies of the feelings and will. After a form of activity is known general truths about it are formulated, and the attempt made to find their pedagogical application. The chief facts of physiological psychology are taught by the teacher of physiology. To get into personal relations with the children of the Model School, the students meet them in small groups for an hour once a fortnight for play. They write a report of the games played, and of their observations upon the children.

During the second year the students spend much more time than during the first year in formulating the truths of psychology and child study that have been gained by scientific observation, and in considering general theories as to the application of these truths in education. The students do much more reading and much less observational work. Topics are prescribed upon which outlines are written or abstracts made. Each student also writes a thesis upon a subject connected with child study; for this she collects data in every possible way, and makes generalisations or verifies those made by others. One-third of the year is spent in full charge of a room. Here she teaches or observes for one half-day per week, and endeavours to become thoroughly acquainted with the children. A suggestive outline of facts to be observed is supplied; and, with the help of this, she writes reports on individual children, noting occupation of parents, school experience, character of the work done, temper, etc. Conferences are arranged, when these reports are read, and modes of treatment of individual children are discussed with the Director of Child Study.



It should be added that such a carefully arranged system of direct child study will not be found in many schools outside Massachusetts. Owing to the influence of Dr. Stanley Hall, who is honoured in his own country (in 1897, when I attended the Summer School of Clark University, eight out of the nine principals of the State Normal Schools were present), this State has gone ahead in this respect; but new light spreads rapidly in America, and what is done this year on the Atlantic coast may be found next year on the Pacific.

We see that this method displaces the text-book, and makes the child himself the centre of instruction. One of its salutary effects is that the Model or Practice School becomes a more important department of the training institution. In earlier days, when the work of the Normal School was, to a great extent, academic, the need of a Practice School was less felt, and in many schools the practice consisted in the senior students giving lessons to the juniors. Now nearly every school has, if not a fully equipped Practice School including all grades, at least one or more classes of young children. In this school methods are illustrated by skilled teachers and observational work carried on by the students. Where it is not possible for the students to practise in a school under the jurisdiction of the principal, arrangements are made for them to become pupil-teachers for periods varying from three to six months, in the Elementary Schools of the town.

Every effort is made that a Model School shall deserve its name. The staff receive the title "Critic" teachers, and they are immediately responsible for the oversight of the practice of the students. Plans of lessons are submitted to them before the lessons are given, and each teacher is expected to assist in every possible way by suggestion and criticism, the students who practise under her direction. The curriculum of the Practice School and the general oversight of the methods are subject to the control of the professors of the Training School, who are always specialists in certain branches of study.

As few of the students who enter the Normal School have had previous experience in teaching, and many of them on leaving will take entire charge of small district schools, it is imperative that they shall, while attending the Normal School, acquire the art of teaching. Many Normal Schools, therefore, have Practice Schools of several hundred children, and each student who takes the full course of work must spend in that school half of every working day for a period of six months, teaching at least one subject on each day. The length of time, however, which a student is required to teach varies with the ability shown. As a rule, a student is not permitted to teach until she has taken an elementary course in applied psychology and the principles of education; and the fashion that has been common in English Training Colleges of permitting students, not only to teach subjects the method of which they have not specially studied, but also under the same circumstances to

make formal criticisms of each other's work, is—I think, happily—little known now in the United States. Weekly conferences of the training teachers, critic teachers, and groups of students are held in many schools for the purpose of a general discussion of the practice work. The Normal School is considered, not as a place where the perfect teacher can be modelled, but as a place where she can be disciplined into good habits of professional study and school practice, habits which will continue throughout her career. Later on, the Teachers' Institutes and Reading Circles help to keep alive the interest of the majority of teachers in progressive methods of work.

#### VII. THE PRESENT PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF TEACHERS.

We now come to a final question regarding the Normal School: What is the value of its Leaving Certificate or Diploma of Graduation?

Every student who takes a full course of training at a State Normal School, or certain pedagogical courses at State Universities, receives, on the recommendation of the Principal, a certificate qualifying him or her to teach in that State. Possibly certain conditions are appended as to the length of time for which it is valid without renewal. But his certificate does not qualify him to teach in any other State, or in cities in his own State, which are entitled to their own Superintendent. To the foreign student of American education this appears a most hampering and injurious limitation. At present, for example, graduates of the University of Chicago are shut out from the Chicago schools until they pass the examination prescribed by the Chicago School Board.

And another injurious custom follows. When a Board has established its own City Training Class, it naturally fills the vacancies in the elementary schools under its jurisdiction with students trained in this class. In the large cities there may be room for a variety of Training Classes, and the deadly hand of routine does not there grip so tightly; but in the smaller cities the evils of "breeding in" must soon become very marked. The circle made by a succession of teachers who have been pupils in Elementary School, High School, and Training Class conducted on the same system, can only prove vicious; for, in the teacher's profession above all others, a variety of experience and training is necessary to counteract the tendency to fall into mechanical ruts.

To this criticism I would venture to add another regarding the general character of the instruction in American higher education, including much of the work at the larger Universities. A glance at the school and university programmes given in the Appendix will show the feature to which I allude. Courses of work are frequently outlined that are far too long to be accomplished in the time assigned. Now, in drawing up such outlines the American

teacher, as a rule, does not expect to cover the whole ground; and his students understand that only so much of it will be taken as the time permits. But allowing for this *sous-entendu*, it is yet to be observed, that the progressive teacher of the new type often encourages his students to undertake stretches of flight far beyond their soaring powers. Yet another element which makes for thinness and meagreness in the final results, is apt to creep into the class conducted on the modern discussion method. In stimulating inquiry and self-activity this method is far superior to the lecture system; but under weak guidance it degenerates into a trial of wits, and cultivates glibness and superficiality—the appearance of knowledge without the reality.

Nevertheless, admitting that much of the discussion about questions appertaining to the philosophy of education heard in the Training School and in teachers' meetings in the United States, reveals remarkable fluency in the use of a technical language rather than real depth of thought, the enthusiasm that makes all these enterprises possible is genuine. It has grown under the inspiration of half a dozen men, who would be honoured in any country for their scholarship, breadth of view, and insight into the educational problems of the age. It is primarily the devotion to science and to the common weal of these leaders of thought, that is revolutionising—or should we not rather say making for the first time possible—a true training of the teacher, and constructing gradually a scientific system of education. "North, east, south, and west," writes Dr. N. M. Butler, "teaching is constantly improving. It is based on more thorough scholarship, on stronger professional pride, on better special preparation. Where a quarter of a century ago there was one teacher who thought about teaching as such, and studied teaching, there are two score to-day. The Quincy movement was typical. Similar awakenings have come to hundreds of American communities, and he who runs may read the results."

Dr. W. T. Harris, a veteran in the movement, and one of its wisest leaders, has had unique opportunity of watching its devious courses and marking their tendency from his point of vantage as Director of the National Bureau of Education at Washington. In an article in the *Educational Review* of January, 1899, on "The Future of the Normal School," he speaks of the training that is needed, and is already largely in progress, thus:—"It has become evident that the method of instruction and the organisation of the work of training teachers should vary according to the grade of education. There is one method for higher education and another for elementary. Within each of these there should be a further discrimination of methods, so that five stages of method should be noted." Under "elementary" Dr. Harris classes training for the Kindergarten and for Elementary Schools; under "higher," training for secondary and college teaching, and for the expert who is to guide educational systems and push further

scientific investigation. Elementary training he considers the province of the Normal School; higher training of all the three stages should be pursued at a University. I have endeavoured to show that America has already specialised its training in four of these directions. Clark, Chicago, New York, and Columbia Universities undertake to train the specialist and expert; about two hundred Universities and Colleges recognise the special needs of the Secondary School teacher; the Normal School at present trains chiefly the Elementary School teacher; to a less extent it trains the Kindergarten and Secondary School teacher also.

The goal to be reached—that every teacher should, previous to entering on her professional work, receive both theoretical and practical training—is now looming within range of view. The State of New York has the most complete school and training system of any State; it therefore has led the way in fixing a time to begin closing the gates of the profession to all without special credentials. In 1895 it was enacted that, “After January 1st, 1897, no person shall be employed or licensed to teach in the Primary and Grammar Schools of any city authorised by law to employ a Superintendent of Schools who has not had successful experience in teaching for at least three years, or, in lieu thereof, has not graduated from a school or class for the professional training of teachers, having a course of study of not less than thirty-eight weeks, approved by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction.”

MARIA E. FINDLAY.

## APPENDIX I.

### THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS OF MASSACHUSETTS.

[From "Educational Monographs," Commonwealth of Massachusetts, U.S.A. Paris Exposition of 1900.]

#### SUBJECTS FOR COURSE OF TWO YEARS.

[The students entering upon the course are graduates of a good high school course of four years, or have had an equivalent of this course.]

1. Elementary course in psychology to indicate distinctly the principles and the methods of the teaching in the school.
2. The educational study of the following subjects, for the knowledge of their educational value, their principles, and the method of teaching in each :—
  - (a) *Mathematics*.—Arithmetic and book-keeping, elementary algebra, and plane geometry.
  - (b) *Nature Studies*.—Minerals, plants, animals, physical force, chemical force, geological agencies, geography; the human body, physical training, manual training.
  - (c) *Language*.—Reading and voice culture; English, including orthography, orthoepy, etymology, grammar, composition, rhetoric, literature; drawing, colour, vocal music.
  - (d) *History*.—History of the United States and civil government, school laws of the States, history of education.
3. The educational study of man, body, and mind, for the principles of education; the art of teaching, school organisation, school government.
4. Child study, observation and practice in the model school.

#### SUBJECTS FOR COURSE OF FOUR YEARS.

The students start with the same qualifications as in the two years' course.

Subjects 1, 3, 4 are the same as in the two years' course.

2. (a) *Mathematics*.—In addition to the two years' course trigonometry and surveying.
- (b) *Nature Studies*.—In addition sciences: physics, chemistry, mineralogy, zoology, geology, astronomy.
- (c) *Language*.—More extended study of the subjects of the two years' course: Latin, Greek, French, and German.
- (d) *History*.—History of the United States and civil government, school laws of the State, general history, history of education, political economy, sociology.

COURSE IN CHILD STUDY, THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,  
BRIDGEWATER, MASSACHUSETTS.

"The students of the Normal School have a definite course in practical child study, under careful direction, and make reports on their study. Such a study includes the (practice) school as a whole, the observation of all the details of school-work in different grades, the physical condition of the school, the character of the pupils, their intellectual condition, the home and social life of the community.

CONNECTION BETWEEN NORMAL AND PRACTICE SCHOOL, HYANNIS,  
MASSACHUSETTS.

"A special point is made in this school of connecting the work done in the practice school with that done in the Normal School. We attempt to make the practice school the centre, and focus all efforts in that direction. Every teacher in the Normal School is expected to do some teaching in the practice school, thus keeping in close touch with the children and their needs. Nearly every teacher in the practice school does some teaching with the Normal students, the principal taking methods in arithmetic, the principal of the primary departments methods in primary reading, another teacher penmanship, etc. All teachers in the Normal School are expected to act as supervisors of their particular subject in the practice school. When students are practising they prepare their lessons under the supervision of the teacher of that subject, who observes and criticises their work.

APPENDIX II.

EXTRACTS FROM COURSES OF INSTRUCTION IN STATE NORMAL  
SCHOOLS.

[From Report of Commissioner of Education, 1898-99. Vol. 2.  
Washington.]

STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS OF PENNSYLVANIA.

The courses of instruction prepared for the State Normal Schools of Pennsylvania, and approved by the State authorities, are as follows:—

ELEMENTARY COURSE.  
JUNIOR YEAR.

*Pedagogy.*—Elements of school management and methods.

*Language.*—Orthography and reading; English grammar, including composition; Latin, sufficient for the introduction of *Cæsar*.

*Mathematics.*—Arithmetic, except mensuration; elementary algebra.

*Natural Science.*—Physiology and hygiene.

*Historical Sciences.*—Geography, physical, mathematical, and political; history of the United States; civil government.

*The Arts.*—Penmanship, sufficient to be able to explain some approved system, writing to be submitted to board of examiners; bookkeeping, single entry, seven weeks; drawing, a daily exercise for at least twenty-eight weeks, work to be submitted to board of examiners; vocal music, elementary principles, and attendance upon daily exercises for at least one-third of the year.

SENIOR YEAR.

*Pedagogy.*—Psychology, embracing the intellect, sensibilities, and will, methods; history of education; model school work, at least twenty-one weeks of actual teaching daily during one period of not less than forty-five minutes; a thesis on a professional subject, and two meetings each week for the discussion of the practice of teaching.

*Language.*—The outlines of rhetoric, together with at least a fourteen weeks' course in English literature, including the thorough study of one selection from each of four English classics; Latin, Cæsar, through the Helvetian war.

*Mathematics.*—Arithmetic, mensuration; plane geometry.

*Natural Sciences.*—Elementary natural philosophy; botany.

*Historical Sciences.*—Reading of general history in connection with the history of education.

*The Arts.*—Elocutionary exercises in connection with the study of English literature.

SCIENTIFIC COURSE.

*Pedagogy.*—Moral philosophy; logic; philosophy of education; course of professional reading, with abstracts, notes, criticisms, to be submitted to board of examiners.

*Language.*—Latin, six books of Virgil, four orations of Cicero, the Germana of Tacitus, or a full equivalent; an equivalent of Greek, French; or German will be accepted for spherical trigonometry, analytical geometry; calculus, mathematical natural philosophy, and mathematical astronomy; literature.

*Mathematics.*—Higher algebra; solid geometry; plane and spherical trigonometry and surveying, with use of instruments; analytical geometry, differential and integral calculus.

*Natural Sciences.*—Natural philosophy, as much as in Snell's Olmsted; astronomy, descriptive and mathematical; chemistry; geology or mineralogy; zoology.

*History.*—General history.

STATE NORMAL COLLEGE, ALBANY, NEW YORK STATE.

COURSE OF STUDY.

*First Term.*—Philosophy of education, school economy, drawing; methods of teaching the following subjects:—Number, arithmetic, botany, place, geography, physiology, colour, language, grammar, zoology, object lessons, reading, penmanship, composition; a course of reading connected with professional work.

*Second Term.*—Methods of teaching the following subjects:—Algebra, geometry, physics, chemistry, Latin, rhetoric, mineralogy, geology, astronomy, preparation of specimens and apparatus.

*Third Term.*—Methods of teaching the following subjects:—Latin, Greek, or French, or German, history, solid geometry, mensuration, physical geography, civil government, trigonometry, sanitary science, bookkeeping, school architecture, preparation of specimens and apparatus.

*Fourth Term.*—History of education, school law, kindergarten methods; methods of teaching the following subjects:—Music, drawing, physical

culture, elocution, teaching in model school ; a course of reading connected with professional work ; discussion of educational themes.

Graduates of this course receive the degree of " Bachelor of Pedagogy."

#### STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, BALTIMORE, MARYLAND.

##### COURSE OF INSTRUCTION.

The course of instruction extends through three years. Graduates of high schools and certificated teachers may enter the second year's class without examination, and the third year's class on passing an examination on the studies of the second year.

*First Year, First Term.*—Review of arithmetic, mental and written ; geometry, first book ; object lessons ; history and geography ; English composition, letter writing ; pedagogy, lectures on methods in elementary schools ; Latin grammar (optional).

*First Year, Second Term.*—Algebra, through simple equations ; English grammar, parsing and analysis ; English composition ; physiology ; Latin reader (optional) ; lectures on teaching, organization and government of elementary schools.

*Second Year, First Term.*—Geometry (plane), continued ; geography and map drawing ; algebra, completed ; botany and natural history pedagogy, lectures on principles ; Latin (optional), Virgil.

*Second Year, Second Term.*—Arithmetic, completed ; parsing and analysis ; elocution ; English literature ; pedagogy, lectures on principles and methods ; chemistry, laboratory work ; cooking.

*Third Year, First Term.*—Physics ; physical geography ; botany (field work) ; English literature ; geometry, completed ; Latin (optional), Cicero.

*Third Year, Second Term.*—General review of elementary studies, with reference to practical teaching ; trigonometry and practical surveying (for men) ; bookkeeping by double entry ; teaching exercises ; pedagogy, history of education ; psychology, logic.

Singing, drawing, and calisthenics are taught in every term except the last ; also sewing (to women), and military tactics and the use of wood-working tools (to men).

#### NORMAL SCHOOL, PLYMOUTH, NEW HAMPSHIRE.

##### COURSE OF INSTRUCTION.

[Figures denote number of lessons per week (music and writing, each two lessons counted as one).]

	First year.		Second year.	
	First term.	Second term.	First term.	Second term.
Language	Reading, 3 ; grammar, 2 ; composition, 2.	English literature, 2.	English language, 3 ; essays, 1.	Essays, 1.
Mathematics	Arithmetic, 3 ; elements of geometry, 2.	Geometry, 3.	Algebra, 4.	Bookkeeping and reviews, 4.
Natural science	Physiography, 3.	Geography, 4 ; botany, 4 ; physics, 2.	Chemistry, 2 ; physiology, 2.	Physical geography, 4.
History	American history, 4.	General history, 4.	Civil government and school law, 2.	History of education, 4.
Professional	School economy, 2 ; drawing, 2 ; music, 1 ; writing, 1.	Psychology, 4 ; drawing, 2 ; music, 1.	Methods and training, 6 ; drawing, 2 ; music, 1.	Pedagogy, 4 ; methods and training, 2 ; drawing, 1.



THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TERRE HAUTE, INDIANA.

COURSES OF STUDY.

*Four Years' Course.*

First year :				
First term	Educational psychology (general nature of mind).	Orthoepy (penmanship).	Arithmetic	Grammar
Second term	Educational psychology (stages of knowing).	Physical and mathematical geography.	do.	do.
Third term	Educational psychology (feeling and will).	Physical and political geography, with map drawing.	Reading	United States history.
Second year :				
Fourth term	Methods (reading and language).	Physiology	Composition	do.
Fifth term	Methods (number and form).	do.	Latin	General history.
Sixth term	Methods (geography and history).	Latin	Rhetoric	do.
Third year :				
Seventh term	Latin	Physics	Music and drawing	Literature.
Eighth term	do.	do.	Algebra	Advanced composition.
Ninth term	History of education.	Botany	do.	Latin.
Fourth year :				
Tenth term	do.	Zoology or chemistry.	Geometry	do.
Eleventh term	Philosophy of education.	Zoology or chemistry (qualitative analysis).	do.	do.
Twelfth term	do.	Practice in training school.	Trigonometry	Latin graduating thesis.

The practice work continues through two terms. It consists of observation and teaching in the practice schools, which form one department of the Normal School. This work consists of three kinds:—(1) Lessons given daily by the students before the practice class as a whole; (2) lessons given daily at different hours when none or only part of the practice class is present; (3) the observation lessons given by the teacher in charge of the room. While a lesson is being taught the other members of the class take careful notes. On the following day it is carefully discussed by the members of the practice class and the teacher in charge of the room. In this discussion four things are done: (a) the point of the lesson is distinctly stated; (b) it is classed as favourable or unfavourable; (c) the principles that are the ground for considering it favourable are stated; (d) an explanation is made in order to show that the principles stated underlie the given act of teaching.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, YPSILANTI, MICHIGAN.

PROGRAMME OF RECITATIONS AND EXERCISES.

FIRST TERM.

*First Hour.*—Advanced drawing. Algebra I. Algebra II. Elementary physics. French IV. Geology. German I. History and civil government. Latin I. Latin IV. Old and Middle English. Psychology. Reading and orthoepy. Rhetoric. Training in physical science. Voice culture I.

*Second Hour.*—Algebra I. Algebra II. American literature. Chemistry. German II. General history. Greek II. Higher algebra. Psychology applied. Practice teaching. Vocal music. Zoology, first ten weeks. Comparative zoology, second ten weeks.

*Third Hour.*—Arithmetic, preparatory. Arithmetic, first ten weeks. Arithmetic, second ten weeks. Chemistry. German III. Geometry I. Geometry II. Grammar, first ten weeks. Grammar, second ten weeks. Harmony. History of education. Latin I. Physiology and hygiene. Practice teaching.

*Fourth Hour.*—Arithmetic, first ten weeks. Arithmetic, second ten weeks. Civil government. Elementary drawing. Elementary physics. French III. German I. Grammar, preparatory. Grammar, first ten weeks. Grammar, second ten weeks. Greek and Roman history. Latin II. Latin III. Practice teaching. Training in physical science. Voice culture II.

*Fifth Hour.*—Advanced English literature. French II. Geography, first ten weeks. Geography, second ten weeks. Greek III. Latin II. Musical composition. Penmanship, first ten weeks. Penmanship, second ten weeks. Rhetoric. Reading and orthoepy, first ten weeks. Reading and orthoepy, second ten weeks. Training in physical science.

*Sixth Hour (afternoon).*—Professional work in arithmetic, grammar, reading, geography.

#### SECOND TERM.

*First Hour.*—Algebra I. Algebra II. Advanced vocal music. Advanced drawing. Elementary physics. English literature. German I. German IV. Latin I. Latin IV. Physiology and hygiene. Psychology applied. Physical technics, second ten weeks. Rhetoric. Surveying, second ten weeks. Trigonometry, first ten weeks. United States constitutional history.

*Second Hour.*—Algebra I. Algebra II. Advanced physics. Botany. English constitutional history. French II. French III. Geometry I. Geometry II. Greek II. History of education. Political science, second ten weeks. Practice teaching. Training in physical science. United States history. Voice culture.

*Third Hour.*—Arithmetic, first ten weeks. Arithmetic, second ten weeks. Botany. Civil government. German II. Grammar, first ten weeks. Grammar, second ten weeks. Latin I. Latin II. Psychology. Practice teaching. Training in physical science. Vocal music.

*Fourth Hour.*—Arithmetic, preparatory. Arithmetic, first ten weeks. Arithmetic, second ten weeks. Advanced harmony. Elementary drawing. Elementary physics. German I. General history. Grammar, first ten weeks. Grammar, second ten weeks. Literature of music. Latin III. Physiology. Practice teaching.

*Fifth Hour.*—Advanced chemistry, first ten weeks. Astronomy, second ten weeks. Geography, first ten weeks. Geography, second ten weeks. German III. Greek III. History and civil government. Latin II. Penmanship, first ten weeks. Penmanship, second ten weeks. Rhetoric. Study of masterpieces. Training in physical science. United States history. Voice culture IV.

*Sixth Hour (afternoon).*—Professional instruction in arithmetic, grammar, reading, geography.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, FLORENCE, ALABAMA.

CURRICULA.

Year.	Term.	Mathematics.	Science.	Language.	Form study and drawing.	Pedagogics.
First	Each	Arithmetic	Geography; map drawing; physical geography.	Language lessons; grammar; composition.	Study of type forms, modeling in clay; stick and tablet laying; paper folding and paper cutting; drawing. (Fraug's Shorter course.)	During two recitation periods the pupils are taught a variety of subjects according to improved methods. This teaching is done by members of the senior class, under the supervision of critic teachers.
Second	Fall	Algebra	Physiology	Grammar critically reviewed; rhetoric.	Study of type forms; expressing ideas of form by making, by drawing, by language; first principles of decoration; conventionalising; color (Fraug's course.)	Lessons on the senses, objects, and qualities. Lessons on place, number, form, color, and force. Lessons on occupations, minerals, plants, and animals.
	Winter Spring	Algebra	Physiology Botany	Rhetoric; General history.		
Third	Fall	Algebra	Natural philosophy.	United States history or Latin.	Object drawing; working drawings; constructions; perspective (linear); beauty in ornament; arrangements in colored paper; original designs. (Fraug's course.)	Methods in geography. Methods in arithmetic. Methods in language.
	Winter	Plane geometry.	Natural philosophy.	Civil government or Latin.		
	Spring	Plane geometry.	Natural philosophy.	Bookkeeping or Latin (Caesar).		
Fourth	Fall	Solid Geometry.	Chemistry	Writings of select English and American authors or Latin (Caesar).	Outline of art history; how to introduce drawing in our public schools; how to teach children to observe, to think, and to express their thoughts by drawing; review of primary and intermediate work (Fraug's course.)	Recitations; school government; applied psychology; practice teaching. School organization and management; the teacher; school ethics; applied psychology; practice teaching. School laws; school systems; history of education; applied psychology; practice teaching.
	Winter	Trigonometry	Chemistry	Essays, orations, and select readings, or Latin (Cicero).		
	Spring		Chemistry	Preparation of theses or Latin (Virgil).		

THE TUSKEGEE NORMAL SCHOOL, ALABAMA (COLOURED STUDENTS).  
[Principal, BOOKER WASHINGTON.]

The Tuskegee Normal School was established by an act of the Legislature of Alabama, passed in 1880, and was opened in a church, July 4th, 1881, with thirty students and one teacher. The school has now (1891), including

the night school and the training school, 730 pupils, of whom 212 are in the normal department. The normal course includes reading, spelling, arithmetic, geography, grammar, history, physiology, rhetoric, literature, algebra, geometry, physics, botany, bookkeeping, school laws of Alabama, theory and practice of teaching, music, drawing, civil government and political economy, mental and moral philosophy. The theory and practice of teaching is one of the eight subjects pursued by the senior class. The industrial department has advanced to a high state of efficiency; it is sub-divided into the following branches:—

1. *Agriculture*.—The farm of 1,480 acres not only furnishes valuable employment for students, but supplies largely the demands of the schools.

2. *Brickmaking*.—On the farm have been found beds of clay suitable for making bricks. From these beds the students have made bricks enough (and have laid them themselves) to build four substantial buildings for school use.

3. *Carpentry*.—The shop is furnished with several sets of tools, and the students are taught to make fences, build cottages, make and repair furniture, etc.

4. *Printing*.—The office is well furnished and is under the management of a first-class printer. The students do much job-work for the school and the surrounding country.

5. *Blacksmithing*.—At present the blacksmith and wheelwright shops are combined. This department does all the work for the school and farm, and much for the town and country.

6. *Tinsmithing, Shoemaking, Harness-making*.—All the roofing is done by students from the tin shop, and a large quantity of tinware is furnished the boarding department.

7. *Sewing*.—Much of the dressmaking for the girls and all the plain sewing of the school are done in this department. In connection with it is a sales-room, in which the products of the sewing-room are offered for sale to the students.

8. *Laundry*.—Here the girls are taught the art of washing and ironing after the most improved methods. Very little machinery has been introduced.

9. *Sawmill*.—A large portion of the farm is covered with pine forest, which supplies the mill with timber. A planing mill is attached, which dresses the lumber for use. Without the sawmill, the brickyard, and the carpenter's shop it would have been impossible, with restricted means, to put up the buildings required by the institute.

Tuition is free. The price of board, including washing, light, fuel, etc., is 8 dols. per month. Students are given an opportunity to work out 2 dols. or 3 dols. per month, so that with a good outfit of clothing 50 dols. is sufficient to carry an industrious student through the school year of nine months.

#### TEACHERS' TRAINING CLASSES, NEW YORK STATE.

##### EXTRACT FROM COURSE OF STUDY.

(The course of study is prescribed upon the advice of a committee of principals representing the union schools and academies of the State.)

##### READING.

##### I. Thought:—

1. Definition.
2. Ways of getting it.
3. Ways of expressing it.

- II. 1. Definition of reading.  
2. Preparation made for reading before school life begins.  
3. Use of the principle of association in teaching reading.  
4. Comparison of methods.
- III. The alphabet method :  
Objections—
  1. Term is given before idea.
  2. Works from the unknown to the known
  3. Does not begin objectively.
  4. Makes slow stumbling readers.
  5. Does not secure good expression.
  6. A very slow method.
- IV. The phonic method :  
Cannot have a perfect phonic method—
  1. The same letters represent different sounds.
  2. Different letters the same sound.
  3. Some letters have no sound.
- V. The word method :
  1. Advantages—
    - (a) Teaches ideas before terms.
    - (b) Commences objectively.
    - (c) Begins at the child's standpoint.
    - (d) Makes sight readers.
    - (e) Children read with intelligence and expression.
- VI. The sentence method :
  1. Advantages—
    - (a) Does not violate any principle of teaching.
    - (b) Begins at the child's standpoint.
    - (c) Can be made interesting.
  2. Objections—
    - (a) Cannot be followed strictly.
    - (b) Gives no key by which pupils can help themselves.
- VII. Suggestions in the different methods :
  1. In the alphabet method perception and memory are chiefly cultivated in detecting resemblance and difference.
  2. In the phonic method care should be taken in producing the exact sound.
  3. In the word method the order of development is—
    - (a) The idea suggested by the object.
    - (b) The spoken word expressing the idea.
    - (c) The written word expressing the idea.
    - (d) The thought expressed by a collection of words.
- VIII. Steps in the work of each lesson :
  1. A conversational lesson about some familiar object.
  2. Show the object or a picture of it, or make a drawing of the object.
  3. Have the pupils give the name of the object—the spoken name.
  4. Write the name on the board.
  5. Drill on the word, having pupils to pronounce it.
  6. Require pupils to write the words on their slates.
  7. Combine words into sentences.

## IX. How to conduct first work :

1. Vocabulary to be used.
2. Practices to be observed.
3. Practices to be avoided.
4. How to combine spelling and reading
5. When to use books.

## X. Means of maintaining interest :

1. Sight reading.
2. Supplementary reading.

## XI. Errors to be avoided :

1. Too great rapidity in advancing pupils.
2. Mispronunciation of words.
3. Mechanical reading.
4. Too much criticism.
5. Too much drill on non-essentials.
6. Neglect to pursue the natural order of mental growth.
7. Attempts at elocutionary effect.

## VII. Points that may need special attention :

1. Attend to pupils' positions.
2. Attend to pupils' breathing.
3. Attend to the thought.
4. Attend to the expression of the thought.

## APPENDIX III.

THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, DILLON, MONTANA (OPENED 1897 .

SYLLABUS OF 1901-1902.

OUTLINE OF THE COURSE OF STUDY.

## THREE YEAR COURSE

*First Year.*

First Term.	Second Term.
Grammar.	Rhetoric.
Chemistry.	Physiography.
Algebra II.	Plane Geometry.
General History I.	General History II.
Drawing throughout the year.	

*Second Year.*

English and American History.	Political Economy.
Physiology.	Psychology.
Solid Geometry and Trigonometry.	Algebra III.
English Literature.	American Literature.
Literary reading throughout the year.	

*Third Year.*

Sociology. Physics. Methods and Observation.	History of Education. Zoology or Botany. Practice and Observation.
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LATIN COURSE.

*First Year.*

Grammar. Chemistry. Algebra II. Latin I.	Rhetoric. Physiography. Plane Geometry. Latin II.
Drawing throughout the year.	

*Second Year.*

General History I. Physiology. Solid Geometry and Trigonometry. Latin III.	General History II. Zoology or Botany. Algebra III. Latin IV.
Literary reading throughout the year.	

*Third Year.*

English and American History. Physics. English Literature. Latin V.	Political Economy. Psychology. American Literature. Latin VI.
Literary reading throughout the year.	

*Fourth Year.*

Sociology. Latin VII. Methods and Observation.	History of Education. Latin VIII. Practice and Observation.
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The German Course is the same as the Latin Course, except that German is substituted for Latin.

SCIENTIFIC COURSE.

*First Year.*

Grammar. Chemistry. Algebra II. General History I.	Rhetoric. Physiography. Plane Geometry. General History II.
Drawing throughout the year.	

*Second Year.*

English and American History. Physiology. Solid Geometry and Trigonometry. English Literature.	Political Economy. Zoology. Algebra II. American Literature.
Literary reading throughout the year.	

## Third Year.

Sociology.	History of Education.
Physics.	Botany.
Analytic Geometry.	Calculus I.
Surveying and Advanced Trigonometry.	Psychology.
Literary reading throughout the year.	

## Fourth Year.

Astrophysics or Astronomy.	Geology.
Calculus II.	Analytic Mechanics.
Methods and Observations.	Practice and Observation.

## EXTRACTS FROM "DESCRIPTION OF THE COURSES."

*Psychology and Pedagogy.*—To provide for courses of study that differ, both in the objects to be attained and time apportioned to them, two courses in psychology are offered. In each course, the work will be as comprehensive as the time will allow, and in both, the purpose is to lead those studying, to become acquainted with the psychical operations of themselves and others, to understand what psychology means, and to realise the significance of the subject in the determination of method.

A psychological laboratory fully equipped for giving a practical course in experimental psychology has been provided. This equipment includes a kymograph with various accessory appliances for the performing of experiments and pursuing such investigations as are ordinarily undertaken with such apparatus. A pseudoscope, vernier chronoscope, memory apparatus (after Jastrow), pneumograph, olfactometer, ophthalmoscope, temperature cylinders, colour discs and rings, induction coils and an automatograph are some of the pieces of apparatus supplied for this work.

Students in the physical laboratory will be called upon from time to time, to construct apparatus necessary to carry out special investigations undertaken in this line.

The management of the school confidently believe this will be one of the most valuable acquisitions to the working material of the institution.

*The Professional Course (Elementary).*—From the statement of the objects and character of this course of study, it is apparent that its scope is necessarily very limited, hence little can be attempted in psychology beyond the direction and cultivation of careful habits of observation and introspection, with the study in a general way, of mental activities and processes, in order that the principles of mental growth and their relation to educational processes may be determined.

Some elementary work, as James' Talks with Teachers, will be used as a text and will be supplemented by references to other works, lectures, and practical experiments in such work as sense training, securing and fixing the attention, exercises of the will, perception, etc. The supplementary work will be determined by the needs and capabilities of the class.

*History of Education.*—This course will provide for a general survey of the rise and progress of Education and Educational systems of ancient, mediæval and modern times, the consideration of these in their relation to one another, how each developed alone or from some other, and the influence yielded by each system in the development of the country to which it belonged. With this object in view, a study will be made of the educational ideas and means provided for education by the Egyptians, Hebrews, Greeks and Romans; the educational ideas of the Middle Ages,



the rise of the Monastic, Scholastic and University systems; the Renaissance. Humanism and the Jesuitical Schools; educational reformers and their work, including the study of the work of Rabelais, Montaigne, Ratic, Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Frœbel on the Continent; and of Ascham, Locke and Milton in England. The ideas of modern educators such as Spencer, Horace Mann and others, with the trend of education at present, will also be studied.

Painters' History of Education will be followed as a text. Investigation of special work will require the use of such texts as Quick's Educational Reformers, History of Education by Davidson, History of Pedagogy by Compayré, William's History of Modern Education and Hall's Bibliography of Education, and others with which the library of the school is well provided.

*Training Department.*—The work of this department consists of both theory and practice, and occupies much of the time of the last forty weeks of the course.

Previous to entering this department the pupils have completed at least two years of academic work, including a careful study of such psychological principles as are needed in teaching. The special aim of this last year is to make practical application of principles to the teaching of subject matter. During the first twenty weeks attention is given to the preparation and criticism of lessons in the various branches taught in the first eight grades of the public schools. This work is supplemented by observation of expert teaching of each subject under discussion.

#### *Methods—*

General Method (4 weeks), Miss Harwood.	Drawing and Construction (4 weeks), Miss Huntsman.
Reading (4 weeks), Miss Harwood.	Number (4 weeks), Miss Harwood.
Language and Reading (4 weeks), Miss Harwood.	Arithmetic (4 weeks), Mr. Fenner.
Story Work (4 weeks), Miss Harwood, Dr. Swain.	Science (4 weeks), Miss Harwood.
	Geography (4 weeks), Mr. Monroe.

*Practice Work.*—During the last twenty weeks of the training work, one half of each day is spent in practical work in the public schools of Dillon, under the criticism of the Principal of the Training Department. Each pupil teacher gives instruction in one subject to the pupils in the grade to which she is assigned. During the remaining time she assists in the general routine of the school-room. In this way experience is gained not only in teaching, but in the general organization of the school-room.

*Methods, Reading.*—Purpose in teaching reading; relative value of the subject devices used; discussion of practical work in the grades; the use of phonics; expression; supplementary reading, its aim and material.

The school library supplies many books for reference, both from standpoint of method and material.

*Method in Nature Work.*—Special effort will be made in this work to suggest such material as is available in the various parts of Montana.

Devices for use of this material will be discussed.

*Botany and Zoology.*—Twenty weeks in each.

It is the object in both of these subjects to present the work in such a manner as to secure systematic and correct habits of study, as well as adequate and correct methods of presentation of matter for study.

In botany, special attention is given to the physiology of plants—while morphology and vegetable ecology also receive that consideration that

their comparative importance warrants. The course presented has been arranged with the view to assisting teachers in the nature studies, which now hold such a prominent place in the common school course of study. Such an amount of work will be given in classification as will enable students to determine and recognise the principal characteristics of a few of the most important families of the flora of Montana. A representative herbarium of Montana flora will be available for comparative study.

In Zoology, dissections and examinations of insects, worms, fish and a full line of typical specimens, will be required.

Identification of the birds of Montana, their habits and economic importance will receive special attention.

A collection of representative specimens of insects will be made by students. This course is also arranged to facilitate the work in nature studies.

*Geology.*—Twenty weeks. In connection with the study of the text, field work is done. The study of minerals from the actual specimens is the chief aim. The methods of identifying and classifying minerals by chemical tests and blow-pipe analysis are taught.

Special attention is given to the geological features of Montana and the work is made as practical as possible. A small but excellent collection of minerals and metallic ores has been obtained and a large number of Montana ores has been loaned this department. In order that this work may be better done, donations or loans of specimens that represent petrology, economic geology or palæontology, are earnestly solicited from those who may be able to furnish them. All such will be gratefully acknowledged.

*Course I., English Literature.*—Twenty weeks. Chaucer, The Prologue to the Canterbury Tales; Spenser, Selections from The Faerie Queen; Shakespeare, The Merchant of Venice, Midsummer Night's Dream, Macbeth; Milton, L'Allegro, Il Penseroso, Hymn on the Nativity, Lycidas, Paradise Lost, Books I-II; Dryden, Alexander's Feast, Ode on St. Cecilia's Day; Addison and Steele, selections from De Coverley Papers; Burns, Cotter's Saturday Night; Tam O'Shanter and others; Wordsworth, selected poems; Tennyson, The Princess and others.

*Geometry.*—In studying this subject, the training in logic is of primary importance and the acquirement of geometrical conceptions of secondary consequence. To secure facility in the use of geometrical reasoning, two or more demonstrations for the same theorem are occasionally suggested. It is desired that the student may learn to give proofs with the least amount of assistance from the teacher or text, consistent with rapid progress over the ground covered by text books on this subject. To this end, the text studied has only a few hints and suggestions with all except the most difficult demonstrations, while the easiest demonstrations are given as exercises. In the mimeographed material studied during the present school year, the arrangement is different from that of ordinary text books, rectilinear figures being treated through proportions and areas before circles are mentioned.

Twenty weeks are given to plane geometry and ten weeks to solid geometry.

*Trigonometry.*—Ten weeks. This course enables the student to understand and develop the principles involved in the solution of triangles, and to acquire considerable facility and accuracy in numerical computations.

The text is mimeographed material by the instructor.

*Political Economy.*—Twenty weeks. This study aims particularly to acquaint the student with the main course of industrial development. For this purpose England and the United States furnish the most practical field. The former presents a picture of gradual and almost unbroken development, chiefly within historic times, from the crude beginnings of

primitive industry to the most advanced and complex industrial organisation; the latter, by the phenomenon of a constantly receding frontier, offers the spectacle of all grades of industrial life in existence at the same time, and in more or less immediate connection with each other. This historical study is followed by a closer survey of present industrial organisation.

The library contains a large selection of standard works on general political economy and monographs on special topics, and the study is carried on largely through assigned readings and discussions. From the starting point of human wants as the basis of economic science, the influence of wants in giving impetus and direction to industrial activity is studied, and the various forms of that activity, especially in the organisation of capital, of labour, and of exchange, and the forces which determine the distribution of wealth, are discussed. Current economic problems are touched, less with a view of offering complete solutions than of observing the causes of these problems, the factors involved, and the obstacles which stand in the way of speedy and satisfactory settlement.

*Sociology.*—Twenty weeks. Social phases of education are coming to receive more recognition than formerly. For this reason, as well as for the reason that mental development in the child presents, in a measure, an epitome of race evolution, the well-prepared teacher must comprehend something of the course of race development. The purpose of this study is not so much to discuss various theories of social organisation, as it is to gain practical help on the problem of education. Beginning with a survey of primitive institutions, this study presents an outline of their evolution to the stage reached in modern society. The chief practical purpose for the teacher is, by learning something of the course traversed by the race in its development, to gain a better understanding of the natural course of that development in the individual child, whose faculties are to unfold under the training of the teacher.

*Drawing.*—Twenty weeks. The aim of this course is not to make artists of students, but to awaken them to a sense of the use, beauty, and possibilities of art, and to give them such instruction in the principles and practice of drawing as shall enable them to take up such work with skill and confidence when they shall become teachers in our public schools. Work will be given in modelling, paper folding and cutting, outline, light and shade, landscape drawing, illustration, historic ornament, decoration, construction, and other forms of expressive work. Pencil, pen, crayon, and brush will be used. The drawing-room is large and well lighted, and is equipped with type-forms, useful and ornamental objects, sketches, pottery, models and casts, pictures, etc. Seventy-five lantern-slides, illustrative of the best in architecture, sculpture, and painting are an important addition to this department. A brief study of the history of art and the lives of great artists such as Michael Angelo, Raphael, Murillo, Bonheur, Millet, and others will be made; collections are made by the individual students of their most famous and characteristic works. The value of pictures and their use in school-room decoration is dwelt upon, and the drawing work of the different grades in the public schools is outlined and discussed.

*Penmanship.*—Ten weeks. Both the Spencerian and vertical systems are taught. The method of teaching writing to pupils is discussed, and forms for written work in the grades, letter-writing, dictation, outline, bills, receipts, poetry, and prose serve as copies for practice.

*Physical Culture.*—Daily exercises from ten to fifteen minutes in length will be given in the gymnasium. They will consist of systematic exercises for the proper development of the body, suggestions for the proper care and use of the body. Drills for standing, marching, will be given, and outdoor games such as tennis, basket-ball, etc., are encouraged.

APPENDIX IV.

The chief books and papers consulted have been the following :—

I. Reports :

- The Report of the United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, for the year 1898-1899.
- Monographs on Education in the United States prepared for the United States exhibit at the Paris Exhibition, 1900, edited by Dr. N. M. Butler. Two volumes.
- Eight Educational Monographs on the Public Schools of Massachusetts, prepared for the Paris Exhibition, 1900.
- Report to the Schools Inquiry Commission on the Common School System of the United States and of the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, by Rev. J. Fraser. 1866.
- Report to the Secondary Education Commission, on Certain Features of Secondary Education in the United States of America and in Canada, 1895, by J. J. Findlay.
- The Training of Teachers in the United States of America, Bramwell and Hughes. 1894.
- Education in the United States, Richard G. Boone.
- Report on English Training Colleges, 1900, A. Rankine, H.M.I.

II. Educational Literature :

- Life and Educational Reform of Francis Wayland Parker, V. A. Osgood, 1900. Parker's "Notes of Talks on Teaching"; "How to Study Geography"; "Talks on Pedagogic."
- Courses of Study at the Cook County Normal School and at the Chicago Institute.
- Autobiographical Articles by Dr. S. Hall in the Pedagogical Seminary, December, 1899, and March, 1901.
- The School and Society (1899); The Elementary School Record (1900); Manuals of Psychology and Ethics, by Dr. John Dewey.
- Method in the Recitation, by Dr. F. McMurry.

III. Records and announcements of University and other Education Departments :—University of the City of New York; Columbia University; the University of Chicago; Harvard University; Philadelphia School of Pedagogy; Bureau of Training Classes, State of New York.

TEACHERS COLLEGE OF COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY  
(NEW YORK).

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THE ORGANISATION OF COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

On October 31, 1754, during the reign of George II, His Majesty's Letters Patent under the Great Seal of the Province were issued, incorporating "The Governors of the College of the Province of New York in the City of New York in America," and providing for the establishment of a College, to be known as "King's College," "for the instruction and education of youth in the Learned Languages and in the Liberal Arts and Sciences." The purpose of the College as stated at that time was to instruct students in "every Thing that can contribute to their true Happiness both here and hereafter."

The charter named as Governors the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Governor of the Province, certain officers of the Crown, *ex-officio*, the Rector of Trinity Church, and the Ministers of the Reformed Dutch, Lutheran, French, and Presbyterian Churches for the time being, and twenty-four residents of the city. Under this charter King's College was founded, continuing to be known by that name until 1784, when it was reorganised by act of the Legislature of the State of New York, which changed the name to Columbia College.

Several amendments have since been made to the charter, notably in 1787 and in 1810, but in all essential respects the original enactment remains unchanged. Under the corporate title of "Columbia College in the City of New York" there has grown up in recent years a University system, which was first officially recognised in 1896. The title to all corporate property is vested in a board of twenty-four trustees, whose term of office is for life, and who form a self-perpetuating body, exercising all power of appointment as to all officers of instruction and administration. The executive control of the institution is vested in the President and the University Council. The President has charge of the educational administration of the University, and is Chairman of the University Council, and of every Faculty established by the Trustees. The University Council is a representative body consisting of the President, the Dean, and the Secretary of the College (*ex-officio*), and the Dean and one elected member of each of the Faculties of the University. Subject to the reserve power of control by the Trustees, the University Council has charge of the general educational affairs of the University, and of all matters affecting more than one faculty.

462 *Teachers College of Columbia University (New York).*

The University, as at present constituted, consists of (A) the undergraduate colleges—Columbia College for men and Barnard College for women; (B) the non-professional graduate faculties of Philosophy, Political Science, and Pure Science; (C) the professional schools of Law, Medicine, Applied Science, and Teachers College.

*A.—The Undergraduate Colleges.*

(1) Columbia College and (2) Barnard College offer a course of four years leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts. Candidates for admission to these Colleges must pass examinations on prescribed subjects, which represent, according to the American system of public education, twelve years of school work, although provision is made for the admission of candidates who complete the required course as early as the age of fifteen years. The curriculum furnishes a wide range of electives, both literary and scientific, making it possible for a student to elect such courses during his first three years as will fit him either for the professional course he may intend to pursue, or for advanced work under any of the non-professional faculties. During the senior year the College student may study under any of the Faculties of the University.

*B.—The Non-Professional Graduate Faculties.*

(1) The Faculty of Philosophy offers advanced courses and opportunities for original research in Philosophy, Psychology, Education, Greek and Latin (including Archaeology and Epigraphy), English Literature, Music, and the Germanic, the Romance, and the Oriental Languages.

(2) *The Faculty of Political Science* offers advanced courses and opportunities for original research in Political and Social Science, including History, Economics, and Public Law.

(3) *The Faculty of Pure Science* offers advanced courses and opportunities for original research in Mathematics, Mechanics, Astronomy, Physics, Chemistry, Mineralogy, Geology, Zoology, Botany, Physiology, Anatomy, and Bacteriology.

Courses of study under all of these faculties are open to students who have received a Bachelor's degree from some American college in good standing or its equivalent from a foreign institution. These courses lead to the University degrees of Master of Arts and Doctor of Philosophy. Candidates are required to pursue courses of study or research in one major and two minor subjects, but are not held to any fixed number of hours of attendance per week. Requirements for University degrees are (a) University residence of at least one year for the degree of Master of Arts, and two (usually three) years for Doctor of Philosophy; (b) the satisfactory completion of courses of study or research in one major and two minor subjects; (c)

a dissertation within the scope of the major subject; (d) an oral examination in the presence of the Faculty on all subjects of the course.

*C.—The Professional Schools.*

(1) The School of Law, established in 1858, offers a course of three years, leading to the Degree of Bachelor of Laws. The design of the school is to prepare students for practice in any state of the Union, and in furtherance of that idea the endeavour is made to give a thorough, practical, and scientific education in (a) the Common Law of the United States, together with such statutory modifications as are generally in force in the several States; (b) Equity, in its development and as it exists in the United States; (c) the Law of the State of New York, including practice and pleading under the code of Civil Procedure; (d) the Public Law of the United States, and the principal European countries, including Constitutional Law, Administrative Law, and International Law; (e) Comparative Jurisprudence and Roman Law. The present standard of admission to the School of Law is the equivalent of the first two years of Columbia College. After 1903 no student will be admitted to this school who does not hold the Bachelor's degree.

(2) The School of Medicine, founded in 1807, as the College of Physicians and Surgeons, and merged in Columbia University in 1891, offers a course of four years in the principles and practice of Medicine and Surgery, leading to the degree of Doctor of Medicine. The courses of instruction are comprised in the following among other departments:—Anatomy, General Chemistry, Physiological Chemistry, Dermatology, Diseases of Children, Gynecology, Laryngology, Materia Medica, and Therapeutics, Neurology, Obstetrics, Ophthalmology, Otology, Pathology, Physics, Physiology, Practice of Medicine, Surgery. The requirements for admission to the School of Medicine are determined by the Education Department of the State of New York, which conducts the entrance examinations. It is also proposed to make this department a graduate school in the near future.

(3) The School of Applied Science, established in 1864 as the School of Mines, furnishes four-year courses leading to appropriate professional degrees in Mining Engineering, Mining and Geology, Analytical Chemistry, Industrial Chemistry, Organic Chemistry, Civil Engineering, Sanitary Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, and Architecture. The requirements for admission to these courses are in general the completion of a satisfactory secondary-school course as tested by examinations in Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, English, French, German, History, and Freehand Drawing.

(4) *Teachers College* is the professional school of Columbia University for the study of education and the training of teachers. It takes academic rank with the Schools of Law,

Medicine, and Applied Science. The purpose of the College is to afford opportunity, both theoretical and practical, for the training of teachers of both sexes for kindergartens and elementary and secondary schools, of specialists in various branches of school work, including normal schools and colleges, and of principals, supervisors, and superintendents of schools.

#### ORGANISATION OF TEACHERS COLLEGE.

Teachers College, founded in 1888, and chartered by the Regents of the University of the State of New York on January 12th, 1889, became, by an agreement dated March 22nd, 1898, a part of the educational system of Columbia University. The President of Columbia University is President, *ex-officio*, of Teachers College, and the College is represented upon the University Council by the Dean and an elected representative of its Faculty. The University Professors of philosophy and education, and of psychology are members of the Faculty of Teachers' College, and the College professors of the history and education and of the theory and practice of teaching have seats in the Faculty of Philosophy. The professor of manual training has a seat in the Faculty of Applied Science.

The business administration of the College is vested in its own Board of Trustees,\* eighteen in number, of whom the President of the University is one. The College, therefore, on entering the University preserved its own corporate existence while surrendering its general educational control to University authorities. The chief executive officer of the College is the Dean, who is elected by the Trustees on the nomination of the President of the University; his term of office is at the pleasure of the Board. Subject to the approval of the President and Trustees, the Dean prepares the budget, approves all demands for payment by the Treasurer, nominates all officers and instructors, and, in the absence of the President, presides at all meetings of the faculty. Professors are heads of departments in the College, and also supervise the instruction in their respective subjects in the schools of observation and practice.†

\*The officers of the Board of Trustees are Spencer Trask, *Chairman*; Newbold Morris, *Secretary*; and Miss Grace H. Dodge, *Treasurer*.

† The officers of the College are as follows:—

ADMINISTRATIVE.—Seth Low, LL.D., *President*; James E. Russell, Ph.D., *Dean*; John F. Woodhull, Ph.D., *Professor in charge of Buildings and Grounds*; L. Mason Beeman, A.M., *Secretary*; Lucetta Daniell, *Directress*; Elizabeth G. Baldwin, *Librarian*; George S. Kellogg, *Curator of the Educational Museum*; Samuel T. Dutton, A.M., *Superintendent of Schools*; Virgil Prettyman, A.M., *Principal of Horace Mann High School*; Julia H. Wohlfarth, *Principal of Horace Mann Elementary School*; Mary C. Brush, *Registrar*; Isabelle L. Pratt, *Secretary to the Dean*; Mary D. Runyan, *Principal of Kindergartens*.

EDUCATIONAL.—James E. Russell, Ph.D., *History of Education*; Nicholas Murray Butler, LL.D., *Philosophy and Education*; Frank M. McMurray, Ph.D., *Theory and Practice of Teaching*; Samuel T. Dutton, A.M., *School Administration*; James M.K. Cattell, Ph.D., *Psychology*; John F. Woodhull, Ph.D., *Physical Science*; Franklin T.



Teachers College maintains two schools of observation and practice—one the Horace Mann School, the other known as the Experimental School. The Horace Mann School comprises three departments—a kindergarten for children of four to six years of age, an elementary school of eight grades and a high school of four grades.\* The Experimental School consists of a kindergarten, elementary school, and special classes in sewing, cooking, and manual training. Each department of the Horace Mann School is in charge of a principal, who ranks with directors of departments in the College. The Experimental School is under the immediate direction of the college professor of the theory and practice of teaching. Both schools are under the general direction of a Superintendent of Schools, who is also the college professor of school administration. The Horace Mann School is a fee-charging school for children of both sexes who intend to secure a complete secondary education.† The Experimental School, likewise for both sexes, gives free tuition to children of the neighbourhood who cannot continue their studies beyond the elementary grades. Thus both schools form a great working laboratory in all lines of professional study and research. In the various grades and classes the typical problems of the day are being worked out in the light of educational theory and practical experience, and the College students are made sharers with their teachers, both in the processes and the results of these investigations.‡

#### THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN THE UNITED STATES.

The professional study of education in the United States is the outgrowth of two main lines of development: one resulting

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Baker, A.M., *English*; Edward H. Castle, A. M., *History*; Richard E. Dodge, A.M., *Geography*; Helen Kinne, *Domestic Science*; Mary D. Runyan, *Kindergarten*; Alfred V. Churchill, A.M., *Fine Arts*; Charles R. Richards, S.B., *Manual Training*; Francis E. Lloyd, A.M., *Biological Science*; Charles E. Bikié, A.M., *Mathematics*; Mary S. Woolman, *Domestic Art*; Paul Monroe, Ph.D., *History of Education*; Edward L. Thorndike, Ph.D., *Genetic Psychology*; Gonzalez Lodge, Ph.D., *Latin and Greek*; Margaret S. Lawrence, *Physical Training*; C. H. Farnsworth, *Music*; and more than fifty instructors and assistants.

\* The classes in the Horace Mann School are graded according to the usual plan of the American public schools—viz., a kindergarten of two or three years, an elementary school consisting of eight grades, numbered consecutively from the lowest (first grade) to the highest (eighth grade), and a high school of four grades (first year, second year, etc., making the ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades of the school course). The term "elementary education," as used in this paper, signifies the first eight grades of the school course; "secondary education," as the term is used in America, means the public high-school course or its equivalent in college preparatory schools.

† The fees in the Horace Mann School are as follows:—Kindergarten \$50; grades I. to IV. inclusive, \$125; grades V. to VIII. inclusive, \$150; high school, \$200.

‡ These studies are included from time to time in *The Teachers College Record*, a serial publication devoted to the practical problems of Teachers College.

in the establishment of normal schools, the other in university departments of pedagogy. Teachers College represents both phases: it is at once a graduate normal school and a university department of education.

As early as 1827 the Massachusetts Legislature came within a single vote of making an appropriation for the establishment of a seminary for the special training of teachers. During the early '30's popular meetings were held in all parts of the State of Massachusetts, with the sole purpose of arousing interest in the public schools. Horace Mann, fresh from a personal study of European schools, lectured in all the counties of the State on the topic, "Special Preparation a Pre-requisite for Teaching."\* As a result of this agitation the Massachusetts Board of Education was created in 1837, and Mr. Mann was appointed its first Secretary. One of the first acts of this Board was to establish a "Normal School for the Qualification of Female Teachers in the Town of Lexington," and one at Barre for teachers of both sexes. To this source can be traced all subsequent development in the training of elementary teachers in America.

It is only in these latter days that any question has arisen concerning the necessary qualifications of teachers for secondary schools. So long as the only secondary school of consequence was the academy or college preparatory school, so long the only teacher worth considering was the college graduate. He who would successfully fit boys for college must himself know by experience what the colleges demand. Moreover, in those days what the colleges demanded was chiefly Latin and Greek, and it would have been idle for anyone to have set himself up as a teacher of the classical languages who had not enjoyed the classical training. But since the growth of the curriculum and the rise of the high school have introduced variety, not only in the subjects of instruction, but in the purposes of secondary education as well, the former source of supply of teachers has proved inadequate. In many branches of instruction a distinct preference has been expressed for the teacher trained in the normal school. So pronounced has been this bias in favour of the professionally trained teacher, that in many States the majority of secondary teachers are normal school graduates. Even in the State of New York to-day 39 per cent. of the teachers in secondary schools have only the normal-school training.

The American colleges have begun to realize how serious is the situation, and how vitally the interests of secondary education are bound up with the best interests of the higher education. They are also slowly coming to realize that professional training of teachers is a possibility, and that the country demands it as a necessary condition of admission to the public schools. In a half-hearted manner some of the leading

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\* *Barnard's Journal of Education*, Vol. I, pp. 131, 567; also *Mann's Lectures and Reports on Education*, Boston, 1872, p. 89.

universities, especially the State-supported universities of the West, have attempted to supply professional training to those of their students who intend to teach. The University of Iowa inaugurated the first permanent department of the kind ever established in an American college.\* In 1879 a professorship of pedagogy was established in the University of Michigan, an example which has been followed by all of the Universities of the country which are distinguished for their social service.

The main purpose of normal schools and city training schools has always been the preparation of teachers for service in the elementary schools. The university departments of pedagogy because of their limited resources, are forced to restrict their attention mainly to the training of teachers for secondary schools. It is apparent, however, that the highest interests of all grades of public instruction demand University Schools of Education or Teachers' Colleges, and it is certain that the best service these institutions can render is the training of competent leaders in all lines of educational effort.

#### THE FUNCTION OF THE UNIVERSITY IN THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

Professional training of whatever kind must adjust itself to the mental equipment of those who take it, and to the work that is to be done. The great work of teaching is done in the public elementary schools; and in this sphere economic conditions set as the extreme limit of academic training the completion of a high-school course of study. It may be lamentable that standards are no higher; but it is a fact, nevertheless, that the rank and file of the teaching profession must take the field within a year or two after leaving the high school. And the only field which teachers thus equipped can enter is that of the elementary schools. It must be said in justice to them, and to the schools they represent, that occasionally one rises to a commanding position in the service. American military history can furnish analogous instances. Our experience in military affairs, however, has shown us that, notwithstanding the rise of many field officers from the ranks, there is still need of a West Point for the systematic training of competent leaders.

The normal schools are forced by circumstances over which they have no control to limit their endeavours to the training of regular teachers for the elementary grade. The intelligent teacher must know something of the child—its physical life, mental processes, and springs of conduct; he must have some idea of what the child should become, and of the distinguishing characteristics of various periods of development; he must be familiar with the instruments to be used in effecting these

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\* Gordy: *Rise and Growth of the Normal School Idea in the United States*. Bureau of Education, Washington, 1891.

changes; and he must also be capable of using these instruments in an effective manner. It is scarcely credible that students of high-school grade can go deeply into psychology in the few weeks allotted to that study in normal schools; nor is it probable that they secure such a grasp of the principles of education as would qualify them to become educational leaders. The fact is that most normal schools are, under present conditions forced to restrict their efforts mainly to imparting the knowledge of the subjects to be taught and the methods of teaching them. And for this purpose some reasons must be given and much practice provided—the more practice, as a rule, the less time given to reasons, psychological or philosophical. Nevertheless, with common sense and love for the work, the pupil-teacher, in conformity with the laws of habit, quickly acquires that skill in school-room practice which marks the expert teacher.

Any plan of training which is founded on habit, however, partakes of the merits and defects of the apprentice system. Accuracy and perfection in operation are gained with comparatively small expenditure of energy, and body and mind become eventually almost automatic in their action. It is this precision of habit which characterizes the movements of the trained soldier and the handiwork of the skilled craftsman; it controls the lives of most men and contributes to the welfare of all. On the other hand, the process is attended with grave dangers. The apprentice is apt to lose the power of personal initiative; for his training gives him no ability to deal with novel *data*, and he is content to follow the lines of least resistance. But these are not the qualities essential to leadership. Leaders in education, as in any other sphere of human activity, must have right habits, but they must also be masters of themselves and capable of directing their powers at will. The training of these leaders, therefore, must surpass the training of the normal school; it is properly the function of the university.

No one will deny that the interests of public education are as great and as urgent as the interests of law, medicine, or engineering. The university is true to itself, therefore, when it undertakes the professional training of teachers. University departments of education have as their special function the investigation of educational foundations, the interpretation of educational ideals, the invention of educational methods and the application of educational principles. The science of education—I refer merely to that systematized body of knowledge which has to do with education—needs to be developed and adapted to modern conditions. What these conditions are, how they have come to be and wherein they are subject to change are questions which can be answered only in a university. No purely professional school can economically undertake the research and investigation involved in furthering a study with so many ramifications as education. Theoretically, then, a university professional school for teachers is concerned with the advancement of all the arts and sciences of which a university takes cognizance.

The relation of other university studies to education is twofold. First, there are subjects which contribute directly to the science of education—such as biology, which is concerned with vital processes; psychology, which discloses the nature of mind; sociology, which deals with the inter-relations of individuals in society; and ethics, which seeks to establish the principles of right action. Second, all studies regardless of their immediate bearing on the science of education are to be considered as means of informing and developing the minds of the young. While any or all of these studies may be pursued without the remotest reference to educational practice, it is clear that he who would advance either the science or the art of education must avail himself of the results of expanding scholarship in many lines. He must also be constantly seeking more efficient methods of using these results in the attainment of ends which themselves are subject to change. No one believes, I take it, that university residence is an indispensable condition of scholarly work in any subject, but of all the subjects worthy of study, of research and investigation, I know none which can profit more by the university atmosphere than the subject of education.

The experimental character of advanced work in education, furthermore, makes imperative some special provision for testing theory through practice and modifying practice to accord with theory. A school complete in every part and conducted by skilled teachers is as necessary to the life of a teachers' college as a laboratory for a department of science or a hospital for a school of medicine. The school of observation and practice should include all grades commonly found in the public schools and should offer instruction in all subjects which are, or conceivably may be, of particular value in popular education. The practice in such a school should, in short, incorporate the best ideas of the institution with which it is concerned.

These are high ideals, but they are very nearly realized in the organization of educational work in Columbia University. The Teachers College is not a normal school, neither is it merely a university department of pedagogy. It ranks as a professional school for teachers, and in order to maintain this rank it must maintain university standards. Our present standards would have been impossible only a few years ago, but economic conditions in the educational world are bringing about severe competition among teachers. Time was when any person who had taken the Bachelor's degree could readily find a position in a secondary school, and for many years graduates of normal schools have found unrestricted opportunities for work in the public schools. As things are now, there is severe competition for every desirable post. The better class of schools all over the country pay fair salaries and insist on getting the best teachers. The fact that the competition for these places is so disagreeably keen is the surest guarantee of a better system of training teachers. An annually increasing number of college graduates learn from experience that the best preparation they

can make is none too good for the places they desire to fill. They cannot afford to compete, other things being equal, with those whose preparation has been less expensive than theirs. The only hope of the ambitious collegian is to put himself distinctively above his competitors in his chosen field. He must do as the business man does under analogous circumstances— increase his capital and make ready for a bigger business. This is the opportunity of the teachers' colleges. It is this condition of affairs which makes possible for the first time in America a serious consideration of ideal methods of training leaders.

#### THE PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS OF TEACHERS COLLEGE.

But what is the ideal preparation for such teachers? Present conditions seem to me to indicate four qualities pre-eminently to be desired in a teacher: First, general culture; second, professional knowledge; third, special knowledge; fourth, technical skill.

First, *general culture*. In 1895 a Committee of the National Education Association\* reported to that body that "Teachers of elementary schools should have a secondary or high school education, and that teachers of high schools should have a collegiate education." Such standards of qualification seem reasonable enough. The liberal culture implied in four years of training in advance of the class to be taught is really not too much to require from every applicant for a teacher's position. It is commonly recognized that the elementary teacher should have completed a high school course, but there is no such universal acceptance of the thesis that the high school teacher should hold a college degree. The best thought of the country, however, is steadily tending in this direction. The fact that the secondary teacher is to some degree a specialist, that he knows his subject and exercises considerable ingenuity in satisfying the requirements of college entrance or of some examining board, is no indication that he has an outlook upon the world broad enough to justify him in attempting the training of youth, or an understanding of related studies deep enough to enable him to teach his own subject in a scientific manner. The inspiring influence that comes from well-developed manhood or womanhood taught to view the subject-matter of secondary education in a comparative manner, trained to see the relationships everywhere existing in the various spheres of knowledge—the unity pervading all knowledge—is an influence that the secondary school can ill afford to neglect.

Second, *professional knowledge*. It is equally important that every teacher should be able to view the subjects he teaches and the entire course of instruction in its relations to the child and to society, of which the child is a part. A teacher may be able to teach his subject never so well, may even have the reputation

\* Report of the Committee of Fifteen on Elementary Education. Published for the National Educational Association by the American Book Company, New York, 1895.

of being a distinguished educator, yet his life long be a teacher of Latin, or physics, or history, rather than a teacher of children. The true educator must know the nature of the mind; he must understand the process of learning, the formation of ideals, the development of the will, and the growth of the character. The secondary teacher needs particularly to know the psychology of the adolescent period—that stormy period in which the individual first becomes self-conscious and struggles to express his own personality. But more than man as an individual the teacher needs to know the nature of man as a social being. No knowledge, I believe, is of more worth to the secondary teacher than the knowledge of what standards of culture have prevailed in the past or now exist among various peoples, their ideals of life, and their methods of training the young to assume the duties of life. Such study of the history of education is more than a study of scholastic institutions, of didactic precepts, or of the theories of educationalists; it is *Kultur-Geschichte*, with special reference to educational needs and educational problems. It gives that unifying view of our professional work, without which it is idle to talk of a science or a system of education; it prepares the way for the only philosophy of education which is worth teaching. Under professional knowledge I should also include such information as can be gained from a study of school economy, school hygiene, and the organisation, supervision, and management of schools and school systems at home and abroad. Some of this technical knowledge is indispensable for all teachers; all that can be gained is not too much for those who will become leaders in the field. But the least professional knowledge that should be deemed acceptable is an appreciation of the physical conditions essential to success in school work, and a thorough understanding of psychology and its applications in teaching, of the history of education from the *cultural standpoint*, and of the philosophic principles that determine all education.

Third, *special knowledge*. The strongest argument that can be urged against the average college graduate is that he has nothing to teach. The argument applies with even greater force to the normal-school graduate, however well he may be equipped on the professional side. Neither liberal culture nor technical skill can at all replace that solid substratum of genuine scholarship on which all true secondary education rests. A teacher with nothing to teach is an anomaly that needs no explanation. And I count that knowledge next to nothing which must be bolstered up by midnight study to hide its own defects. No one who knows the scope, purpose, and methods of collegiate instruction, no one familiar with the work of the normal school, will maintain for a moment that such training necessarily gives any remarkable degree of special knowledge. I say this without any disrespect either to the college or to the normal school; it is not the first and foremost duty of either of these institutions to turn out critical scholars or specialists in some small field. But special scholarship, I maintain, is an absolute necessity in the

qualifications for teaching, especially for teaching in secondary schools. Without it the teacher becomes a slave to manuals and text-books; his work degenerates into formal routine with no life, no spirit, no educative power, because he knows no better way; the victims of his ignorance rise up to call him anything but blessed, and take their revenge as citizens in ignoring altogether professional knowledge in the conduct of public school affairs—because they, too, know no better way. Now, as never before, I believe, do we need to emphasize the possession of special scholarship as an essential requisite for secondary teaching. It would seem that no argument were necessary to convince a Yankee that there is virtue in perfect tools, but somehow the idea is abroad that the perfect tool is the perfect text-book. Here, as elsewhere, it is "the man behind the gun" who counts, rather than the gun itself.

Fourth, *technical skill*. It is safe to say that no quality is more earnestly desired in the teacher, or more persistently sought for, than the technical ability to teach. The first question asked of an applicant is not, "Has he had a liberal education?" or, "What is his professional knowledge?" or, "Has he anything to teach?" but this: "Can he teach?" The popular mind fails to recognize the interdependence of these qualities, and failing in this it bases judgment of a teacher's ability on the relatively non-essential. Ability to maintain order in the classroom, to get work out of his pupils, to satisfy casual supervisors and examiners, to keep fine records, and to mystify parents—this too frequently passes for ability to teach. How seldom, indeed, is a teacher tested by his ability to get something into his pupils, by his ability to impart his knowledge in a way that shall broaden their horizons, extend their interests, strengthen their characters, and rouse within them the desire to lead a pure, noble, unselfish life. School-keeping is not necessarily school-teaching. The technical ability to teach includes both. The art of teaching is mimicry, a dangerous gift, unless it is founded on the science of teaching, which takes account of the end and means of education, and the nature of the material to be taught. School-keeping may be practically the same for all classes of pupils, but true teaching must always vary with surrounding conditions and the ends to be attained. Graduates of colleges and normal schools alike must fail in technical skill if they teach as they have been taught. The work of each general division of our school system is unique. Each requires an arrangement and presentation of the subject-matter of instruction according to its own needs and capacities; each requires tact, judgment, and disciplinary powers peculiar to itself. Herein is the need of that technical skill which is not, as has been well said, "a part of the natural equipment of every educated person."

A survey of the field of education discloses that these four essential qualifications of the teacher are everywhere recognized



in practice. The difficulty is that few teachers unite them in due proportion. The thoroughly trained teacher, trained by study and tested by experience, has no difficulty in finding employment, or holding his place once he finds it. Those who have positions to fill are eagerly scanning the professional horizon, and are thankful for some refreshing sign, even though it is no larger than a man's hand.

The function of the teachers college and the university department of pedagogy is to establish a better code of professional signs, and to insure more perfect realisation of professional promise.

#### COURSES OF STUDY IN TEACHERS COLLEGE.

- The courses of study offered in Teachers College fall naturally into three groups:—

##### *A.—Graduate Courses.*

(1) A course for teachers in colleges and normal schools, and for principals, supervisors, and superintendents of schools.

This course is intended to fit teachers of superior ability, and of special academic attainments for the work of training teachers and for positions in the public school service requiring a high degree of professional insight and technical skill. It leads to the Higher Diploma, the highest honour granted in the College. Candidates for the Higher Diploma must spend at least one year in residence, and pursue courses in one major and two minor subjects. The choice of minor subjects is entirely optional; the major subject must always be in the field of education. Candidates for the higher Diploma must be graduates of an approved institution of learning—a college, engineering school or normal school, or the equivalent of one of these—and must present satisfactory evidence of a high degree of professional ability, as a result of the study of education or experience in teaching. The real test of fitness, however, is the ability of the candidate to undertake research and investigation. No definite course, therefore, is prescribed. The minimum period of residence is fixed at one year; but the necessity of completing some special task, in line with the major subject, and putting the results in form for publication makes it difficult for the student, however well prepared, to secure the diploma in the minimum time.

The graduate courses are designed not only to give advanced professional training, but also to promote research and investigation in the field of education. Hence certain courses in Teachers College properly fall within the jurisdiction of the University Faculty of Philosophy, under which education holds a coordinate place with other philosophic and linguistic subjects. Graduate students of Teachers College, therefore, who conform to the general regulations of the University Council, may thus pursue at the same time, with no additional expense,

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courses leading to a Teachers College diploma and to a University degree. Teachers College students who thus become candidates for the degree of Master of Arts or Doctor of Philosophy, must make Education their major subject; their minor subjects may be selected in any other department of the University, subject to the approval of the Dean of Teachers College.

(2) A course for teachers in secondary schools and instructors in colleges.

Candidates for admission to this course must hold a Bachelor's degree from some American college in good standing, or its equivalent from an European institution, except that, under the general regulations of Columbia University, students in Columbia and Barnard Colleges may enter this course in their senior collegiate year. It leads to a diploma in one or more of the subjects commonly taught in secondary schools and colleges. Candidates for the diploma in secondary teaching must spend at least one year in residence, devoting themselves exclusively to academic and professional study of the subjects which they intend to teach. Students who have already taken the baccalaureate degree may combine the work of this course, according to the regulations above mentioned, with the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts or Doctor of Philosophy.

The course of study designed for intending teachers in secondary schools is one to which Teachers College can point with pride. Despite the fact that in the popular mind any one of the above-named qualifications suffices for eligibility to teach in the American high school, we have planned a course which requires as much in each respect as is generally required in any one. For example, in the State of New York, about 32 per cent. of the teachers in secondary schools have a college degree approximately 39 per cent. are normal school graduates, and the remainder, it is to be presumed, have been selected because of their special scholarship or success in teaching. Candidates for the Teachers College diploma in secondary teaching must, in the first place, be college graduates (at least, when they complete the course); they must be able to show a high degree of special scholarship in every subject in which the diploma is sought—at least the equivalent of three years of university work, three hours per week; they must pass satisfactory examinations in the history and principles of education and in psychology and its applications to teaching; and, finally, they are required to pursue courses specially designed to afford practice in the selection and arrangement of materials for instruction, and in the actual teaching of the subjects which they elect.

However one may question the expediency of a University's undertaking the training of teachers for the elementary grades, no doubt can arise as to the desirability of bringing such immediate and direct support to higher education. This is work that cannot well be done outside of a college or a University. The general culture demanded is that which colleges aim to supply. The special scholarship must be the product of University study.

and the professional knowledge which should be acquired differs, both in degree and in kind, from that which properly pertains to the teaching of infants and children. The instinct of self-preservation, therefore, should lead the University to do all in its power to support the secondary schools, and especially to provide them with teachers capable of intelligent service.

*B.—General Undergraduate Courses.*

(1) A course for teachers in elementary schools.\*

This course is intended to fit teachers for the more responsible positions in the elementary grades of the public schools and to provide graduates of State Normal Schools with opportunities for further professional study. Candidates for admission to the course leading to the diploma in elementary teaching must be graduates of an approved secondary school. They are required to spend four years† in residence and pursue a prescribed course

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\* The prescribed studies of this course are as follows (the hours given with each subject indicate the number of lessons or exercises a week throughout the academic year, *i.e.*, from the last week in September to the first week in June inclusive; the figures in parentheses indicate the number of hours of work required as distinguished from the hours of credit granted, two hours of laboratory or shop-work counting as one credit hour):—

*First Year.*—English literature and composition, 3 hours; mediæval and modern history, 3 hours; biological nature study, 2 (3) hours; physics and chemistry, 3 (5) hours; freehand drawing, 2 (4) hours; music, 2 hours; physical training, 1 (2) hour; elective, 2 hours.

*Second Year.*—English literature and analysis, 3 hours; United States history, 3 hours; physiology and hygiene, 2 (3) hours; general geography, 3 hours; applied freehand drawing, 2 (4) hours; music, 2 hours; physical training, 1 (2) hour; elective, 2 hours.

*Third Year.*—Psychology and applications in teaching, 3 hours; child study, 2 hours; methods of teaching English, 3 (half-year) hours; methods of teaching mathematics, 3 (half-year) hours; music, 2 hours; elective, 8 hours.

*Fourth Year.*—History of education, 2 hours; principles of education, 2 hours; observation and practice-teaching, 2 hours or more; elective, 12 hours. (Students who intend to teach in the lower grades of the elementary school are required to elect primary manual training 2 (3) hours, and kindergarten methods 1 (2) hour.)

† In 1900 the first two years of the elementary and kindergarten courses were abolished, and in their stead the Collegiate Course was instituted. The purpose of this course is to give advanced academic training to students who intend later to enter upon a course of professional training for teaching in elementary schools and kindergartens. The instruction given is of collegiate grade, but in the choice of subjects and manner of presentation the needs of teachers are constantly kept in mind. It is offered as an alternative for the first two years of the course in Columbia College or Barnard College. No diploma is granted on the completion of this course, but a student may receive a certificate signed by the Dean indicating the work actually performed. Students in the Collegiate Course are required to take courses amounting in all, to thirty hours for the two years

of study, except that advanced standing is granted to professionally trained teachers.

(2) A course for teachers in the Kindergarten.\*

The purpose of this course is to train teachers through four years of undergraduate study for work in public and private kindergartens. Graduates of approved secondary schools are admitted to the first year of the course. Such advanced standing as may be warranted is granted to experienced kindergartners and graduates of recognised kindergarten training schools.

Under present economic conditions, the normal schools of the country can require for admission, at most, only a high-school training of those who intend to teach in the elementary grades. Teachers College ought not in any sense to enter into competition with the normal schools, for its purpose is to supplement their work and carry it to its highest development. Hence, it insists upon two years' academic study, beyond the college preparatory course, in English, history, biology, geography and geology, physical science, freehand drawing and music for all students who have not had a good normal training. Another important reason for prolonging the period of academic training is that students ought to bring to the study of educational principles the best mental equipment of which they are capable. Teachers who expect to rise to commanding positions in the kindergarten and elementary school can well afford to spend two or three years beyond the period of the minimum requirement.

*C.—Departmental Undergraduate Courses.*

(1) A two-year course for teachers and supervisors of Art and Drawing†

of residence. The courses necessary to meet these requirements may be chosen by the student at will from the courses announced each year, subject to the approval of the standing committee of the Faculty, and English composition and literature (5 hours), and mediaeval and modern history (3 hours) are prescribed for all students.

\* The requirements of this course during the first two years are practically the same as in the first and second years of the course for elementary teachers; the rest of the course is as follows:—

*Third Year*—Psychology and its applications in teaching, 3 hours; child study, 2 hours; gifts and occupations, 3 hours; songs and games, 2 (2) hours; stories, 1½ hours; music, 2 hours; elective, 4½ hours.

*Fourth Year*—History of education, 2 hours; principles of education, 2 hours; kindergarten principles, 2 (half-year) hours; program and gift work, 2 hours; games 1 (2) hours; observation and practice teaching, 4 hours; elective, 6 hours.

† The prescribed course in Art and Drawing is as follows:—

*First Year*.—Psychology and its applications in teaching, 3 hours; studio work, 4 (6) hours; sketch class, 2 (4) hours; clay modelling, 1 (2) hours;

(2) A two-year course for teachers and supervisors of Domestic Art.\*

(3) A two-year course for teachers and supervisors of Domestic Science.†

(4) A two-year course for teachers and supervisors of Manual Training.‡

design, 1 (2) hour; art interpretation, 1 (2) hour; mechanical drawing, 2 (4) hours; elective, 4 hours.

*Second Year.*—History of education, 2 hours; principles and methods in art teaching, 2 (4) hours; water-colour and oil-painting, 4 (8) hours; advanced sketch class, 2 (4) hours; advanced design, 2 (3) hours; applied design, 2 (4) hours; history of art, 1 hour; elective, 3 hours.

\* The prescribed course in Domestic Art is as follows :—

*First Year.*—Psychology and its applications in teaching, 3 hours; physiology and hygiene, 2 (3) hours; sewing, 1 (2) hour; textiles, 2 hours; drafting and making garments, 3 (4) hours; principles and methods, 2 hours; design, 1 (2) hour; industrial evolution of society, 1 hour; elective, 3 hours.

*Second Year.*—History of education, 2 hours; observation and practice-teaching, 2 (or more) hours; equipment and management, 2 hours; household art and design, 2 (3) hours; conference, 1 hour; advanced design, 2 (3) hours; art interpretation, 1 (2) hour; social reform movements, 1 hour; elective, 5 hours (or less if observation and practice teaching counts more than 2 hours).

† The prescribed course in Domestic Science is as follows :—

*First Year.*—Psychology and its applications in teaching, 3 hours; physiology and hygiene, 2 (3) hours; foods, 4 (7) hours; food production and manufacture, 3 (5) hours; bacteriology, 1 hour; household chemistry, 2 (4) hours; industrial evolution of society, 1 hour; elective, 2 hours.

*Second Year.*—History of education, 2 hours; observation and practice teaching, 2 (or more) hours; foods, advanced course, 4 (7) hours; home sanitation and management, 2 (3) hours; methods of teaching domestic science, 2 hours; elective, 6 hours (or less if observation and practice teaching counts more than two hours).

‡ The prescribed course for Manual Training in elementary schools is as follows :—

*First Year.*—Psychology and its applications in teaching, 3 hours; knife-work for elementary schools, 2 (4) hours; wood-working for elementary schools, 3 (6) hours; mechanical drawing, 2 (4) hours; principles and methods, 2 (3) hours; elementary freehand drawing, 2 (4) hours; design, 1 (2) hours; elective, 3 hours.

*Second Year.*—History of education, 2 hours; organization and supervision of manual training, 2 (3) hours; wood-working for secondary schools, 5 (10) hours; mechanical drawing, 3 (6) hours; applied freehand drawing, 2 (4) hours; elective, 4 hours.

The course prescribed for teachers of Manual Training in secondary schools is as follows :—

*First Year.*—Psychology and its applications in teaching, 3 hours; wood-working for secondary schools, 5 (10) hours; mechanical drawing, 2 (4) hours; principles and methods, 2 (3) hours; elementary freehand drawing, 2 (4) hours; design, 1 (2) hour; elective, 3 hours.

*Second Year.*—History of education, 2 hours; organization and supervision of manual training, 2 (3) hours; turning and pattern making, 4 (8) hours; and moulding and foundry practice, 2 (4) hours; or forging, 6 (12) hours; or machine work, 6 (12) hours; mechanical drawing, 3 (6) hours; elective, 5 hours.

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(5) A two-year course for teachers of Music.

At the request of the American Society of Superintendents of Training-Schools for Nurses, Teachers College offers a special course in Hospital Economics. The aim of the course is to fit persons who are already trained nurses for the responsible duties of superintendents of hospitals and principals of training-schools for nurses.\*

Candidates for admission to these courses must give evidence of (a) technical ability or experience in teaching and (b) academic training equivalent to graduation from a secondary school.

In the courses for teachers and supervisors of art and drawing, domestic art, domestic science and manual training, it is difficult to keep a satisfactory balance between the four essential requirements to which I have referred above. These subjects are so technical in their nature, and the progress of the student depends so largely upon natural talents and special training that it is impossible to insist upon the same degree of academic preparation as for the more general courses. In this case technical skill and special scholarship must outweigh other considerations. Hence, in these courses, the requirements in both academic and professional subjects are somewhat lightened to give more time for specialisation along technical lines. It is the purpose of the faculty to raise these standards as rapidly as conditions will permit. The work cannot be abandoned simply because of pressure in other directions. The College has stood from its inception for the good that lies in manual and industrial training, and it still holds to the fixed purpose of making these subjects truly serviceable in public education.

#### DEPARTMENTS OF INSTRUCTION IN TEACHERS COLLEGE.

The educational administration of Teachers College is by departments, each of which has its own director (generally of professorial rank) and a full corps of instructors. The departments are as follows:—Education, English, French and German, Greek and Latin, History, Biology, Geography and Geology, Physics and Chemistry, Mathematics, Kindergarten, Fine Arts, Domestic Art, Domestic Science, Manual Training, Music and Voice Training, and Physical Training.

In a sense all departments in Teachers College are departments of education, but the distinction is kept mainly for the supervision and direction of instruction in the Horace Mann School. No department undertakes work that is done adequately

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\* The prescribed course in Hospital Economics is as follows:—

Elementary psychology and its applications in teaching, 3 hours; Hospital Economics (methods, practice, hospital, and training-school organization and supervision), 3 hours; elective (biology or different branches of domestic economy), 9 to 12 hours.

in other faculties of the University. In history, the languages, natural sciences, and mathematics, therefore, few collegiate courses are offered in Teachers College, and in systematic and experimental psychology, philosophy, ethics, anthropology, economics and social science, the resources of the University are amply sufficient for all needs.

The work peculiar to Teachers College is that which is technically educational. This consists of courses in the history and philosophy of education, in genetic psychology and hygiene in school economy, and in the theory and practice of teaching.

Psychology, physiology and child-study stand first in order among the required subjects of a technical nature. The special aim in these courses is to know the child; to become familiar with the physical and psychical characteristics of infancy, childhood and youth; to gain some insight into the influences of heredity and environment; and to understand the processes of the normal adult mind. The course in child-study is supplementary to the prescribed courses in systematic and applied psychology. It is designed to present the facts, so far as they have been scientifically determined, concerning the nature and the development of the mind during childhood and adolescence, with special reference to the meaning of these facts to the teacher. It seeks to provide the student with sound criteria for estimating theories about the child's mind, and to give practice in right methods of observation and experiment.

The general course in the history of education aims to ascertain what standards of culture, what ideals of life, and what methods of training the young for the duties of life have prevailed in the past, or now exist among various peoples. It shows the growth of civilization, and discloses some of the causes of progress; it reveals instances of arrested development, and suggests means of obviating it. In the first half-year of this course the chief types of ancient education—Egyptian, Chinese, Hebrew, Greek and Roman—are presented in the light of the history of civilization; the continuation of the course in the second half-year gives special attention to the interaction of Greek, Roman and Christian influences, in forming the educational ideals, and shaping the school systems of mediæval and modern times. A part of the course is devoted to the reading and discussion of selections from the classics, and the works of later writers on education.

The course on the principles of education aims to lay the basis for a scientific theory of education, considered as a human institution. The process of education is explained from the standpoint of the doctrine of evolution, and the fundamental principles thus arrived at are applied from the threefold standpoint of the history of civilization, the developing powers of the child, and the cultivation of individual and social efficiency. The courses in the history and philosophy of education thus seek to establish reliable foundations for all educational practice.

The prescribed courses in the theory and practice of teaching are concerned with both the science and art of education—with

the science so far as it is dependent upon the laws of mental development; with the art, so far as it involves the application of these laws in observing, planning, and teaching a series of lessons. The introductory course, which grows directly out of the course in general psychology, has as its special aim the development of a scientific method of the recitation and the application of the principles of method to various studies of the elementary school. Then follows a period of training, under actual class-room conditions, for all students who are not experienced teachers.

The classes of the Horace Mann School, from the kindergarten up through the high school, are open to students who are qualified to undertake systematic study of the courses of instruction or to engage in actual teaching under the guidance and criticism of the school instructors. It is not the purpose of the Horace Mann School, however, to provide means for practice and experimentation except along lines already demonstrated as safe and reliable. The proving ground, both for pupil-teachers and for untried methods of instruction, is a series of special classes, under the immediate direction of the professor of the theory and practice of teaching, organized as an experimental school.

All other courses of the department are either optional or required only of candidates for diplomas in special subjects. Under the head of the theory and practice of teaching the following courses are offered:—Kindergarten methods, primary teaching, critic teaching, and the principles and methods of teaching English, French, German, Greek, Latin, History, Mathematics, Biology, Geography and Geology, Chemistry, Physics, Art and Drawing, Domestic Economy, and Manual Training. In speaking of these courses as "method courses," I am using the term in its broadest sense. In dealing with mature students, there is little need of putting exceptional stress upon technical devices and formal class-room procedure. The main thing for them is to see the relation of each particular subject to other subjects of the curriculum, to appreciate its educational value, to fix the principles that shall govern its presentation, to select and arrange the materials of instruction, to devise ways of illustration and application, and to construct systematic and scientific courses of study. The broader a teacher's general culture and the deeper his special scholarship, the greater his need of giving particular attention to ways of doing his work. The person who has only a meagre knowledge of his subject may be able to summon all his forces at any moment; his greatest concern is to hide his own defects. The master, however, knows that he has a vast storehouse to draw from; he realizes the seriousness of his task and the physical limitations imposed upon himself and his pupils; his main thought must be to discover the best instruments at his command, and the most effective manner of using them. Such training, whether self-imposed or gained from others, is essentially professional.

Students who are prepared to do graduate work have the opportunity of pursuing advanced courses in all the lines above



mentioned. The course in school supervision and management is especially intended for those who will enter upon administrative work. It includes school criticism and discipline, observation and study of typical school conditions, school organisation, departments, classification, examinations, promotions, curricula, appliances, architecture and sanitation. Allied to this is the course in school hygiene, which deals with the hygienic construction of school buildings; the heating, lighting, ventilation and equipment of class-rooms; the hygiene of instruction and fatigue; school diseases and defects of sense; and practical tests of physical and mental ability. Then follows a course on foreign systems of education, as compared with our own—chiefly the national systems of Germany, France, and England, in respect to their administration and supervision of educational affairs, kinds of schools, school curricula, methods, and scope of instruction, and the training, certification, remuneration and duties of teachers. Three seminars are also open to graduate students who desire training in methods of research in the history, theory, and practice of education. The topics selected for the present year are: "The administration of public education in the United States," "The development of the secondary school in Europe and America," and "The curriculum of the elementary school."

#### EQUIPMENT AND RESOURCES OF TEACHERS COLLEGE.

The material equipment of Teachers College is the growth of nearly twenty years. In 1880 a movement was inaugurated in New York City for "the Promotion of the Domestic Arts among the Labouring Classes." Its promoters were women, and its chief aim was the giving of "gratuitous instruction in the household arts according to the principles of the kitchen garden system." It was soon recognised, however, that some kind of manual training was as necessary for boys as for girls. Moreover, the Association was greatly hampered in its work by lack of teachers sufficiently in sympathy with the new ideas, and well enough trained to do it intelligently. Accordingly, in 1884, a new association was formed under the name of the Industrial Education Association, whose purposes were (1) to secure the introduction of manual training as an important factor in general education, and to promote the training of both sexes in such industries as would enable those trained to become self-supporting; (2) to devise methods and systems of industrial training, and to put them into operation in schools and institutions of all grades; and (3) to provide and train teachers for this work.

The support which this new enterprise received from the people of New York was generous beyond the expectation of its founders. Its annual budget grew in four years from \$2,015.52 to \$38,702.81. It was clearly an outgrowth of the spirit of the

times. The same spirit had produced the Auchmuty Trades Schools in 1881, gave rise to Pratt Institute three years later, the Drexel Institute, the Armour Institute, and similar institutions for technical and industrial education. But unlike these institutions the Association believed that "industrial training, to have its fullest value, must be an integral part of general education," and that the training of teachers was the surest way of attaining these ends. The first step in advance was the merging of the Industrial Education Association into a College for the Training of Teachers, which was chartered by authority of the State of New York on January 12th, 1889, under the corporate title of Teachers College. The progress of the new college was very gratifying. In 1889, with an expenditure of \$40,000, it enrolled 211 college students, 129 pupils in the model school, and conducted special classes in manual training and the industrial arts for upwards of 1800 public school children. During the next few years the chief concern of the institution was the raising of standards and the strengthening of its material equipment.

In 1894 the College was removed to a new site in the northern part of the city overlooking the Hudson River. The main buildings of Columbia University and Barnard College are on adjacent blocks, and near by are Riverside and Morningside Parks and Drives, the Grant Monument, St. Luke's Hospital, the Cathedral of St. John the Divine, and the Academy of Design. The College buildings occupy forty-three city lots, adjoining Broadway, between West 120th and 121st Streets.

The main building has a frontage of two hundred and thirty feet. On the first floor are the rooms of the Trustees, the Dean, the Registrar, the gymnasium, kindergarten, reception-room, and the business offices of the College. The second floor is devoted entirely to the class-rooms. The third floor contains the Bryson Library and reading-rooms, teachers' offices, and the conference and the lecture-rooms of the Department of Education. The fourth floor is occupied by the Division of Natural Science, and contains a lecture room, with stereopticon; three finely equipped laboratories, for physics, chemistry, and geography, besides stock-rooms and offices.

The Milbank Memorial Building, occupied for the first time in September, 1897, forms the western wing of the main edifice, and was erected at a total cost of \$250,000. The building contains Memorial Chapel, the offices and class-rooms of the Departments of English, History, Mathematics, Latin and Greek, Kindergarten and Music; the lecture-rooms and laboratories of the Department of Domestic Science and Art; the biological laboratories of the Division of Natural Science; and also a large study room and social hall for the students of all departments, several additional class-rooms, a lunch-room, and a bicycle store-room. From all floors there are uninterrupted views of the Hudson and the Palisades.

The Macy Manual Arts Building is occupied by the Departments of Manual Training and Fine Arts. It was erected and

equipped at a total cost of \$250,000. Architecturally this building is in harmony with the main building, with which it is connected on every floor. It is thoroughly equipped with the best of modern appliances for manual training and art work, and contains four large rooms for wood-working, including wood-joinery, wood-carving, wood-turning and pattern-making; four for metal-working (chipping and filing), tin smithing, moulding and casting, forging and machine tool work; two for clay-modelling; two for constructive drawing (one mechanical and the other architectural); two for elementary freehand drawing; and two studios for advanced drawing and painting. Connected with these are store-rooms for tools, supplies, models and finished work. In addition to these there are a lecture-room, provided with a stereopticon, and many smaller rooms, such as offices, library, museum, conference-room, photography-room, engine-room and stock-room.

The walls of the rooms and corridors throughout the buildings are hung with fine photographs, prints, casts and models, carefully arranged in appropriate departments.

The special library of the College is known from its donor as the Bryson Library. It contains about 16,000 volumes, comprising works in English, French and German, on the history and philosophy of education, the theory and practice of teaching, psychology, sociology, anthropology, &c. A special collection has recently been acquired containing upwards of 6,000 educational monographs and national, state, municipal and local reports on school affairs in this country during the present century. This collection, added to the material in the University Library, forms an invaluable source of study in the history of education and school administration in America. There is also a collection of 2,000 text books covering all grades from the primary through the High School and a special collection of art works, photographs, engravings and books on art criticism.

Although the main purpose of the library is to afford to special students of education opportunities for research and advanced professional study, it also contains a selected list of general works on philosophy, history, literature and science. For the use of the pupils of the schools, the student-teachers, and the teachers of the city, there is also provided a collection of books on history, literature, biography, geography, travels, arts, science and technology, adapted to pupils in the elementary and secondary school. The library serves as reading-room, and has on file over 160 of the leading periodicals, those bearing upon education being best represented, and including French, German and English, as well as American publications. The annual additions to the library reach about 2,000 volumes.

Students and officers of Teachers College have free access to the Columbia Library between the hours of 8.30 a.m. and 11 p.m. This library contains about 285,000 volumes, exclusive of unbound pamphlets and duplicates. The additions to the library for the past five years have averaged over 18,000 volumes annually. The library is well supplied in all the

subjects taught in the various courses of the University. The reference library, of about 10,000 volumes, consists of a carefully-selected body of reference books and of the most important works on all subjects in standard editions, representing the leading authors in all literatures. Connected with the stacks in which are stored the books relating especially to the departments of philosophy, education, literature and philology, the sociological and economic sciences, public law and history, are eighteen special study-rooms, open only to authorized readers. This arrangement is intended to give to advanced students and investigators in these fields the fullest opportunity to carry on their work by the use of quiet rooms in the immediate vicinity of the literature of their subjects.

There is now in process of construction a new building for the exclusive use of the Horace Mann School, which will accommodate, when completed a year hence, about one thousand pupils, arranged for a nearly equal division into elementary and high schools. The former will occupy the first and second stories and the latter the third and fourth stories, with an auditorium, a library, studios, a gymnasium, lunch-rooms and general dependencies to be used in common. Of the thirty-nine class and recitation-rooms in the building, fifteen class-rooms and two recitation-rooms are provided for the elementary school, and thirteen class-rooms and nine recitation-rooms for the high school. In addition to these there are small conference-rooms on the fifth floor, and also large teachers' rooms adjoining the library. The general dependencies are arranged to meet the requirements of a school of this character and comprise numerous general toilet rooms on each floor, teachers' private toilets on each floor, shower baths and locker accommodations for the gymnasium, an emergency room to be used in case of illness, separate cloak rooms for boys and girls connected with each class-room, a book lift connecting the library with each floor, a passenger elevator, a system of clocks, program bells, telephones, electric light, indirect steam heating, artificial ventilation and other accessories calculated to make this a modern school building of the most advanced type. The total cost of building, grounds and equipment will be about \$550,000.

The buildings and equipment of Teachers College, as described above, not to mention other departments of the University which are open without restriction to qualified students of Teachers College, represent an investment of about \$1,700,000. This sum, together with large annual gifts for current expenses, has been secured without encumbrance of any kind within the last ten years. Some of it has been bequeathed, but by far the larger part has come from gifts, varying from \$100 to \$250,000, made outright during the lives of the donors. But prosperous as the College now is there is need, as I have recently stated in my annual report to the Board of Trustees, of further large sums—even larger than we have yet received—for the successful conduct of the work into which we have entered. Our annual

expenditures now amount to over \$200,000.\* The contributions to fellowships, scholarships, and free tuition amount to \$15,000 annually.† The faculty numbers twenty-one professors and more than fifty instructors. In 1899 the College enrolled sixty-nine graduate students, 216 undergraduates, and 1,173 extension students,‡ and provided instruction for thirty-eight students from other departments of the University, and 534 pupils in the Horace Mann School, a total of 2,042. Of the regular students, 128 have had College or University training, representing fifty-eight different institutions, and forty-nine were graduates of twenty-one normal schools. The enrolments of 1900 and 1901 showed a decided growth in all departments, and an increase of nearly 100 per cent. in the number of graduate students.

Scarcely ten years have elapsed since Teachers College first resolved itself into a training school for teachers, and to its youth may be attributed most of its defects. It has, however, passed

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\* The report of the Treasurer for the fiscal year 1898-99 on a budget of \$186,000, shows that approximately \$115,000 were expended in salaries, nearly \$15,000 in fellowships, scholarships and free tuition in College and Schools, and the remainder in administration, departmental appropriations, and for the maintenance of buildings, grounds and dormitories. The chief sources of income during the same period were as follows: School tuition fees, \$62,272; College tuition fees, \$33,547; dormitory, \$21,337; gifts and income from investments, \$78,768. Upwards of \$400,000 were also received for buildings, grounds, and permanent endowment, a sum which during the first six months of the present year has been increased by about \$200,000.

† The College grants annually five fellowships of the value of \$650, twelve scholarships of the value of \$150, four scholarships of the value of \$75, and one scholarship of the value of \$200. All fellowships and ten scholarships are assigned to graduate students; the others are awarded at the discretion of the faculty, subject to the conditions of the various gifts or endowments. One scholarship is open to men only, one to women only; all other fellowships and scholarships are open to men and women alike. Loans are also made to meritorious students from special funds recently placed at the disposal of the College; no security is asked except a promissory note which bears 2 per cent. interest. The necessary expenses of attending the College vary from \$300 to \$500 a year, as follows:—Tuition fees, graduates, \$150; undergraduates, \$75; books and stationery, \$15 to \$30; room, board and laundry, \$180 to \$300.

‡ Teachers College offers to teachers of New York and vicinity the opportunity to pursue in local circles a systematic course of professional study, under the guidance of College instructors. Such courses are known as extension courses. They are always an integral part of some resident course, and are given in the same manner as to resident students. Each course consists normally of thirty sessions of one hour each, thus allowing a one-hour course to be given in one year and a two-hour course in two years. Students who matriculate in Teachers College, having satisfied the requirements for admission to some course of study, may count the extension courses towards any diploma for which the corresponding regular courses may be counted.

Any responsible organisation of teachers may secure an extension course on condition of paying a minimum fee (to be determined in each case by the expense of giving the course), provided that no member of the class pays less than \$10 for a course of thirty lessons.

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successfully through most of the ills of infancy, and is to-day in sound and vigorous health, thanks to the fostering care of devoted friends. The record already made is surely an earnest of substantial advancement in the future.

JAMES E. RUSSELL,  
Dean of Teachers College.

Columbia University, New York City.

[This report, prepared by Dr. Russell in December, 1899, has been revised from later publications by Miss M. C. Matheson.]

[The latest Announcement of Teachers College for 1902-1903, received since this report was revised, can be seen at the Board of Education Library, St. Stephen's House, Cannon Row, Whitehall, London, S.W.]

APPENDIX.

In a recent report and the "College Announcement" for 1901, the Dean mentions one or two fresh developments affecting both the life of the students and the college work. Speaking of the students he says:—

"The student life of Teachers College has always been pure and healthy, as might be inferred from the nature of its aim. Students have been encouraged to participate in various forms of charitable and religious work. . . . The social gatherings at the College and in the houses of various professors have also served to stimulate a good college spirit. These features of our work I have considered of so much importance that I have recommended to the trustees the appointment of a Directress whose duty it shall be to advise and assist students as occasion may offer, and the lady who filled the office of registrar has been assigned to this position. She will keep lists of approved boarding houses, aid students in finding suitable homes, see that they are properly cared for in sickness and advise them in matters of a personal or social nature."

"The Morningside Realty Company is now erecting a handsome fire-proof Dormitory adjoining Teachers College at a cost of about \$1,000,000. This building, when ready for occupancy in the Fall of 1901, will be one of the most complete college dormitories in this country, and will afford a good home under proper supervision for all women students of the University. Every room will be outside and entirely light. There will be a complete elevator system, laundry, baths, ample storage rooms, bicycle rooms, steam heat, hot water, and both public and private parlours and reception rooms. Besides the Dormitory proper there will be two end wings devoted to apartments of seven and eight rooms and bath which will be rented unfurnished to families. The main dining halls and restaurant will be on the top floor, but a quick-lunch will also be served on the first floor."

"The professional life of the College is represented also in its students' clubs. A Graduate Club, a Glee Club, a Kindergarten Club and an Art Club are organised and serve for both professional and social purposes. These clubs, together with the general student body, have been federated through a central Council to promote the educational and social ends of the College, and to secure co-operation in various lines of interest, including student self-government. In the course of the college year various lectures and recitals, open without charge to students and their friends, are given under the general auspices of this Council, before the different student organisations and the student public."

An Educational Museum has lately been added to the departments of the college. The beginning already made in securing valuable illustrative material shows that the museum can be made one of the most valuable adjuncts of the college equipment. There is now a fine collection of casts, photographs, and lantern-slides; also photographs, plans, and specifications of typical school buildings for the use of students in educational administration and school hygiene, material illustrative of early school apparatus for students in history of education, and the departments of domestic art and science have received acquisitions by way of textiles and food products. Materials of value in the history of education, the essential features of special devices in the heating, lighting, ventilation, sanitation and equipment of school buildings, and carefully selected objects that will fairly illustrate types or general ideas of service in school work are being added as quickly as possible. The museum, when extended along the lines ahead mapped out, may "easily be made a national, almost an international, clearing-house of concrete educational ideas."

"An argument for the extension of our work beyond the field of public school instruction is found in the demands made by other fields of educational effort. . . . Teachers College is now giving assistance to missionary work in India and South America, to orphan asylums and reformatories in New York, to negro education in the South, to the education of Indians

in the West, to charitable work all over the country, and there are students in the College who are fitting themselves especially for the training of idiotic and feeble-minded children."

"It remains for me to say, in conclusion, that while the needs of the College seem to be unlimited, the possibilities of our work are unbounded. There is to-day no institution similarly equipped and organized in all the world. We have the support of a great university and the confidence of the teaching profession. The influence which we are even now exerting extends in all directions, and includes within its scope all grades of public instruction from the kindergarten to the university, and practically every phase of education and philanthropic activity. Our efforts are not confined to any section of the country, nor are they restricted to any class or sect. As a national institution, therefore, we aim to serve a people that puts its trust in education as the surest guarantee of individual liberty and social righteousness."

## SUMMARY OF STUDENTS IN 1900.

Candidates for Higher Diploma -	-	-	-	-	-	86
" " Secondary Diploma -	-	-	-	-	-	79
" " Elementary Diploma -	-	-	-	-	-	94
" " Kindergarten Diploma -	-	-	-	-	-	18
" " Domestic Art Diploma -	-	-	-	-	-	7
" " Domestic Science Diploma -	-	-	-	-	-	30
" " Fine Arts Diploma -	-	-	-	-	-	23
" " Manual Training Diploma -	-	-	-	-	-	25
Students in Collegiate Course -	-	-	-	-	-	57
						<hr/> 410
Students not Candidates for a Diploma :						
Special Students -	-	-	-	-	-	35
Special Students in Hospital Economics -	-	-	-	-	-	7
Auditors and Irregular Students -	-	-	-	-	-	61
Students from other Faculties in the University :						
From the Faculty of Philosophy -	-	-	-	-	-	41
" the Faculty of Political Science -	-	-	-	-	-	1
" the Faculty of Pure Science -	-	-	-	-	-	3
" Columbia College -	-	-	-	-	-	12
" Barnard College -	-	-	-	-	-	10
						<hr/> 170
						<hr/> 590

## PUPILS IN SCHOOLS :

Horace Mann School :						
High School -	-	-	-	-	-	243
Elementary School -	-	-	-	-	-	185
Primary School -	-	-	-	-	-	164
Kindergarten -	-	-	-	-	-	47
						<hr/> 639
Experimental School						
Primary School -	-	-	-	-	-	23
Kindergarten -	-	-	-	-	-	40
						<hr/> 63
						<hr/> 702
Extension Students -	-	-	-	-	-	679



## "NATURE-STUDY" IN THE UNITED STATES.

Within the last few years a new spirit seems to have entered into American Elementary Education, and has found expression in the method of teaching practised in many public schools in the United States. This new theory of education is admittedly based upon the kindergarten system, and American nature-study may be regarded as a direct out-growth from this scholastic ideal. It is, however, a product of very recent times, so much so, that though educational words or terms have usually come in the wake of the facts and principles they represent, yet in nature-study we have a term or expression which does not at present clearly indicate some generally recognised and accepted educational fact or principle. To define then what American nature-study is, or even to outline its scope, is not an easy matter, seeing that the subject is at present in a somewhat nebulous stage. We can, therefore, only attempt to indicate the various points of view, which the term "Nature-Study" covers in the modern and to some extent experimental methods of teaching, advocated and practised in the United States.

It must first be borne in mind that, as a subject, nature-study receives support generally from those who advocate—as true education—the study of man's immediate surroundings and his general environment; also, the study of the world in which he is placed, and on which he depends. Nature-study is out of place in any system which limits education to the study of man's languages, history and literature. It is, however, a "human" study where man is regarded as being only a part of a complex organism or organisation. Another factor which will be found to have had, and still to have, a great influence in determining both the tone and scope of nature-study in the United States, is the preponderance amongst American teachers of the feminine element. To such an extent are the common schools of the country taught by women, that in American educational literature the word Teacher is now usually regarded as being feminine in gender. Some forms of nature-study teaching appeal strongly to feminine sentiments and moods; in fact, such forms have been evolved and introduced into the school by women, while the leading exponents of this sentimental nature-study are women, and much of its literature has been written by women.

The teaching of nature-study, though it receives a good deal of attention, is not by any means general throughout the United States. Perhaps the Eastern or New England States have most centres of activity, yet it cannot be said to be restricted or confined to these States as it is being tried more or less in all parts of the Union. It is perhaps as general in the Middle and Western States as in the Eastern, there being at present a popular movement in many States along this line of work. Further, there are in almost every State one or more institutions giving some attention to this work at the present time. Many of the Agricultural Colleges are providing aids for the teachers, while some of them even go so far as to provide helps for the individual pupils of the various schools throughout the State. In several of the States the Departments of Agriculture, through their college and station staffs, are undertaking the promotion of the teaching of nature-study. In New York, for instance, the nature-study movement started as a result of a special appropriation for University extension work in agriculture; the authorities having charge of the funds to be expended on extension work, having come to the decision that a portion of the money could be spent in no better way than in awakening an interest among the children in public schools in such subjects as nature-study teaching includes. In other States the promotion of nature-study teaching has come about through the use of funds originally appropriated for publishing experiment station or college bulletins. It must, however, not be inferred that only agricultural institutions and boards have encouraged nature-study teaching. In several States the initiative has been taken by Departments of Public Instruction, and in many cases city superintendents of schools have been the prime movers in the work.

Nature-study teaching, however, though primarily intended to benefit the agricultural interest, is less common in the rural schools of the States than in urban schools. While it is easier for the teachers of the country districts to present nature-study work, yet, because these teachers are not so well prepared, the schools in the cities and large villages are taking the lead. The movement has, undoubtedly, made the greatest progress in the urban schools. There are, of course, many rural schools doing systematic work in nature study, but a larger proportion of the city schools are, without doubt, doing more *satisfactory* work along this line than those of the country districts. Practically the rural schools have not yet been systematically worked, and it therefore may be said that this field is thus far untried and uncultivated.

The schools of New York, Pennsylvania and Rhode Island are generally admitted to be leading centres of nature-study teaching, the greatest activity being found in the schools of New York State, and this fact has been credited to the attitude

taken up by Cornell University (Ithaca, N.Y.) on the subject. Besides Cornell University and the Pennsylvania State College, several other State institutions—mostly agricultural—have interested themselves in the promotion of nature-study teaching, notably in Indiana, Michigan and Nevada. Cornell University has published 22 leaflets; the Pennsylvania State College about a dozen leaflets, and the Pennsylvania Department of Agriculture has published several bulletins on nature-study. Purdue University, Indiana, has published about 25 of these nature-study leaflets; the Michigan Agricultural College has published several, and the University of Nevada has recently taken up the work and published two leaflets. All of these publications, it should be borne in mind, are intended solely for the use of teachers, and are merely suggestions of methods to be used and enlarged upon by those in charge of classes, the latter of course, being of varying grades or standards. There seems also to have been no concerted action in this work, and yet all agree that the scope of the subject should include only observations upon what the pupil may readily find for himself—things that he will come across in his rambles through the fields and woods, or when on his way to and from school.

It should also be noted that at the present time there does not seem to be any disposition on the part of school teachers in America to decry the movement, or in any way to hinder its introduction; in fact they are, as a rule, rather favourably inclined towards the subject. The greatest demand that is made by school teachers is for knowledge, *i.e.*, to be furnished with observational data, and for ready-made methods of teaching, neither of these demands being, perhaps, altogether desirable. Though the movement is thus so far popular among school teachers, yet it is difficult to state what proportion of the school teachers, even in the most progressive States, are attempting anything like systematic nature-study work. The estimates of qualified American educational authorities range from 10 to 25 per cent., and as probably the exact proportion is not stationary, it will be safest to assume that the percentage is at present small, but is rapidly increasing.

While in a sense all of this work has a direct bearing on agriculture, being frequently supported by agricultural funds, and although teachers do find most of their material in the country or in the immediate vicinity of towns and cities, yet it can hardly be said that any of these American nature-study schemes are professedly agricultural: nor are the subjects that are studied offered or recognised as qualifying subjects in an agricultural course. (There is, however, in Missouri, a plan in process of organisation to introduce agricultural instruction into all the rural schools, a law having been passed to this effect, and provision having been made for teaching agriculture in the three State Normal Schools of that State.) The ordinary nature-study work that is offered to teachers by the various colleges that have taken up the subject

is, it is admitted, designed to help the teachers and pupils to start the work rather than to give them a systematic course of instruction. While the lessons deal with facts pertaining to the various subjects which they embrace, an effort is made to present the subject in an interesting way. All the workers agree that the first step must necessarily be to interest the teachers and pupils in this work. When this is accomplished, more advanced lessons, spoken of as lessons of direction, will in due course be prepared.

As already noted, there has been so far no co-ordination of effort between the various institutions and the various workers engaged in nature-study work. Each one follows methods which appear to be best adapted to their own constituency, without any definite principle, and the reason usually given for this want of correlation is that nature-study has not yet been included in American pedagogics. Though numerous so-called "nature-study manuals" exist, and some of them are used, yet the most successful methods are those which depend on each individual teacher for inspiration and suggestion.

One other point may be noticed, partaking as it does of the nature of a general factor. Nature-study, as a rule, readily appeals to the rural instincts of urban dwellers, an instinct that makes townsmen more apt to dwell on the pleasures of rural life than countrymen—a sentiment which is formulated in the cry, "back to the land." Again, nature-study has come into the educational system of the United States at a period when there is a movement towards the expansion of American farm life. This expansion is rapidly transforming rural life, robbing it of its isolation, and softening its hard outlines. The object of the movement is the breaking down of those barriers which have so long differentiated country from urban life; the extinction of that social ostracism which has been the farmer's fate, and the obliteration of that line which for many a youth has marked the bounds of opportunity. It is hoped by many that through the general extension of nature-study teaching, the less desirable features of country life will not be compared with the more attractive phases of town life, and, further, that the farmer himself, through its teaching, will find in his surroundings those country sweets for which the town dweller pines. As the ploughman is no longer content to keep his eye for ever on the furrow, and as old prejudices fade, and his work and life broadens and expands, nature-study seems to be, in the opinion of many, an agency that will assist him to meet the new demands, intellectual and material, which follow all lines of progress. Whether nature-study teaching can assist in the fundamental change that is taking place in American rural life may be a debatable question; the subject cannot, however, but benefit from the sentiment which accepts it as one of the factors that are at work, moulding American rural life by new standards. The general recognition of nature-study may, therefore, in some degree be attributed to this movement, and to the sentiment in favour of rural life and surroundings common among urban communities.

The term "nature-study" as used in the United States is difficult to define, for it is indiscriminately applied to a number of different systems or ideals.\* Under one form of nature-study the dominant idea seems to be to lead children to feel affectionately towards plants and animals. This is an attitude which rightly appeals to the sympathies of many teachers, but any exaggeration of it may quickly produce an unhealthy state of mind. Nature study of this type appeals strongly to those teachers who hope thereby to ennoble the artistic and ethical nature of the child. But during the past two or three years, many educational authorities in America have taken exception to exaggerated and over-sentimental forms of nature-study, as developed by emotional teachers. Considering the large proportion of female teachers there are in American schools, it may be safely assumed that a subject which seems to touch the artistic and ethical sides of child nature will be apt readily to enlist their sympathies. The difficulty seems to be to keep the teaching of such sentiments from degenerating into the teaching of squeamishness. Much of what is called nature-study in America is, it must be confessed, mere sentimentalism, and this sentimental spirit pervades a large number of the books on nature study that are published and used, while it also affects in varying degrees other systems or forms of nature-study teaching. Perhaps this may be attributed to the influence of the feminine element that plays so large a part in American educational matters. On examining a list of American books comprising 350 entries dealing generally with nature, and which includes nature readers, and manuals on methods of nature-study, we find that 36 per cent. of such books are by women; and if we restrict the list to books that deal solely with methods in nature-study, being manuals for teachers, and to nature readers for class use in schools, then about 60 per cent. of such books have been written or compiled by women. The influence, therefore of the female teacher in nature-study teaching in the States must not be lost sight of and is an important factor.

Another form which nature-study takes is simply that of a course of object lessons on common things, or ordinary natural phenomena under an attractive title. Nature-study of this type is called elsewhere "earth knowledge," or "nature knowledge," and the object of such teaching is to impart information about natural phenomena. A teacher wishes to teach certain data bearing on some specific natural object or objects, and, in America, does so by calling it nature-study instead of object lesson teaching. Being an object lesson, it will generally be illustrated by specimens, etc., and the method of teaching employed will probably be such as will enable the pupils to grasp and assimilate the information the lesson was specifically intended by the teacher to convey. As, however, it is a lesson,

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\* See Appendix. Prof. Hodge on "American Systems of Nature-Study."

the teaching must be restricted by a time limit, and as a definite amount of information has to be conveyed within a specified period, the teacher must therefore keep the accomplishment of this end ever in view. A course of instruction of this character no doubt presents to pupils much interesting information about various scientific principles, but its ultimate value depends on the assimilation by the pupils of the elementary truths taught by the teacher. Nature-study of this type is just an elementary form of science teaching.

American critics have frequently pointed out that teachers in the United States will study under the guise of "nature-study" anything and everything but simple nature, and that, eschewing any form of investigation, they have a fondness for memorising classified facts. Such teachers go to books instead of nature, and much of their nature-study is simply class readings of nature primers, nature readers, and other books about the wonders of the world. Such teaching gives us another type of "nature-study," the idea in this form being that the whole curriculum of the school shall be dominated by "nature." The principle underlying this movement is that the three "R's" shall be taught through the medium of "nature," or rather that every exercise in the school shall have a "nature colouring or gloss."

The reading books in use deal with what may be termed "nature" at large, the object lessons are of course on natural objects, and every other lesson in the curriculum of the school, *i.e.*, writing, drawing, arithmetic, dictation, geography, etc., is based on a knowledge of or a love for the common things of every-day life. Giving school curricula this "nature-tone" seems to be the form of nature-study generally advocated in American Normal Schools and Teachers' Training Institutes. The object seems to be to get "nature" into the schoolroom and into the school-life of the children, and this sentiment is one that usually appeals to the masses in large urban centres, and in many ways attracts the sympathies of great numbers of the teachers, especially of women teachers.

This idea of allowing a sentiment to tone every subject taught in the school seems to be a popular one on the North American Continent. In Canada, however, we may note that the tone-subject that has been suggested is agriculture instead of the general nature-study of the States. As agriculture is rather a technical subject, it may be of interest to note here how it is proposed to give the teaching in a school an agricultural tone. This subject is elaborated in a special Bulletin on "The Teaching of Agriculture in the Public Schools," issued by the Ontario Department of Agriculture in 1892. The author of this Bulletin is Prof. C. C. James, M.A., at that time Deputy Minister of Agriculture, and we shall note his suggestions as far as possible in his own words. Prof. James states that "there are two sides to agricultural education. In addition to im-

parting knowledge, or teaching the student how to observe and how to think, there should be a cultivation of the feeling of sentiment." . . . . "The principal aim and object of instruction in our public schools should be the creation of a sentiment in favour of agricultural work, the development of a love for the country and its healthful life." The Bulletin points out that "apart from the teaching of agriculture as a separate subject, there are subjects now included in the curriculum of our public schools that can be given a turn toward, or an application to, agriculture, and the subject thereby be indirectly introduced." The subjects thus referred to are—reading, composition, history, arithmetic and drawing. As regards reading, Prof. James suggests that "the literature placed in the hands of the pupils for reading and study should apply more than it has in the past to the country; the description of rural scenery, of rural occupations, and rural life." With respect to composition, we are told that "the history of agriculture in the past century, and the varied work of the present agricultural life, suggest a great variety of subjects that might be given in this department of school work." In regard to history itself (which is considered under two heads—British and Canadian), Prof. James, in respect to the first, notes that "the development of the agriculture of Britain should form as prominent a part of her history as does the development of her other industries." Rural pupils, he thinks, should be as familiar with the names of Bakewell of Dishley, Coke of Holkham, and Smith of Deanston, etc., as they are with such names as Oliver Cromwell, William Shakespeare and the Duke of Wellington. With regard to Canadian history, the Bulletin points out that "the true history of this province (Ontario) has been worked out upon the farm, in clearing the forest, in reclaiming the swamp, in the construction of roads, in the improvement of our stock, and the development of our produce for market. Too often historians are more disposed to seek for history in the halls of legislature and the fields of bloody conflict, overlooking entirely the social development of the people. If our teaching of history did not refer almost exclusively to transactions carried on in cities and on the part of the professional classes, but gave its true place to the questions in which the rural life is intimately associated, there would be less concluding on the part of rural pupils that city life and city events alone 'count' in this progressive age." With respect to arithmetic, Prof. James writes: "Not a single question need be given in this subject that has not a bearing upon agriculture. We might refer to questions in marketing; in the measurements of fields and roads; as to capacity of barns, bins, silos, etc.; as to the cost of production." Then, with respect to drawing, it is noted that "the flowers of the field, the weeds by the roadside, the simplest farm implements, the buildings and animals upon the farm, surely afford scope for the most advanced artistic development to be found in rural schools."

These quotations will indicate how an attempt is sometimes made to give a rural or agricultural tone to the work of a school, and it may be added that this agricultural teaching is often regarded as nature-study. In the West Indian Islands, for example, an attempt has recently been made to introduce agriculture under the guise of nature-study. The text book, officially published in 1901, by the Imperial Department of Agriculture for the West Indies, entitled "Nature Teaching," is simply an elementary text book on the principles of agriculture—very similar to school books published in England, to meet the requirements of agriculture as a "specific subject" in our code—combined with details for giving suitable and local agricultural object lessons. This book, as far as we can judge, is not introduced to give an agricultural tone to West Indian schools but as "nature-study," and it therefore represents an American school of pedagogics who hold that nature-study is just another term for elementary science teaching. This school is well represented by Mr. Charles B. Scott, M.A., recently instructor in nature-study at the State Normal School, Oswego, New York, who in his excellent work, "Nature Study and the Child," uses the terms "elementary science or nature study" as synonyma, and writes: "the terms 'elementary science' and 'nature study' are both widely used. Elementary science is, perhaps, more exact, and therefore more scientific. Nature study has a less formidable sound." Again, in another paragraph, he notes with special emphasis that "the spirit in which we should study nature; the spirit in which children approach a constant companion or friend, is better indicated, to the children and teachers at least, by the simple 'nature study' than by the somewhat high-sounding and formidable 'elementary science.'" This form, therefore, of nature study is simply elementary science teaching under another guise.

Another of these general nature-study schemes is that elaborated at the Philadelphia Normal School, and of which Mrs. L. L. W. Wilson, Ph.D., may be regarded as the leading exponent.\* Under such a scheme an attempt is made to correlate the subjects taught in a school through the study of natural phenomena, while the instruction to be given month by month is differentiated. For example, in one scheme it is noted that the energies and attention of the school during one month should, in respect to weather, be directed to wind, clouds, and rain, and the phenomena of evaporation and condensation; in respect to plant life, seeds—their germination and food supply should be studied; as regards animal life, the migratory return of birds and the differences in the beaks and feet of the different classes

\* "Manual for Teachers of Nature-Study in Elementary Schools," by Mrs. Wilson. Macmillan & Co., New York. 90 cents. "Nature Reader, No. 1," by Mrs. L. L. W. Wilson. Macmillan & Co., New York. 25 cents. "Nature Reader, No. 2," by Mrs. L. L. W. Wilson. Macmillan & Co., New York. 90 cents.



were to be inquired into; and in respect to the soil, its mechanical composition might be examined. The difference that exists between this form of what we would call "nature teaching" in place of "nature-study" and a "nature knowledge" course of object lessons, either out-door or in-door, is that the entire work of the school during any specified month will in some way have a bearing or refer to the "nature" subjects allotted to that month.

Yet another course of nature-study on somewhat similar lines to that at Philadelphia is the course at the Chicago Institute, of which Prof. F. W. Parker was Director, and in which the office of Dean is held by Mr. Jackman,\* whose books on nature-study are well known. Here nature-study is a section of the Department of Natural Science, and the various schemes of study that have been elaborated will be found in the "Elementary School Teacher, and the Course of Study."† The general plan as advanced by the Institute is first to make a careful observation of all the phenomena of nature, which present themselves to the surroundings of the pupils; and secondly, to ensure the use of all these subjects of study for the development of knowledge. Further, the method of study and presentation for nature-study is, according to the "course of study": first, to make a comprehensive study of the landscape, as a whole, not as a composite of confused facts; secondly, to study details of the landscape according to their related parts, the smaller units within the larger; thirdly, to note the series of aspects by or from which the landscape can be viewed; fourth, to note series of aspects of landscape details; and, fifth, the order in which aspects appeal to pupils. Nature-study also requires (the Chicago School state) adequate and intelligible records, and these records are to be grouped as follows:—colour, form, force, time, written inferences, and personal reflections, and the experience and feeling of others, *i.e.*, reading. As usual in this class of "nature-study" the attempt is made to give the entire teaching a "nature" science tone, and an effort is made to give effect to this by correlating all the subjects taught in the school.

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\* "Nature Study for the Common Schools," by Wilbur S. Jackman. H. Holt & Co. New York, 1894. "Field Work in Nature Study." A Handbook for Teachers and Pupils. A. Kanagan. Chicago, 1897. "Nature Study for Grammar Grades." A Manual for Teachers and Pupils below the High School in the Study of Nature. The Macmillan Company New York, 1899. "Nature Study and Related Subjects for the Common Schools." Part I. Charts. A conspectus of work for grades below the High School. Part II. Notes. F. R. Bartsch, Normal School Publishing House. Chicago, 1896-98.

† This publication was at first entitled, "The Course of Study," and published by the Chicago Institute; it is now entitled, "Elementary School Teacher and the Course of Study," and published by the University of Chicago School of Education.

The outlines of work in nature-study drawn up at the Chicago Institute are a good example of the Normal School type of nature-study, and are of interest and value. Full of detail, they are perhaps too ambitious, in fact, often the work proposed for one month is too elaborate to be covered even in two, but the syllabi are of value. We give herewith in illustration a brief and scant résumé of the outline of the nature-study work for eight months, for a low grade or standard, and the point to be borne in mind is that all the ordinary subjects of instruction would have to bear upon or be influenced by this nature-study outline or schedule.

#### CHICAGO INSTITUTE.

Brief résumé of syllabi of nature-study work for lowest grades:—

October—Study October landscape, study pictures on black board, observe birds, gather seeds to use in spring, dry fruits, visit farm, study changes in temperature by departing birds, falling leaves, and animals housing.

November—Study November landscape, study wind, record changes in animals as cold weather approaches, experiment in preparation of corn-meal, oatmeal, flour, etc., experiment in primitive grinding and cooking, observe trees, etc.

December—Study December landscape, study crystals, observe trees.

January—Study January landscape, study woods, willow, oak, pine, maple, etc., cut each in sections, longitudinal and quarter, weigh them, test strength.

February—Study foods, their sources and uses, test for starch, albumen, carbon, fat, draw up bill of fare for summer and winter, also for Eskimo, study birds, the winter residents, study winter condition of trees and shrubs.

March—Make a spring calendar, make painted record of bud development and germination of seeds, note changes in temperature.

April—Select site for garden, examine soil, plant seeds in series of pots, with different soils, study ants and earth worms as soil mixers, continue spring calendar begun last month.

May—Plant garden, sketch animals mostly seen this month, study their food and how obtained, their homes, social habits, study May landscape.

In the "course of study" already referred to the proposed course of "nature-study" at Chicago for each grade in the school is given month by month, and the details noted are well worth the attention of all interested. The area covered

by these outlines is very extensive indeed, for practically all the sciences are requisitioned, and it may even be said that simple scientific "tit-bits" are worked into a kind of educational mosaic, which is in turn supplemented when deemed desirable by pickings from subjects like economic botany, commercial geography, and agriculture. Diversity of topics no doubt makes such a "nature-study" scheme interesting, both for school children and teachers, but in reality it is elementary science teaching.

Outlines of Chicago Institute nature-study schemes:—

FOR OCTOBER.

- 1st Grade—Study October landscape, pictures on blackboard, observe birds, insects, animals, flowers, select trees to study through year, gather seeds for use in spring, drying fruits, visit farm, study change in temperature as indicated by departing birds, falling leaves, housing of animals.
- 2nd Grade—Harvest, study process of storing and preserving food, dispersion of seeds by wind and water, carrying of seeds by animals, self-distribution, also man's part in their distribution.
- 3rd Grade—Study October landscape, trees, flowers, fruit, vegetables, insects, birds, rainfall, wind, temperature, preparation for winter, our preparation, preparation in the vegetable kingdom, seed dissemination, preparation of plants for winter, notice how plant sows seed singly by opening pod, or pod as whole, classify vegetables according to part eaten, constituents of fruits and vegetables, birds, kinds seen, what doing, collect deserted nests, do same work with insects.
- 4th Grade—Observe weather, influence on life of people, temperature, rainfall, direction of wind, and cloudiness, record daily, study typical geographical areas, observe soils and plant life in each.
- 5th Grade—Use of thermometer, rain gauge, skiameter, daily weather record, frost, distribution of seeds, effect of frost on plants.
- 6th Grade—Seed distribution (elaborated) and study of weather, plant life, how affected by temperature, using thermometer, rain (using gauge), humidity, fogs, frost, and dew, length of days and nights (skiameter).
- 7th Grade—Climatic conditions, observe time and place of sunset, position of sun at noon, adaptation of life to climatic conditions, disappearance of animal life, ants' nests, cocoons, etc., distribution of seeds, uncultivated plants, cultivated plants, locate grain areas, compare size, value, produce, cost of production, and what determines market value.

8th Grade—Plant life as affected by weather, sunshine. Sixth Grade outline elaborated.

FOR NOVEMBER.

- 1st Grade—Study November landscape, blackboard pictures, observe direction of wind, record changes in animal coverings as cold weather approaches, experiments in preparing grains, and primitive way of cooking and grinding, observe trees selected for study.
- 2nd Grade—Nature's devices for protecting animals and vegetation against extremes of temperature, houses of animals, migration and hibernation, children to study their own clothing, decide which material is best for season, and why.
- 3rd Grade—November landscape, continue observations begun in October, continue work on constituents of fruit and vegetables. Special study, the chemistry of decay.
- 4th Grade—As a help to cooking, study tests for starch and albumen, the chief ingredients of corn, the use of these as food for the germinating plant, November landscape to be painted.
- 5th Grade—Meteorology, continue use of rain gauge and weather record as last month. Astronomy, measure the noon slant of sun and compare with last month. Zoology, observe in all possible ways animal movements, bring all varieties of small animals to schoolroom, and watch their behaviour as winter approaches.
- 6th Grade—November work to embrace certain relations between insects and plants, children to collect galls, distorted leaves, stems, and webs, also make a collection of larvae, and watch their evolution, and if possible watch the hibernating habits of various animals.
- 7th Grade—Study weather as indicated for October, following up the distribution of seeds, the children to account for the part of the plant which seems to decay. Find out what is in the plant (laboratory work). All leaves do not decay immediately; pupils will also study fossils.
- 8th Grade—Last month nature's distribution of seeds was studied. November study to be distribution and transportation by man, and chemistry of decay, study extent of food producing areas, and cost of crops, calculate cost of transportation, and find the cost of preparing the food, also work out and formulate Ricardo's theory of rent.

FOR DECEMBER.

- 1st Grade—Study of crystals; frost on the windows will suggest other questions; perform simple experiments with salt, alum, sugar; study December landscape by means of pictures, begin a picture calendar. Observe trees selected for study; specially pine and other evergreens.

- 2nd Grade—As artificial heat is now required children will study coal this month; describe the heating apparatus in our home, bring samples of coal used in furnaces, stoves, grates, experiment with clay pipes filled with cannel, anthracite and bituminous, seal with plaster-of-Paris, light gas which comes from stems, catch other products in water, burn coal in open pans; note kind of light which burns longest, and greatest flame.
- 3rd Grade—Study fruits, test for starch, carbon, lime, salt, and possibly potash; observe landscape.
- 4th Grade—Study different forms of animal life, for protection against cold; the use of wood, coal, gas, as fuel.
- 5th Grade—Meteorology, by colour chart and thermometer record, learn to read instrument; astronomy, observe sun with skiameter, level ground covered by given cross-section of sunshine, compared with same in November; physics, simple experiments which will lead to understanding barometer.
- 6th Grade—Heat and fuel, advantages and disadvantages of each mode; disadvantages, with coal, with wood, shape of walls of fireplace, relative size of do., and flues. Advantages: beauty, simplicity, good ventilation; furnace, hot air, hot water, steam; fuels, where found, composition; wood, where used, cost, etc.; gas, natural and manufactured.
- 7th Grade—For this year same as 8th, taught together.
- 8th Grade—Warming and ventilating houses; begin by studying how bees ventilate hives in warm weather; constituents of pure air, how much air should be provided per person per hour, 1,000 to 3,000 cubic feet, experiment on air, find amount of  $\text{CO}_2$  in given volume.

FOR JANUARY.

- 1st Grade—Study landscape, study wood, cut in sections, oil and polish, then weigh; decide which lightest, and which strongest; painted and unpainted surfaces, see which takes up most water; after weight and strength compare this to yearly growth.
- 2nd Grade—Study wood as in 1st Grade; observations in meteorology.
- 3rd and 4th Grades—Examination of foods continued. Obtain a picture by means of records kept by children, weather, sunshine; compare food of park animals with same in wild condition.
- 5th Grade—Meteorology, weather record with thermometer and barometer records; astronomy, sun's slant, observe with skiameter; sun will be higher, temperature lower; endeavour to find reason for themselves; foods, study

ordinary cereals, plants, part used in food, geographical distribution of crops, preservation of crop, and transportation to market, preparation for table.

7th Grade—Continue to work on plan for lighting, heating, and ventilating new school building.

8th Grade—Ventilation and heating, house must be made to breathe as well as inmates; an examination of the ventilating conditions in any given place will embody following: Cubic space, in room or building, size and position of outlets and inlets, amount of fresh air supplied per person, distribution of air over room from inlets, examine motive forces used to induce air movements; anemometer, if this instrument can be had, exact volume and velocity of direct air currents may be determined; heating of houses, each make full report on heating at home.

#### FOR FEBRUARY.

1st and 2nd Grade—Study foods, make a list of what is eaten every day, sources, uses, constituents; tests for starch, albumen, carbon, fat; make bill of fare for Eskimo. Study birds, winter residents; study condition of trees, shrubs, prove presence of seeds capable of germination in frozen ground by bringing some earth indoors, and keeping it moist and warm.

5th Grade—Meteorology, continue as last month; astronomy, same; study foods begun last month, wheat especially, and visit flour-mill, test starch with iodine, experiment on potatoes, bananas, etc., for starch.

7th and 8th Grade—Respiration, advisable to study before taking up ventilation, organs of respiration, mechanics of respiration, avoid multiplication of scientific terms (the object is to make the child understand how we breathe); abnormal forms of respiration and their uses, coughing, sneezing, snoring, crying, sighing, and laughing.

#### FOR MARCH.

1st and 2nd Grade—Make spring calendar; when each warm day causes notable changes, a daily record of temperature kept; no generalisation to be made with regard to meteorological observations, unless they come spontaneously from the children; ages of children from 6 to 9.

3rd and 4th Grade—Wood, what governed choice of wood in the articles around us; examine various kinds, what kind is most beautiful? strongest? hardest? durable? heaviest? Why are houses painted? After carefully examining specimens, both painted and unpainted exposed to weather, children will weigh and soak both kinds in water, and note result.

7th and 8th Grade—Wood, selections for flooring staircases, doors, pianos, furniture, carriages, structure, growth of wood in forests; where do woods grow, latitudes?

Mr. Scott's book,\* to which reference has already been made, well illustrates that type of "nature-study" teaching in America, which we have termed the Normal School type. It is altogether concerned with elementary science teaching pure and simple, yet at the same time it endeavours to give all the school curriculum the nature tone that is so much sought after. The nature-study which Mr. Scott represents and supports can be best defined as being attractive elementary science. The subject is regarded as "elementary knowledge classified," and defined as being "nature studied in its relations by the child from the child's standpoint by the teacher with the children." Mr. Scott assumes that the teacher will be a woman, and that through the type of nature-study he presents she will be able to cultivate the aesthetic, ethical, and spiritual nature of the child, largely through symbolism and personification. Mr. Scott's work, in fact, well illustrates the nature-study that is a combination of science and sentimentalism. In it, however, is to be found a well-considered argument for elementary science teaching; its aims, order, and method of study and presentation being discussed. The relationship that this form of nature-study should bear to reading and literature, to geography and arithmetic, and to language, painting, drawing, modelling, sewing and music, are also discussed and illustrated.

It may be of service if we here again point out that in the United States nature-study work or teaching is, so far as it has been taken up, an urban movement, and that it is supported mainly by female teachers. These teachers again can be roughly placed in two classes—namely, those who "deliberately shut their eyes to nature, and confine their investigations within the covers of a book"—the indoor host—and those who if not students are yet lovers of nature, and study nature and her manifestations under natural conditions—the out-of-doors few. The teaching, as might be expected, under such conditions varies. Some dignify the ordinary object lesson teaching of natural phenomena with the term "nature-study." Others consider that nature-study requirements are met if the children read about nature in well-illustrated, anecdotal and goody-goody books. Another section go out of doors, but direct attention only to such phenomena and aspects in nature as emphasise the homily, "Love is the fulfilling of the law." Others, again, who also go out of doors with their pupils, accept nature-study as a term which signifies that the teacher must teach the facts and precepts of elementary science under certain conditions as

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\* "Nature Study and the Child," by Charles B. Scott, M.A. Isbister and Co., Ltd., London, 1902.

to materials to be considered and methods to be pursued, while at the same time, the chief mission of the teacher is to be—through this form of nature-study—to endow children with what some people might be inclined to call angelic (more often Quixotic) qualifications and virtues. Another school simply uses the term nature-study for ordinary elementary science teaching when the materials utilised are found in our physical environment, and the teaching is based on the actual-seeing observation (sense-perception) and mental assimilation (apperception) of each pupil.

In all these various forms, however, nature-study comes before the pupil as a "lesson." It is either one of many lessons definitely labelled, or it is a sort of educational umbrella which overshadows the whole school curriculum. These various courses or movements, where the teaching is directed to further a knowledge of the common facts in nature around us, and where explaining and understanding natural phenomena are made the chief object, might well be distinguished by such terms as earth knowledge, nature knowledge, nature science, or nature teaching. We could then apply the term nature-study to that informal system or method of teaching or training by which the faculty of observing natural objects and phenomena is specially developed and exercised. This seems to be the chief object aimed at by the various "nature-study" courses that have been formulated by some of the agricultural colleges in the United States.

To interest and develop the seeing eye and the hearing ear is, we take it, the ideal form of nature-study. It is not science or knowledge classified, but it trains on the one hand to "clear and certain perception," and on the other it encourages familiarity with nature's facts and laws, and both are valuable factors, for "it is on just such foundations that all science has arisen."

These observational nature-study schemes are primarily addressed by the agricultural colleges through rural teachers to rural school children, who are practically immersed in Nature. The first essential to develop in rural (or urban) children in respect to nature-study is to arouse their interest and lead them into sympathetic touch with their surroundings. To be effective, therefore, a nature-study course must be planned and adapted to meet the needs and capacities of the pupils in rural elementary schools, and it also must be simple and elementary in the aim or purpose of the work, in the materials selected, and in the methods pursued.

The nature-study schemes that are offered by the American agricultural authorities who are interested in the subject differ a good deal in their details, and outlines of some of the leading schemes will perhaps best indicate how this variation arises. The Pennsylvanian Department of Agriculture, for instance, in



1900 issued two bulletins dealing with nature-study.\* One of these gives a detailed course in nature-study for eight grades in the public school. For the first five grades nature-study courses are drawn up for each month from September to June, the subjects noted being classed under four heads, *i. e.*, plants, animals, minerals, and elementary geography. For the sixth up to the eighth grade the monthly course is discarded and various subjects are taken and worked out in detail in the form of lecture or lesson notes. The syllabus for birds, in the section for sixth grade subjects, well illustrates how the various subjects are elaborated. One might regard this course as a series of object lesson notes intended solely for the eyes of the teacher. These outlines are also intended to be suggestive, and in the letter of transmittal which prefaces the course each teacher is asked to select from the outlines given such material as can be used to best advantage and which will arouse the greatest interest. The Secretary for Agriculture in his preface further points out (1) that the "bulletin is intended as a guide to teachers, indicating the subjects adapted to each grade of scholars, and giving the order in which the subjects ought to be pursued;" (2) that "the bulletin is also informal notice to teachers in Pennsylvania that in the near future such instruction as it outlines will be required in every country school"; (3) that the study of nature, by observing the things themselves, is the new and rational method of instruction and constitutes what is now known by the modern name 'nature-study'; and (4) that "this is no new fad in education, but older than the Commonwealth itself"; William Penn having suggested substantially the method now proposed to be pursued, as in his opinion "it were happy if we studied nature more in natural things," and taught children the "things obvious and familiar to them."

Apart from the State Department of Agriculture, the Pennsylvania State College School of Agriculture is an institution that advocates nature-study, and has prepared "Correspondence Courses in Nature-Study." The leaflets that are issued are addressed to teachers, and are intended to be used as aids by the teacher in presenting nature-study work, and are not designed to be used as class work material. Professor Watson, the Professor of Agriculture who is superintendent of these correspondence courses, in reply to our inquiries, writes: "These lessons are designed to aid the teachers of the common schools to present nature-study exercises to their pupils. While the claim is made that our teachers are burdened with too many studies already, yet we hope and firmly believe that a short nature-study exercise may be introduced once or twice a week as a rest or recreation exercise to the benefit of all

\* Bulletin No. 63.—"A Course in Nature Study for use in Public Schools," by Louise Miller, and Bulletin No. 64.—"Nature Study Reference Library for use in Public Schools," by Mira Lloyd Dock.

concerned. These nature-study lessons are received with great favour, and we hope they may aid materially in arousing increased interest in agricultural education. The simple lessons are designed to interest the pupils and teachers as well as to give some valuable information relating to the subjects of which they treat. We are preparing to publish a course of lessons, which will be somewhat more advanced, for the instruction of teachers."

These Pennsylvania State College nature-study lessons are simply leaflets giving short, concise, readable articles of the popular science type. They thus differ from the outlines published by the Pennsylvania Department of Agriculture, and are akin to the publications on nature-study issued by other colleges. Each leaflet discusses one subject, such as the House Fly, the Clothes Moth, Green Plant Lice, the Spider, the Earthworm or the Snail, and "Suggestions to the Teacher" are added how best to start the subject, keep the interest alive and in the proper direction, while various aspects or topics are suggested for discussion. This nature-study course therefore differs materially from the lesson or lecture notes, which constitute the nature-study course presented by the Pennsylvania Department of Agriculture. The teacher gets from the State College information and guidance, and being a correspondence course, the teacher can pursue, if desired, at home a course of study pertaining to nature-study teaching. As the object of these correspondence courses in nature-study is admitted to be to arouse increased interest in agricultural education, the State College also have correspondence courses in agriculture, so that teachers in rural schools can turn nature-study work in the higher grades into agricultural channels.

At various centres, in some of the States, summer schools are held for "nature-study" for the benefit of teachers. In many cases, at these schools, agriculture is taught under the term nature-study, while in others the term simply means "elementary science." The summer school, for example, that is held at the University of the State of Missouri, is one where agriculture is taught as nature-study. The Dean and Director of the College of Agriculture, University of Missouri, in an interesting communication with which we have been favoured, says:—

"We are firmly of the opinion that it will be necessary to properly prepare the teacher before this work can be successfully introduced into the district and graded schools. They must have a proper conception of what nature-study consists of, and its exact relation to rural affairs. Our instruction may be called nature study or agriculture, as it best pleases one's fancy, yet it is in reality as stiff a course in agriculture applied directly to farm life as the pupils are capable of carrying.

"Our pupils have been made up for the most part either of superintendents and principals of high schools articulated with the University, or the teachers of science in schools of this grade; in some cases, however, they have been teachers from the rural district schools. During the coming

school year some form of agriculture will be introduced into a goodly number of the schools of our state. We are watching the enterprise with the keenest interest, and are doing what we can to promote the subject in these various schools.

"As an illustration of what may be done outside of the university to promote this movement, our Professor of Horticulture, Prof. J. C. Whitten, gave a two weeks' course of instruction in horticulture to the teachers of this (Boone) county during their regular summer Teachers' Institute. At the close of the Institute, the teachers voluntarily formed themselves into a society for the introduction of agriculture into the public schools of the county. Prof. Whitten was made President of the organisation, the County School Superintendent was made Secretary, and the teachers of each municipal township constitute a committee for that township. Arrangements have been made for the teachers of the Agricultural College to visit each township at stated periods during the winter, and deliver lectures and make demonstrations before the teachers of that township and the patrons and pupils of the school. It is thought that at some of these lectures a small admission fee may be charged, the funds thus accumulated to go toward the purchase of agricultural books and the apparatus necessary to carry on nature-study work.

"The elements of agriculture have been taught in the Columbia High School for the past two years, and a fair equipment has this year been provided. One of the State Normal Schools, at Kirksville, Mo., is putting on a course in agriculture this year, taking one of our long course students as instructor. This work is meeting with great favour in all portions of the state and from all the leading educators. Arrangements have already been made for doubling the time in our course here next summer, devoting one term of six weeks to agriculture, and another term of six weeks to horticulture."

The Summer School at this Agricultural College—Missouri (Columbia)—offers six courses, the third of which is on "Agriculture and Horticulture," and under this title two separate courses entitled "Soil Studies" and "Plant Studies," are offered.\* The teaching at this Summer School has as its main object the introduction of agriculture under the term nature-study into the common schools, especially the rural village schools of Missouri—a course which has been persistently urged for a number of years by the Missouri Board of Agriculture.

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\* "The work in these subjects will consist of nature study in its relation to rural life, and is designed to meet the growing demand for definite instruction in these subjects.

The following courses are offered:—

1. *Plant Studies*—a. Propagation of plants in nature and under cultivation.  
b. The development of plants in relation to their surroundings.  
c. How to plant and use a school garden.  
d. Beautifying home and school grounds.
2. *Soil Studies*.—This course will consider the origin, formation, and distribution of soils. Special emphasis will be given to the work of common soil-makers, such as water, frost, insects, and roots of plants. These studies will introduce to the student the interesting problems connected with nature's processes of soil improvement and how they may be quickened and intensified by man. This will include a consideration of plant food and the principles of tillage.

The following indicates the scope of the teaching suggested, being the outline of the syllabus for teaching agriculture in the common schools, to be used in connection with "A Course (1) of Study for Rural Village Schools," published by the Missouri State Board of Education.

## CLASS D.

"First and Second Quarters. | Goff's "Plant Culture."

Plant Life—Heat, moisture, light and plant food; conditions of plant growth. Illustrate by simple experiments. Germinate seeds in moist blotting paper in a warm and a cool place. (1) Note time required for germination. 2. Place healthy plants in bright sunlight, medium shade and dense shade. (3) Grow corn in a jar of rather poor soil—add weak solution of ammonia—note vigorous growth and dark thrifty colour of leaves. Observe influence of conditions in nature. (1) Plant corn in early spring and later in warm summer, observe time required for germination. (2) Note wonderful growth of plants in moist places. (3) Observe weak growth of corn under trees."

## CLASS D.

"Third and Fourth Quarters. | King's "The Soil."

Soils—Soil is decomposed rock. Collect samples of sand, clay, gravel, sandy loam, clay loam and humus (very rich garden soil) soils. Rocks are broken down and become soils by action of glaciers, frost, water, roots of plants and chemicals. Note the difference in size of soil particles. Soil supplies conditions of plant growth, especially heat, moisture, and plant food. Coarse soils (sand, gravel) are dry and warm. Fine soils (clay) are cold and wet. Humus (vegetable matter), very desirable in all fertile soils—it warms soils, saves moisture and furnishes plant food."

## CLASS C.

"First and Second Quarters. { Year Books, Department of  
Agriculture, 1894-98, inclu-  
sive.

Plant Life—Collect seeds of cereals, grasses, forage plants, vegetables, and common weed seeds in small glass bottles. Learn to identify these readily. Collect clover and grass seeds at seed stores. Examine for weed seeds. Learn to identify bad weed seeds in clover, such as narrow-leaved plantain, lambs quarter, wild buck wheat, oxeye daisy, chess, sorrel, etc."

## CLASS C.

"Third and Fourth Quarters. | King's "The Soil."

Soils—Collect a quantity of sand, clay, and humus soil, dry in sun, fill ordinary plant jars with sand, clay, and humus. (1) Pour water in top. Note carefully time required to run through (percolate) soil and out below. Weigh soils when fully saturated. (2) Fill three more jars with air dry sand, clay

and humus, set each in a dish of water and note time required for water to flow up so as to moisten surface of soil in jar. Which soil holds most water? Which furnishes most water to plant? (3) Remove jars in No. 2 from dishes of water and allow water to evaporate. Which dries out most quickly? Why?"

CLASS B.

"First and Second Quarters. | Goff's "Plant Culture."

Plant Life—Propagation of plants by seed (corn), runners (strawberries), layers (rapes), soft cuttings (geraniums), hard cuttings (currants), suckers (blackberry), graft (apple), buds (peach), etc. Make propagating beds and require each student to become proficient in propagating each kind of plant. Make list of common plants propagated by each method. Give students the plants they propagated to take to their homes."

CLASS B.

"Third and Fourth Quarters. | King's "The Soil."

Soils—Soil fertility. A fertile soil is one capable of yielding large crops. Fertility is increased by adding plant food (fertilisers); by improving the physical condition, by thorough cultivation, by drainage and by ploughing under vegetation. Cultivation breaks down rocks, thus making soil, prevents loss of water, warms soil, permits air to reach roots of plants, and favours growth of plant roots. Fill jars with moist clay, thoroughly packed, saturate with water. In number one cultivate one inch deep daily; number two leave untreated; number three mulch with one inch dry sand, weigh one each week and note difference. Fill two jars with moist clay, cover one with black paper, the other with white. Take temperature in bright sunshine with thermometer. A dark-coloured soil is warmer. Why? Fill two jars with ordinary dry soil. Wet one thoroughly, take the temperature of each in bright sunshine."

CLASS A.

"Third and Second Quarters.

Domestic Animals—Meat, wool, milk, work, etc., animal products. What animals are fed for production of meat? Why do we feed them? What is a balanced ration? What is the general shape of all meat animals? What is the general shape of good milch cows?

Make a collection of fine, medium, and coarse wool. Learn names of different cuts of meat, porter house, round, etc. Collect pictures of beef and dairy animals of different breeds. Note difference between beef and dairy types."

## CLASS A.

"Third and Fourth Quarters. | Henry's "Feeds and Feeding."

Domestic Animals—Composition of animal body. Nutrients necessary in foods. Muscle making (protein), fat forming (starch), bone building (mineral). Young animals need more muscle making and bone building foods. How much food is required to produce a pound of gain when fed to young cattle? Lambs? Pigs? Two or three year-old steers? Does grinding, cooking, or soaking food increase its efficiency? Have students feed at home for four weeks one pig on corn alone (fat forming food) and another on milk and shorts (muscle making foods); weigh every week and observe difference in general thrift. Encourage students to answer questions by making original observations on the farm."

## SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.

"Learn to do by doing. Require each student to perform all the experiments and make all the collections. The success of this work will depend more upon the teachers' knowledge of the principles of agriculture than any other one thing. The parents will soon become interested and the wise teacher will enlist their help."

This Agricultural Board, of course, wishes to promote agricultural interests, and hopes to do so by furthering the study of agriculture in the common schools. They acknowledge that "the demand for agricultural advancement did not originate with the masses, the farmers being content to make the most of the then present conditions and trusting the future to posterity,"\* but they hold that "if agricultural education is a good thing, let it begin with the boy. . . . He should be given the elements of agriculture in the common school while on the farm, when he is every day brought into direct contact with each lesson, when his age and his conditions are favourable to the deepest impressions, and when he has a life-time before him for investigation and for the application of what he has learned." Agriculture in Missouri is therefore regarded as applied nature-study, and though the summer course for teachers was in the first year attended by only ten students, yet in 1900 there were 65 teacher-students, or 25 per cent. of the total enrolment in the University Summer School. Sentimental nature-study is not favoured, and the Professor of Agriculture reporting on "Teaching the principles of agriculture in the common schools" writes:

"We cannot too strongly condemn the so-called 'nature study' that excites a morbid interest in the mind of the child by putting words in the fictitious mouths of plants and personifying all sorts of inanimate objects,

\* Monthly Crop Report of the Missouri State Board of Agriculture, July, 1900.

thus over-stimulating the imaginative powers and, worse than all, fixing in the receptive minds of youth a series of fictitious novels. There is enough to excite the wonder and admiration of mankind in the common things about us. Let us have truth.\*

Another class of Summer School nature-study is represented by "The Rhode Island Summer School for Nature-Study," which is held at the College of Agriculture, Kingston, Rhode Island. This school "aims to emphasise the importance of a knowledge of nature's facts and of nature's laws as a basis for correct life," and the purpose is "to kindle enthusiasm rather than to furnish opportunities for information cramming." There are five courses or departments—Physiography, Botany, Zoology, Horticulture, and Agriculture; yet it is the study of nature that is fostered, not the study of elementary science, the school being intended for teachers "who feel that their knowledge of nature is inadequate to their needs, yet who do not know how to set to work to remedy such a defect."

The following are the departments in the Rhode Island Summer School for Nature Study:—

**PHYSIOGRAPHY.** Under the charge of Dr. J. H. Washburn, instruction will be given by lectures on the atmosphere, the ocean, land-forms, mountains, river-valleys, waste of land, and the relation between physiographic features and the progress of mankind. These lectures will be supplemented by excursions for the study of rocks, minerals, shore-action, glacial-moraines and other land-forms.

**BOTANY.** Under direction of Professor H. L. Merrow, on pleasant days the time allotted to botany will be spent in the field studying plants at work and the conditions under which they live. A wealth of material is readily accessible on the college campus and in adjoining fields. No attempt will be made to determine species. On rainy days the abundant laboratory supplies will furnish material for in-door study.

**ZOOLOGY.** Under direction of Dr. G. W. Field, the work will deal largely with the mode of recognition, the habits and haunts, the domestic life, the relationships, the life history, the food, the special adaptive modifications, and the economic importance of some of the most common birds and insects, but incidentally other animals which come to hand will receive their share of attention.

**HORTICULTURE.** With the guidance of Professor F. W. Card and Mr. G. E. Adams the field of horticulture will be drawn upon for illustrations of nature at work under the direction of man. Added to the features which render wild plants attractive, plants under culture exhibit evidences of amelioration, due to selection and development. Through horticultural manipulations the life processes of vegetation are often more plainly manifest than in feral nature. The orchard, the garden, and the lawn vie with the forest and the roadside in presenting topics of interest to the child, the student, or the lover of nature.

**AGRICULTURE.** Under the leadership of Dr. A. A. Brigham, opportunities will be given to study some of the very common things of the farm, such as the soil, the crops and the cattle. An extensive and well ventilated laboratory, equipped with all kinds and shapes and sizes of soil particles, supplied with numerous and varied samples of the products of the soil, and supplemented by specimens of some of the best agricultural animals, will enable those interested in things rural to become familiar with the kingdom of the farm."

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\* Monthly Crop Report of the Missouri State Board of Agriculture, July, 1900.

Reverting to nature-study schemes and leaflets, perhaps the most effective scheme that has been introduced into schools in the United States is that promulgated by the College of Agriculture, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York. Nature-study on the Cornell plan is popular and influential, and at the head of the movement stands Professor L. H. Bailey, a well-known agricultural and horticultural authority. Like most of the nature-study movements that are fostered by American agricultural colleges, that of Cornell seeks to improve the agricultural condition, but not by the teaching of agriculture in schools, and its nature-study work has been so successful that 26,000 teachers, according to Professor Bailey, are now in touch with Cornell and supporting its nature-study movement. There is a Cornell Reading Course for farmers, which two years ago was supported by over 5,000 farmers. In these reading lessons a problem is set and the solution is suggested, while an indispensable part of the course are the questions on the reading lessons. Each reading lesson is accompanied by a leaflet of questions, headed by a notice which states, among other points, that "we are after results and do not care about the handwriting nor the grammar," and "those who answer the questions will receive future lessons." These lessons are illustrated and deal with such subjects as "The Soil: What it is; Tillage and Under-drainage: Reasons why; Fertility of the Soil: What it is; How the Plant gets its food from the Soil; How the Plant gets its food from the Air; The Problem of Impoverished Lands; Balanced Rations for Stock; A Tree; Orcharding;" etc. The object of the reading course is to get the "farmer to act on a principle and not on a recipe."

These reading lessons are sent out by the "Bureau of Nature Study and Farmers' Reading Course," but the nature-study they present is not agricultural. On this point we find the following statement in Cornell Bulletin No. 159; "An Effort to Help the Farmer."\*

"It is commonly said that agriculture should be taught in rural schools. This may come in time with the older scholars; but the first thing to be taught is how to see, how to reason from what one sees, and to love and appreciate the natural world. That is, the first thing is a training natureward; later the training may be applied to specific problems, to farming. Again, there are very few teachers who are competent to teach agriculture in the common schools, even if they had a good text-book. We must teach the teacher as well as the pupil. Still again, the primary school is not the place in which to teach trades and professions. We do not teach law or medicine or engineering in the common schools: these are subjects to be taken up after the pupil has had good mental training. There is little use in telling a pupil about duck-raising until he knows a duck.

"In the hands of most teachers, the teaching of agriculture would be instructing in mere ways of doing things, but this is only the giving of information; it is not education. How to plant potatoes, when to cut corn, the best variety of wheat,—these matters do not interest children particularly, and they are different for every different year and locality.

\* Bulletin 159. Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, January, 1898.



The real things to teach are why potatoes should be planted so and so, why corn should be cut at a certain stage of its maturity, what are the principles which underlie the selection of a variety of wheat. These matters are fundamental in every season and in every locality."

Nature Study as understood at Cornell is therefore not agricultural, neither is it sentimental nor "diluted science." Writing on the subject, Professor Bailey says :\*

"A prevailing tendency in education is towards nature and naturalness. That part of the movement which looks to things afield for its inspiration is usually known as Nature Study. This term may mean anything or nothing. There is no uniform body of principles or practice included in the term. The greater part of what is called nature study is merely easy or diluted science. Another part of it is sentimental affectation. Between the two should lie the real and true nature study—that which opens the eyes of the child to see nature as it is, without thought of making the child a scientist, and without the desire to teach science for the sake of science. The nature study of the scientist is often the mere interpretation of scientific fact and discovery; but the child receives this knowledge second-hand, and what it receives is foreign to its own experiences. The gist of such teaching is to impart knowledge, but the true nature-teaching seeks rather to inspire and to enlarge one's sympathies; mere facts are secondary."

Cornell tried first to interest farmers and then the teachers in rural district schools in "nature-study," but the "agitation bore its first-fruit" in the largest cities. As regards the rural teacher, Professor Bailey writes: "She is removed from associations and conventions. She is the teacher of least experience and frequently of least ambition. She follows." The rural teacher in the States has so far been a follower of the nature-study movement which began in towns.

"Nature-study" as now presented by Cornell has various features and progresses along several lines. First, in order to interest and instruct teachers in the objects and methods of nature-study, various leaflets have been published. These leaflets are also the lessons of the "Home Nature-Study Course," and those who take this course have sent to them, as in the Farmers' Reading Course, a supplementary leaflet of questions. Nature-study is also brought to the notice of teachers at the State Teachers' Institute by a Cornell instructor or lecturer, and according to Bulletin No. 159 of the Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station for January, 1899, it was then estimated that 14,400 teachers had been reached in this way. The lecturer at these institutes not only "presents the claims of nature-study, but also the specific means by which it may be taught." In the summer schools at Cornell and elsewhere in the State, courses are also given that are "designed to teach nature-study—in insect life, in plant life, and on the farm." The summer schools and the personal work at the Teachers' Institute might be regarded as means for pushing the nature-

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\* The American Monthly Illustrated Review of Reviews, April, 1901. "Nature Study on the Cornell Plan," Professor H. Bailey.

study idea, while the Teachers' Leaflets and the Home Nature-Study Course give to teachers subject-matter and the point of view.

The second distinct movement in the Cornell nature-study enterprise is the organisation of the children into "Junior Naturalist Clubs," so as to take up observational work and collecting for themselves, and also the publication for their use of a "Junior Naturalist Monthly" to guide them in what they are to see.

Before going into any detail regarding these various movements, it will be well to consider what is the Cornell conception of nature-study. It can be best illustrated by quotations from the publications of the Cornell Bureau of Nature-Study. In the Cornell Nature-Study Quarterly, No. 3, we are told that "The Cornell Nature-Study movement has for its purpose the awakening of a love for natural and native things. It stands for naturalness and freedom . . . It does not attempt to teach elementary science, nor primarily to popularise knowledge, and herein it differs from other nature-study movements. It is not seeking to make investigators of the coming generation, to the end that the boundaries of science may be widened." One of the Teachers' Leaflets—No. 6—deals with the question, "What is Nature-Study?" and teachers are in it told that "it is seeing the things which one looks at, and the drawing of proper conclusions from what one sees. Nature study is not the study of a science, as of botany, entomology, geology and the like. . . . It is wholly informal and unsystematic, the same as the objects are which one sees. It is entirely divorced from definitions or from explanations in books. . . . It simply trains the eye and the mind to see and to comprehend the common things of life. . . . The proper objects of nature study are the things which one oftenest meets. . . . If the objects to be studied are informal, the methods of teaching should be the same. If nature-study were made a stated part of a curriculum, its purpose would be defeated." Again in Bulletin No. 159, already referred to, we read that "Many teachers have a mistaken idea as to what constitutes nature-study. Some conceive it to be a translation or exaltation of the child's mind to such an altitude that he can be crammed with science from a book and retain it in such a form as to be capable of giving a reflected light in examinations. . . . Our conception of nature-study is that it should be so informal as not to admit of systematic examination. The central thought is to study the thing itself." Then in Cornell Nature-Study Quarterly, No. 4, teachers are advised that "persons frequently ask if we believe in teaching sentiment in nature-study. We disapprove of sentiment and poetic interpretations when they give the wrong point of view, and when they substitute mere emotion for patient inquiry. . . . We

wish to protest against that teaching of nature which is mere sentimentalism, which makes the 'goody-goody' part of the work so prominent that it becomes the child's point of view. Interest in things themselves should be the primary motive." What, then, is the right "point of view"? What is Nature-Study? In Cornell Nature-Study Quarterly, No. 9, Professor Bailey answers the question, by stating that—

"It is a point of view. It is the acquirement of sympathy with nature, which means sympathy with what is.

"As a pedagogical idea, nature study is teaching the youth to see and to know the thing nearest at hand, to the end that his life may be fuller and richer. Primarily, nature study, as the writer conceives it, is not knowledge. He would avoid the leaflet that gives nothing but information. Nature study is not method. Of necessity each teacher will develop a method; but this method is the need of the teacher, not of the subject.

"Nature study is not to be taught for the purpose of making the youth a specialist or a scientist. Now and then a pupil will desire to pursue a science for the sake of the science, and he should be encouraged. But every pupil may be taught to be interested in plants and birds and insects and running brooks, and thereby his life will be stronger. The crop of scientists will take care of itself.

"It is said that nature study teaching is not thorough and therefore is undesirable. Much that is good in teaching has been sacrificed for what we call 'thoroughness'—which in many cases only means a perfunctory drill in mere facts.

"The first essential in nature study is to see what one looks at. It is positive, direct, discriminating, accurate observation. The second essential is to understand why the thing is so, or what it means. The third essential is the desire to know more,—and this comes of itself and thereby is unlike much other effort of the schoolroom. The final result should be the development of a keen personal interest in every natural object and phenomenon.

"So far as possible, nature study should be spontaneous. To make it a formal part of school life, leading to perfunctory examinations, is to take the life out of it."

These quotations illustrate what is understood at Cornell as nature-study. To give teachers this "point of view," readable leaflets were prepared and published. They are intended for the use of the teacher, and the series, which began in 1896, ended in May, 1901. These leaflets simply indicate the kind of subjects that may be taken up, give some subject-matter and point the way in which the subject may be taught.

The Teachers' Leaflets issued are twenty-two in number and cover a large number of topics. After the first thirteen leaflets were issued, the publication took the form of a Quarterly. The subjects treated are:—

1. How a squash plant gets out of the seed.
2. How a candle burns.
3. Four apple twigs.
4. A children's garden.
5. Some tent makers.
6. What is nature study?
7. Hints on making collections of insects.

8. The leaves and acorns of our common oaks.
9. The life history of the toad.
10. The birds and I.
11. Life in an aquarium.
12. How the trees look in winter.
13. Evergreens and how they shed their leaves.
14. A summer shower.
15. A handful of soil.
16. Cuttings and cuttings.
17. The burst of spring—The early buds—The opening of a cocoon.
18. A brook and its work—Insect life of a brook.
19. How plants live together.
20. A hill of potatoes.
21. A study of fishes—The story of a terrarium.
22. Spiders.

These leaflets are intended for teachers solely, and at the end of most of them there is a direct address "to the teacher." In leaflet No. 2 the teacher is informed that "it should be borne in mind that the object of these lessons is not to impart direct and specific information, but to train the child in the powers of seeing and inquiring." The note at the back of leaflet No. 12 states that "these leaflets are designed to suggest means and methods by which teachers may interest children in nature study. The ultimate object of our work is to inculcate a love for country life, and this can best be done by interesting the coming generation in country things." Then in the note to teacher in leaflets No. 8 and others, there is the following request:—"It is especially urged that this leaflet shall not be placed in the pupil's hands. It is prepared to enable the teacher to ask suggestive questions."

The aim of the leaflets, besides being interesting and containing something teachable about common things, is to send the teacher to nature. To further this object there is the Teachers' Home Nature-Study Course, and a single illustration will show how the scheme is worked. Teachers' leaflet No. 9, on "The Life History of the Toad," forms lesson No. 7 of the Home Study Course, and with it a leaflet of questions is forwarded to those willing to undertake actual work. There is nothing scientific about these questions noted in the "Quiz," but to answer them well direct observation from original sources is demanded.\*

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\* The scope of the "Quiz" will be gathered from the following questions therein:—Have you looked for toads' eggs this spring? Where and with what success? How does "frog spawn" differ from "toad spawn"? What other animals deposit eggs in similar places? What changes did you observe in the eggs before hatching? How do tadpoles of toads and frogs differ? About what date did the toad tadpoles begin to come often to the surface in your aquarium? Why did they do this? Which pair of legs appear first? What date? How soon afterwards did the second pair of legs appear? What superstitions about toads have been common among your pupils? What do your full-grown toads eat?

A teacher who has followed the suggestions made in the leaflet, and worked out the questions in the "Quiz," will be prepared in some degree, when the subject is taken up by the children, to direct their energies advantageously. A teacher has, therefore, the leaflets and the "Quiz," and these can be followed up by personal correspondence and advice from the Cornell Bureau of Nature-Study.

As already noted, under the Cornell plan the school children are organised into Natural History Clubs. A letter is addressed to the teacher in which "she" is asked "if she will encourage the organisation of one or more clubs in her school. She suggests it to the children and leaves it with them." The letter sent by the Bureau to the teacher is as follows:—

"Cornell University College.

"Bureau of Nature Study and Farmers' Reading Course.

"To the Teacher:

"We enclose herewith something we would like to say to your pupils about organising a Junior Naturalist Club. Perhaps your first thought will be that this is a scheme for adding burdens to yourself, but the fact is quite otherwise. We have the enthusiastic testimony of hundreds of teachers who have had a Junior Naturalist Club that the organisation has been a great help to them. They have not let the doings of a club usurp a period nor thought of it as required work. They have taken it up at some inspired moment and in a spontaneous way. They speak of the work as relieving the school of monotony and as furnishing live topics to correlate with English and drawing periods. You can suggest a topic in nature study for the club to consider, or we will send a monthly lesson. You must not think you will be called on to be a cyclopaedia of all the sciences and to be able to answer all the questions and give names to all the things the children will bring in. To do so, even if it were possible, would be to give a wilderness of facts, and all sense of direction would be lost. If you will supply your pupils with enthusiasm, we will take care of the science side.

"It is best to select some familiar subject for observation and thought and to have your material in the school room and convenient for observation. Five minutes' attention now and then, with what the children will find out in their own way, will give much thought for them to express in the English and drawing periods. We wish that you would give the plan a trial, and if you found it did not meet your requirements, it could be dropped. It will be far better to make a trial during the early fall term when so much in nature is accessible and alive.

"With best wishes, believe us,

"Yours cordially,

"JNO. W. SPENCER."

To the "dear boys and girls" a letter is sent as from "Uncle John," enclosing instructions for organising a Junior Naturalist Club. They are told what officers to elect, how to conduct business, what the duties of the officers are, what will be the club dues, and finally attention is directed to "club yells," the hope being expressed that should one be adopted "the girls will yell as well as the boys."

"Cornell University, College of Agriculture.

"Bureau of Nature Study and Farmers' Reading Course.

'Dear Boys and Girls:

"Your Uncle John encloses instructions for organising a Junior Naturalist Club. He wishes you to discuss among yourselves and also with

your teacher the formation of such a club. There is lots of fun in belonging to a club—at least, many boys and girls have found it so. There is no expense in money to belong to a club; but each member, in order to be in good standing, writes once a month to Uncle John. This letter (or it may be a drawing) constitutes the monthly dues.

"After securing a list of members, there must be an election of officers. Often there is more than one candidate for the same office. The contest should be a friendly one, but it will be all right for you to secure all the votes you can for your candidate, if you are honest and fair. If you see anything unfair, you should expose it; but be sure that you are right before you say much. If it happens that your party be defeated, I would congratulate all the successful candidates and say that, having won fairly, no member would give the administration more loyal support than yourself.

"No officer has a right to show special favours to his friends. He should consider all to be equal. Your teacher would censure anyone guilty of doing otherwise. In the large number of clubs organised last year, the girls held office as often as the boys, and seemed to be as competent.

"After the election, there is also great fun in holding meetings in parliamentary form as grown-up people do. Some morning Jimmie Jones may come to school with something newly discovered about seed travellers, or crickets, or grasshoppers, or spiders, which would be of interest for the others to know. At the suggestion of the teacher, a five or ten minutes' session of the club may be held. The president should take the chair, rap for order, and say the meeting had been convened for the purpose of hearing a report from James Jones. On nearly all other occasions it would be Jim or Jimmie, but just this time the presiding officer should assume some dignity. The member should rise from his seat and may begin by addressing: 'Mr. President and Members of the Junior Naturalist Club.' The president recognises him by saying: 'Master James Jones.' Then Jimmie may go on with what he has to say. When he has taken his seat, some questions will probably follow. Each member should rise to his feet and address 'Mr. President,' and when recognised as Jimmie had been would be at liberty to proceed. It has sometimes happened that a member has failed in pleasing the teacher and has been suspended from the club for a time.

"One of the hardest things in school is writing compositions during the English period. Such need not be the case if one has something to say. In the payment of your monthly dues, you can find many interesting things to write about concerning the nature study topics you have had under consideration. If you should feel that you have nothing to say on the subject, proceed to write on what you do not know, and you will not go far before you will find that there are many things that you do know. Ask your teacher if she will not permit you to express your ideas in your own way, for we do not care so much about your scholarship as your thoughts and your ability to express them in a natural way. Next to telling what you think, you can write your Uncle John what you see. Or, best of all, tell him both. There is a great difference in boys and girls in being able to see what they look at. With your teacher's consent, you can send drawings instead of a letter. Many junior naturalists do both.

"Perhaps your teacher will be able to go with you on field excursions. That will be great fun—as much as hunting or fishing. This love for the study of nature will grow on you.

"Last year a large number of our clubs had a club yell. If your club should adopt one, I hope the girls will yell as well as the boys. Organise a club on trial, and if you do not like the plan, it can be given up.

"Cordially your Uncle,

"Jno. W. SPENCER."

The following is the enclosure :—

**"INSTRUCTIONS FOR ORGANISING A JUNIOR NATURALIST CLUB.**

If one is to be happy, he must know something of the things in which he lives. He should love the plants and birds and the out-of-doors. In order to help every boy and girl in the New York State to love nature, we are encouraging the organisation of Junior Naturalist Clubs.

Every Junior Naturalist Club should elect the following officers : President, Vice-President, Secretary, Treasurer ; to act for a term or period to be determined by members of the club.

The duty of the President is to preside at all meetings, see that the officers fulfil their respective duties and perform such other functions as usually pertain to that office. The qualifications for this office should be force of character to do his duty as the officer sees it. He should have kindness of heart to be ever mindful of the quiet, unobtrusive members, to treat all with justice, to have no favourites, and to inspire harmony and enthusiasm.

The duty of the Secretary is to keep a record of the proceedings of all meetings and attend to all club correspondence, such as forwarding monthly dues and the Treasurer's report to the Bureau of Nature Study, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.

The duty of the Treasurer is to attend to all accounts of the club, to make monthly reports on blanks that will be furnished, showing the names of those who have paid their club dues either by letters or drawings, and those who have not, and the reason why ; also names of new members since last report and members dropped from club.

As soon as members have paid four dues and are thereby entitled to the badge, a report should be made of the fact. All reports of the Treasurer should be given to the Secretary that he may enclose them with the monthly dues that are sent to the Bureau of Nature Study.

Any member receiving the largest number of votes shall be declared elected to the office for which he was nominated.

The declared object of the junior naturalist "is the study of nature, to the end that every member thereof shall love the country better and be content to live therein." All boys and girls living in the State of New York, who bear recommendations from their teachers, are eligible to membership.

Any number of four or more may constitute a club.

Immediately after the election of officers a report of the organisation, on a blank herewith enclosed, should be sent to the Bureau of Nature Study, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.

As soon as possible after the receipt of such report the Bureau will send a club charter. If the club wishes to christen itself with a name, such will be inscribed in the charter.

*The Club Dues.*—Most clubs have dues, and so have ours ; but the payment is required in work, not in money. Each member is expected to tell Uncle John at least once a month by letter or by drawings what he has seen and thought on some topic in nature study suggested by the teacher or by the Bureau of Nature Study. These dues can be paid during the English and drawing periods.

The standard of excellence of dues is not based on scholarship, but on the member telling in his own way what he has seen and thought. It is hoped that he will not imitate the parrot by repeating what he has heard others say. Drawings relating to the nature study topic will be as acceptable as letters or compositions. These monthly dues will be interesting subjects for both the English and drawing periods.

On the receipt of the fourth acceptable dues from any member in good standing, a badge pin will be sent, to be worn by him as a testimony that the owner is entitled to all the honors due to a young naturalist. Badges are never sent to hire boys and girls to join a club.

If members wish, they can send their written dues in the form of a letter addressed to Uncle John. When the Secretary mails these dues and the Treasurer's reports, the postal address should be "Bureau of Nature Study, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y." The record of each member will be kept and the letters examined by a member of the Bureau staff. Letters relating to personal affairs or special inquiry should be addressed to "John W. Spencer, Bureau of Nature Study, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y."

Just as the teachers' leaflet is published for the teacher, so the "Junior Naturalist Monthly" is published for the children. This monthly suggests what topic might be studied during the month, and offers hints how to go about it, taking up only those topics that have already appeared in the teachers' leaflets. To give one example. The teachers' leaflet already referred to on "The Life History of the Toad" was issued in November, 1898. It is full of information about the various changes that take place in the toad's life-history, how they are accomplished, where to find eggs, how to keep and hatch them, how to watch their development into toads, how to feed them, their land life, their food on land, their habits of hibernation, enemies, etc. In due course those who obtained the "Quiz" issued under the Home Nature-Study course learnt, from the questions set, the class of questions it was desirable to put to children by which their inquiries might be kept on right lines. In March, 1900, the Children's "Junior Naturalist Monthly"\* took as the topic for Club investigation, "How to Get the Toad to tell his Story," the children being advised where to look for eggs, how to make an artificial pond, how to treat handle, and feed the young toads, and what to watch for and note. Teachers thus have opportunity to gain some familiarity with the subject before it is brought to the notice of the children. It is evident that there is a method in this informal system of "Nature-Study," but it is carefully kept out of sight. Toads, for example, are not made one of a series of object lessons. The subject is not presented as a lesson or task at all, but as a recreative topic outside the formal work of the school. The enthusiasm of youth is encouraged, direction or guidance is not in evidence, yet by suggestions and questioning the children are led to devote their attention to points which will necessitate daily observation. In this work the teacher, according to Professor Bailey, "has only a supervisory interest."

The Cornell Nature-Study plan is through the leaflet to induce the teacher to look nature-ward, and through the "Naturalists' Monthly" to lead the children in the same direction. It does not attempt to teach elementary science or

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\* Among the subjects taken up are such as "The Story an Apple Tree can Tell," "How shall we please St. Nicholas?" "Oxygen and Carbon in Partnership," "The Coming of Spring," "The Four Chapters of an Insect's Life," etc.



even to popularise it, but it endeavours to get children, with the assistance of their teachers, to go about with their eyes open and to see things—the things that are around them, under their feet, and over their head. To the instructional subjects in a school curriculum is left the duty of explaining and demonstrating the why and wherefore of Nature's facts and Nature's laws.

It must be borne in mind that the expenses incurred by the American University Agricultural Colleges in undertaking nature-study are borne by State funds given to such institutions for the extension of *agricultural* knowledge. They are not interested in the subject from a pedagogical point of view, but regard it simply as a method of forwarding agricultural work.

Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana, is another institution that publishes "Leaflets on Nature Study" for "the Use of Teachers of Schools in Rural Districts." About twenty-four leaflets have been issued, and practically the Cornell "point of view" is taken. All the leaflets are headed "For the Use of Teachers," and in the "Note to the Teacher" the purpose of the leaflet is said to be "to give teachers such information as will enable them to answer such questions as may arise in the progress of nature-study."

The Purdue Leaflets are :—

1. Introduction to Nature Study.
2. The Study of the Foliage Leaf.
3. The Flower as an object of Nature Study.
4. The Care of Domestic Animals.
5. A Children's Garden. [A Cornell Leaflet.]
6. A Chat about Bugs.
7. The Observation Club.
8. Spring Birds.
9. A Country School Garden.
10. A Talk about Trees.
11. A Study of our Insect Enemies.
12. A Talk about Water Drops.
13. Climate in some of its relations to Daily Life.
14. The Germination of Seeds.
15. Our Insect Friends.
16. Butter-making for Young People.
17. About Spiders and their Curious Ways.
18. The Work of Water.
19. Heat and what it does.
20. Our Friends, the Birds.
21. A Children's Vegetable Garden.
22. An Experimental Farm for Young People.
23. Points for a Young Farmer's Club.
24. The Care of the Soil.

The Purdue University authorities also ask teachers to organise their pupils into "Observation Clubs." Teachers are told that as nature work "cannot be given from data drawn from books however skilfully prepared, the data must be drawn from nature itself," and therefore "each leaflet is merely a suggestion as to how certain familiar objects may be successfully and profitably used," while "it should be remembered that the primary purpose of nature work is to cultivate habits of accurate observation."

We have now, we believe, sufficiently illustrated the sense in which the term "nature-study" is used in the United States. It is, in fact, so loosely applied that the question whether nature-study is anything more than a fad has been frequently debated in America. The breadth of interpretation that is given to this term is indeed remarkable. It is applied:—

- (a) To ordinary object lesson teaching, in which special attention is devoted to natural phenomena and to Natural History objects
- (b) To the teaching of elementary science.
- (c) To the teaching of the principles of agriculture.
- (d) To such teaching as inculcates goody-goody sentimentalism as a virtue in respect to animal and plant life.
- (e) To teaching that fosters a second-hand knowledge about the wonders of the world, through "reading all about it."
- (f) To teaching that attempts to veneer the ordinary school curriculum with "Nature."
- (g) To such informal teaching as endeavours to train the eye and ear to quick and accurate observation in respect to environment.
- (h) To such teaching as combines in varying degrees two or more of the above systems or methods, ideals or pretensions.

The type of nature-study that is most general in the United States is that which is fostered by State agricultural institutions. Their methods are indeed many and often at variance, but as their schemes are supported by State agricultural grants, they are free to teachers and children, and this fact is a potent factor in their favour. Next in order might be placed the nature-study which is simply elementary science or popular science teaching. The main point in favour of this type is its manner of presentation, that is, an attractive way of teaching what may be regarded as one of the ordinary school subjects. Such nature-study appeals to all science teachers. to the

directors of training institutions, and to the better qualified teachers (usually found in urban centres) who are earnestly interested in science and pedagogics. Lastly there is a section composed of various types of faddists. Undoubtedly the forms of nature-study to be found in this section are as varied and changeable as nature itself. Practically it may be said that in this class nature-study is an emotional subject. But we would note that, besides the schemes we have indicated, there are many nature-study schemes in the United States so "mixed" that they cannot satisfactorily be classified.\*

We do not profess to have surveyed all the nature-study schemes in the United States, but we have attempted to indicate their variety. What is nature-study? Unless some limitations are agreed upon, we fear the subject as recognised in the United States is so discursive that attempts to give it definition must prove unsatisfactory.

1902.

R. HEDGER WALLACE.

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\*The "Biology Series" of "Nature Study Leaflets," issued by Professor C. F. Hodge, of Clark University, Worcester, Mass., represents a type of nature study that is difficult to classify. In respect to it the following points may be noted:

1. The leaflet is not distributed free.
2. The organisation of children ("ten to one" club) is advocated.
3. Prizes are offered to the children.
4. It advocates nature study of the "diluted science" type. Biology, we are told, is "an easy word to designate the nature study of living things," and it is further stated that "this wider study should largely supplant the more technical and special science work in our schools."
5. The leaflets are intended for teachers.
6. At the same time it is interspersed with poetical quotations of varying length, and extracts from descriptive writers of a certain school. (Many nature-study teachers in the United States regard the study of poetical quotations which refer to nature as an important part of nature-study.)
7. Not only is the teaching of biology advocated, but also the teaching of ethical ideas — "nature study which has some high purpose in it." In the leaflet, "Our Common Birds," Professor Hodge repudiates and anathematizes as a libel on childhood theories of "native cruelty," stating that they are "the loose conclusions" of a "desiccated breed of pedagogues."

NOTE—A collection of British and American works on nature-study can be seen at the Board of Education Library, S. Stephen's House, Cannon Row, Whitehall, London, S.W.

## APPENDIX.

## PROFESSOR HODGE ON AMERICAN SYSTEMS OF NATURE-STUDY.

In the "Pedagogical Seminary" for 1900, Professor Hodge, of Clark University, has a series of articles on the "Foundations of Nature-Study" in the third of which (July, 1900) he discusses the "different plans and methods of Nature-study now in the field" in the United States. This survey we summarise, as it is of interest to note the opinion of a prominent American nature-study worker on the work of others in the same field. Professor Hodge finds twelve methods of nature-study current in the United States including his own, and he classifies them as (1) the book method; (2) the logical method; (3) the twaddle method; (4) the logico-twaddle method; (5) the scientific method; (6) the æsthetic method; (7) the museum method; (8) the mytho-poetic method; (9) the sugar-coated pill method; (10) the excursion method; (11) the knot-hole method; and (12) the active method, which is what Professor Hodge calls his own system. The book method Professor Hodge states has brought in the flood of juvenile books on "Nature," such as nature readers, nature stories, etc., that at present threaten to deluge the modern child. Professor Hodge also points out that it is a palpable absurdity to think that nature can be studied out of books instead of by first-hand observation. Genuine nature literature, he acknowledges, is a source of help and inspiration for nature-study, but it is not nature-study. In English literature we get the best nature lore that has been written in any language. One side of this nature literature—prose appreciation of nature—is represented by the works of Gilbert White, Thoreau, Burroughs, Jefferies, and others. Another side—the poetic interpretation of nature—is represented by the works of such poets as Wordsworth, Burns, Tennyson, Longfellow, Emerson, and Whittier. Nature literature studied as literature would not be the book method of nature-study, but under this head should be placed all attempts to learn in or through books "those things in nature which surround us on every side."

The logical method, according to Professor Hodge, is best represented by the various works of Mr. Jackman of the Chicago Institute, especially by his "Nature-Study for Grammar Grades." The first thing in such a scheme is a field lesson. Then this "nature-study" has a series of "co-ordinations" with "numbers, geography, mensuration, drawing, expression, mineralogy, soil analysis, meteorology, astronomy, botany, zoology, etc., etc."

The twaddle method embraces all creation "from the sun, moon, and stars down to fleas; from morals to mosquitoes." Under such a scheme of logical perfection the children are dosed with bald abstractions, as, for example, in the lesson on the cow—"notice that she has four legs and a cleft hoof with two toes."

Regarding the logico-twaddle method Professor Hodge writes: "When the rigours of adult logic are applied to an elementary presentation of a subject so infinitely complicated as the natural universe, the logic and the twaddle become tangled up beyond hope of separation." The general criticism on these logical methods is that they cover the whole realm of nature so beautifully, and everything is laid out in such orderly fashion that nothing could be better calculated to give a child a notion (or delusion) that he knows everything worth knowing about nature.

The fifth method is the "scientific" method, and this, according to Professor Hodge, is "not so comprehensive and pretentious" as the logical series. "It takes up some common group of things in the environment of

the child and treats it scientifically." "Science" in this method does not mean "organised common sense." Professor Hodge gives an illustration of this "scientific" method of nature-study. He found in one school a class facing a sketch of a bee on the blackboard; over this was written the word "Hy-men-op-tera," and the method of teaching was to point to this chart and ask what the part indicated was. Outside it was a nice summer day, flowers were blooming and bees were humming, but there was not a bee, dead or alive, inside this schoolroom, which Professor Hodge terms "a ghastly pedagogical charnel-house."

The aesthetic method, Professor Hodge states, usually inverts the proper relation of things. "Caterwauling" about the beauties of nature is not studying nature.

The seventh, or museum, method of nature-study is based, according to Professor Hodge, on the magpie instinct—a passion for heaping together all sorts of things to look at. This method, Professor Hodge states, "is inextricably tangled up with the logical and scientific methods." Usually the dead stuff stored in a school museum is there, he thinks, to be yearly resurrected through the aid of some reading or more advanced school book.

Under the mytho-poetic method Professor Hodge classifies those systems where children, having observed some natural phenomena, or after their attention has been drawn to it, are afterwards dosed with songs, poems, and myths relative to it *ad nauseam*.

The term "sugar-coated pill" is applied to such methods as attempts "to stuff in a modicum of 'scientific' information under cover of what some may be inclined to call 'poetry.'" This type of poetry is illustrated by quotations. The following four lines, taken from "The Setting Sun," is one of the samples:—

"Dear John, the sun is setting now,  
Behold him in the West;  
And all the children now must soon  
Lie down and go to rest."

The excursion method is, perhaps, not an independent system, for it runs alongside of many other methods. It may be utilised for general demonstrations and practical examinations, and although the best things in nature cannot be studied in crowds (for actual nature-study must be individual), yet the method, Professor Hodge acknowledges, in a number of cases can be used to advantage.

The last method discussed in this review, termed the "active method," is Professor Hodge's own contribution to the list of methods, and developed, he tells us, because "in working through all the methods of nature-study" he had been "impressed at so many points by their passive, receptive character, and their flabbiness." Professor Hodge has recently published a nature-study manual, entitled "Nature Study and Life," which practically limits nature-study to the study of living things.

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